

STATE OF NEW-YORK.

No. 135.

IN ASSEMBLY,

March 22, 1844.

REPORT

Of the committee on colleges, academies and common schools, in regard to the distribution of the Literature Fund, and the establishment of a Normal School to educate Teachers of Common Schools, &c.

Mr. Hulburd, from the committee on colleges, academies and common schools, to whom were referred so much of the message of the Governor as relates to common schools; the annual report of the Superintendent of Common Schools; a resolution of the Assembly to inquire into and report upon the propriety of transferring twenty-eight thousand dollars from the Literature Fund to the Common School Fund; sundry petitions for and remonstrances against such transfer; and petitions for the improvement of common schools in general,

REPORTS:

That under the act of Congress, passed June 23, 1836, providing for the distribution, under certain restrictions, of the surplus moneys in the treasury of the United States, the sum of \$4,014,520.71 was received by this State. Several years antecedent to the passage of this act, the necessity of making some disposition of these surplus moneys and their *probable distribution* among the several States, was so apparent as to become the subject of comment in the annual messages of

several of the State Executives. As early as 1827, the Governor of this State, mentioned their distribution as desirable for the purpose of "*public improvements.*" In 1830, the same officer regarded them as "applicable to the extension of our public works;" a committee of the Senate in the following year, in their report, seem to view the distribution *to be made*, as very important to enable the State to prosecute its works of internal improvements. Although the original intention of the State may have been to apply its share of these funds "to the extension of our public works," it seems to have been soon and entirely abandoned. The Governor in his next annual message to the Legislature, after the actual distribution had been made, recommended that the sum received by this State should be loaned out, and that the income derived from the investment, should be wholly appropriated to the cause of education. The report of a joint committee of the Senate and Assembly, to whom was referred so much of the Governor's message as related to this subject, approved of the recommendation, to devote the income to be derived from this Deposit Fund, "to the purposes of education."* This committee reported the project of a law carrying out this recommendation, but the Legislature at that session only provided for the loaning of the money. In the message of January 1838, the Governor expressed himself decidedly in favor of applying the income "exclusively to the purposes of education."

The committee of the Assembly to whom this part of the message, and other kindred subjects were referred, in their report,† proposed the establishment of a department for the *education of teachers* in one academy in every county of the State—as a "principal means" of leading, at a future day, at least, to the proper appreciation and to the employment of competent teachers—the report recommended the liberal appropriation of \$100,000 per annum for the establishment of district libraries—to encourage and to enable districts to obtain "the services of a better order of instructors," and to pay them the "higher wages," excellence and superiority will command—they advised that a portion of the income of this fund be yearly added to, and distributed with the revenue derived from the present Common School Fund; they also advised that colleges and academies "*should be sustained with aid from the public funds, as schools for the education of teachers.*"

* Sen. Doc. No. 29, 1837.

† Ass. Doc. No. 236, 1838.

In accordance with the suggestions of the Executive and of the committee, an act was passed April 17, 1838, directing that "the income arising from the Deposit Fund should be expended for the purposes of education and the diffusion of knowledge," as follows: the sum of one hundred and ten thousand dollars to the support of common schools; the sum of forty-five thousand dollars to the purchase of district libraries; the sum of six thousand dollars "for the period of five years and until otherwise directed by law," to Geneva College; the like sum, and for the like time, to the University of the city of New-York; the sum of three thousand dollars for the like time to Hamilton College; the sum of twenty-eight thousand dollars annually to "the Literature Fund," which, together with the sum of twelve thousand dollars of the existing Literature Fund, was directed to be annually distributed among the academies in the several Senatorial Districts, by the Regents of the University. Any residue of the income of that Fund, not otherwise appropriated, was directed to be "annually added to the capital of the Common School Fund."

In May, 1841, the Legislature passed acts appropriating the sum of five thousand dollars a year for three years, from the income of the U. S. Deposit Fund to the trustees of each of the medical colleges of Albany and Geneva. Since that year the revenue of this fund has been charged with a moiety of the salaries of county superintendents, amounting to about fourteen thousand dollars per annum; also, with twenty-eight hundred dollars to print and circulate among all the school districts, the Common School Journal. By an act passed, 1842, the sum of one thousand dollars of this revenue for five years is appropriated to the Eye Infirmary of the city of New-York.

Your committee thought it might be interesting thus briefly to glance at whatever of past legislation affected this fund or its revenue, and to glean from Executive messages and reports of committees, as far as practicable, the mind and intent of those under whose auspices the moneys were first received and loaned, and whose high privilege it was to distribute the income of this magnificent investment.

From this hasty survey of official recommendations and action in reference to the disposition of the surplus moneys received from the United States, it would seem that the project of expending them upon works of internal improvement was soon abandoned, and that they were received and invested, and the income arising therefrom, conse

crated to the diffusion of knowledge among the people of this State in all time to come.

The people of this State early moved, and with no niggard or faltering pace, in aid of the higher institutions of learning. Fresh from all the privations and perils, the exciting hopes and fears of the war of the Revolution, the first legislating session after the adoption of the Constitution of 1777, passed an act incorporating the Regents of the University—a Board declared, in the words of a subsequent statute, (March 31, 1790) to be “the guardians of the education of the youth of the State.”

On the 5th May, 1786, an act was passed directing that in laying out into townships “the unappropriated lands in this State,” in every town so laid out, one lot “for promoting literature” should be reserved, to be applied thereafter by the Legislature, “for promoting literature in this State.”*

On the 13th April, 1787, an act passed, recognizing the two existing academies,† and authorizing them to hold and enjoy certain lands, provided “That the annual revenue arising from the real and personal estate of any such academy shall not exceed *the value of four thousand bushels of wheat.*”‡

On the 31st March, 1790, an act was passed giving the Regents the possession, with power to lease or sell, of several very considerable tracts of unappropriated lands, and to apply the proceeds “for the better advancement of science and literature” in the only college (Columbia) then existing, and in the several academies. The second section ordered that the sum of two thousand pounds be paid out of the Treasury for the same purpose.¶ This was the first money appropriation by the State to any academy.

On the 7th of April, 1790, the Regents made their first appropriation to academies, of £375 for the purchase of books and philosophical apparatus, to be *deposited* in each of the *five* academies incorporated by them.

An act was passed the 11th April, 1792, directing the sum of £1500

* 8 Greenleaf's Laws of New-York, page 282. † Erasmus Hall, Clinton Academy.
 ‡ Greenleaf's Laws of New-York, pages 438-9. ¶ 2 Greenleaf, page 317.

to be distributed for five years, in such manner as should be most beneficial for the several academies and most advantageous to literature.

On the 7th February, 1793, the sum of £1500 was distributed among the *ten* academies then existing, to applied for the payment of teachers' wages, books, &c., "and to enable trustees to take into academies such youths of genius, whose parents are too indigent to pay the expense of tuition."

On the 25th January, 1794, £1500 were, for like purposes, distributed among *twelve* academies then existing; the following year, £1460 were distributed for the same purposes.

March 9, 1801, the sum of \$250, was granted to Hamilton Oneida Academy, for the purchase of books, &c. April 2, \$150 to North Salem Academy.

In the same month and year, an act was passed "for the promotion of literature within this State," directing "the sum of one hundred thousand dollars," to be raised "by four successive lotteries," \$12,500 of which were for four successive years to be distributed among the academies, and the like amount for the same number of years to common schools.†

In March, 1803, a committee of the Regents reported that there were *twenty-one* incorporated academies; that the sum of \$7,969.68, had heretofore been distributed to *thirteen*; that eight had received no part of any appropriation; thereupon the sum of \$3,050 was granted by the Regents principally to the eight.

In 1804, March 28, the sum of \$2,300 was by the Regents granted to academies. In the next ten years, \$15,000 was distributed.

In 1813, April 12, a very considerable tract of land lying in the town of Westford, in the county of Otsego, was directed to be sold for the benefit of Academies. In the same month, the following year, all the lands belonging to the State in the towns of Maryland and Milford, in the county of Otsego, were directed to be sold, and "one moiety" of the money to be paid to academies.

The next three years the Regents distributed \$12,320. In 1817, they determined that all future distributions should be made in proportion to the number of students pursuing "classical studies," and the "higher branches of learning," in each of the academies.

* 2 Greenleaf, p. 480.

† Session Laws 1801, p. 158.

Acts passed in 1819 and 1824, which very materially increased the capital of the Literature Fund.

In 1825, the Regents of the University, in accordance with a resolution of the Senate, reported that they had distributed to academies up to that year, a total of \$73,739.34. The next ten years they distributed \$87,493.88.

By an act of the Legislature, passed April 13, 1827, the sum of \$150,000, was transferred from the General Fund to the Literature Fund. This fund, thus augmented, amounted to about \$245,000.

In 1835, 66 academies reporting 5548 students, received \$19,094, from the Literature Fund. During the years 1836, '7, '8, the Regents distributed \$51,905.

By one of the provisions of the act of April 17, 1838, \$28,000, of the revenue of the U. S. Deposit Fund have since that year annually been distributed to academies by the Regents.

This year 74 academies reported 6391 scholars in attendance, at the date of their respective reports. During the years 1829, 1840, '1, '2, '3, '4, there were paid to academies by the Regents \$279,935.17, making in the last 54 years the whole amount distributed from the Literature Fund, for the payment of teachers' salaries, purchase of textbooks, apparatus, &c. and for the support of the teachers' departments, \$509,167.39.

In 1840, 119 academies reported 10,881 students.

In 1843, 142 academies reported 12,142 students ; 19 academies made no report.

In 1844, 149 academies reported 11,581 students ; 18 academies made no report.

In connexion with this hasty sketch of the origin and growth of the Literature Fund and its application, it may not be uninteresting to present a summary of the several sums of money and other property, exclusive of the annual distribution of the revenue of this fund, which has heretofore been appropriated by the State to the several Colleges and Academies.

Columbia College received from 1784 to 1810,	\$54,755 00
In 1814 the Botanic Garden in the city of New-York, costing,	74,268 75*
In 1819, a direct appropriation of	10,000 00*
By a lottery prior to 1754,	8,609 75†
	<u>\$147,633 50</u>

The College of Physicians and Surgeons in the city of N. Y., has received, since it was organized or incorporated in 1791, up to and including 1843, the sum of \$72,100 00
 Union College received, by the act of April

	9, 1795,	\$3,756
do	do	do July 14, 1796,
		10,000
do	do	do March 30, 1797,
		1,500
do	do	to April 13, 1814,
		<u>374,000</u>

\$389,250 00‡

Ten lots in Military Tract, granted 1819, estimated .. 10,000 00

Hamilton College received, in virtue of act of June 19, 1812,	\$50,000 00
Amount raised by lottery,	21,233 28
do do	35,566 72

From the U. S. Deposit Fund, including
1843,
 18,000 00 |

Right to subscribe to certain bank stock,
 14,000 00 |

\$138,800 00‡

Geneva College, from 1833 to 1843, rec'd \$30,000 00
 Medical department, "
 15,000 00 |

45,000 00

University of city of New-York, from 1838 to 1843, ..
 39,000 00 |

College of Physicians and Surgeons, formerly at Fair-
field, received
 15,000 00 |

Albany Medical College, 1841 to 1843, received
 15,000 00 |

\$672,633 50

During the last thirty years, various academies, in vir-
tue of special statutes, have received from the State
in aggregate,
 51,068 00|| |

Add to this the amount distributed by the Regents, ..
 509,167 39 |

Making to colleges and academies and medical schools, \$1,231,868 89

* Senate doc. vol. 1, 1837, No. 32. † Session Laws, 1814, app. 288. ‡ Session Laws, 1814, page 143, and app. to Senate doc. 1837, vol. I, No. 32. § Most of this large sum it appears was raised by lotteries. || Ass. doc, 1844, No. 92.

The present capital of the Literature Fund is	\$268,990 57
To this is to be added an unproductive capital of 10,913 acres of land, valued at	4,845 00
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	\$273,835 57
The productive capital of the Common School Fund is	1,975,093 15
The unproductive consists of 357,824 acres of land, valued at	178,412 00
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	2,153,505 15
The United States Deposit Fund has a capital of	4,014,520 71
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Which added, give as the amount of the Educational Funds of this State,	<u>\$6,440,861 43</u>

Several petitions have been referred to your committee, asking that the Literature Fund may be added to and hereafter become a part of the Common School Fund; alleging as a reason "that large portions of the School Fund, by special enactments, have been diverted from its legitimate objects and applied to the support of colleges and academies, &c." The committee in all their researches into the origin and growth of the Literature Fund, have not found that *it has ever been* increased a farthing, directly or indirectly, from the Common School Fund, nor have they been able to discover a special or general enactment that has authorized the application of a dollar of the School Fund "to the support of colleges and academies."

Another allegation contained in some of the petitions is, that colleges and academies "are inaccessible to the children of the poor." The annual report of the Superintendent of Common Schools for the present year, page 32, has the following words on the same subject: "The sum of \$275,000, annually distributed from the School Fund, gives to each of the 657,782 children of the State less than forty-two cents: whilst it will be perceived by referring to the last annual report of the Regents of the University, that the students in the academies of this State, who are generally the sons of the rich, receive annually from the avails of the Literature Fund the sum of \$3.55 each; and this is wholly independent of the \$4,800 heretofore applied to teacher's departments."

Perhaps for the proper understanding of the subject, it should here be stated that the invariable condition on which the State distributes the annual sum of \$275,000 (being about the amount of the revenue of the Common School Fund, and the sum of \$110,000 appropriated from the United States Deposit Fund) is that an equal amount shall be raised by tax in the different counties. This tax is assessed and levied upon property; the poor that are destitute of both real and personal property, are entirely exempt from this tax; a person in the enjoyment of property, is taxed and pays according to what he possesses. It is the *property holder*, therefore, who pays this amount of \$275,000. There are then \$550,000 exclusively appropriated to the payment of teachers wages, annually distributed to school districts; this gives eighty-three cents and a fraction to every scholar, whether the child of "the rich" or "the poor." In the benefits of this distribution, the children of the poor man, whether he has contributed a penny of it or not, participate equally with "the sons of the rich."

Again, the property holder, pays for the site and erects thereon a school house, for the equal admission of every scholar in the district, whether the child of a taxed or exempt parent. This item may be safely estimated as amounting throughout the State to \$3,262,500.*

The public money, and with it so much as is raised by counties, is distributed to the 657,782 children of the State upon the single condition that they are within the ages of five and sixteen years. How many of *these* children are benefited by that distribution? During the year ending the first day of January, 1843, 270,996 children *only of all ages*, are reported to have attended school "*four months* and upwards;" 162,325 attended for "a period less than two months." In the 6,666 winter schools visited by the county superintendent, they found but 213,129 scholars of *all ages* present; if the whole 10,875 schools contained a proportionate number, there were at that period about 347,700 children in actual attendance. They visited 6,942 of the summer schools and found in them only 189,048 scholars; if there was only a proportionate attendance throughout the State, then the entire summer schools would have numbered in actual attendance about 294,700

* In 1841, John C. Spencer estimated the capital invested in each school house to *average* \$200; add the school house, the site, and taking into the account the great improvement and increased expense of most structures recently erected, and, it is believed, the above estimate of \$300, for each school house and lot throughout the State, is under, rather than over, the actual cost and value.

children of *all ages*. Most appalling results for the philanthropist, the parent, the legislator of the State of New-York!

The committee much regret that at the State Department of Common Schools, there are no returns which show the number of children *under five and over sixteen* years of age, that were in attendance at these periods of visitation. If the county superintendents generally, in their next reports, will but follow the example of the indefatigable superintendent of Albany county, in *his report* this year, the public will be put in possession of much valuable statistical information in relation to the *actual condition* of our schools.

By the Albany county superintendent's report, it appears the number of school age in the county is	16,580
Number of <i>all ages</i> in the district schools,.....	13,210
do do do private do	3,848
	<u>17,058</u>

This is the manner in which most reports and returns are made ; Mr. Dwight goes farther and says :

"No. of children of school age in the county,	16,580
do do on list when visited, ..	6,745
Average attendance, as shown by lists,.....	4,787
Actual do when visited,.....	<u>4,167</u>

"Instead, therefore, of 13,210 children attending school for eight months, as would be naturally inferred from the first summary, the actual number is but 4,167."

The result of the same officer's visit to the schools of four of the towns *this winter*, does not give a much more agreeable impression of the excellent working of "our unrivalled system of public instruction."

In these towns the number of pupils of <i>school age</i> is.....	1444
The number of pupils of school age on the lists,.....	1001
do do of all ages on the lists,.....	1127
The average attendance of all ages, only.....	691

These statistics are too meagre, we are aware, to deduce an inference from, by which to determine the ages or the actual atten-

dance of those children reported as present when the winter and summer schools were visited ; but do they not warrant the expression that probably a much less number than half, not 300,000, of the children of this State, of school age, are on one and the same day inmates of the school room ?

Again, in the 954 *private and select schools*, exclusive of those in the city of New-York, 34,105 pupils are reported ; adding 30,000, the estimated number in the city of New-York attending those schools, and we have 64,105 deducted from 657,782, (the whole number in the State,) leaves 593,677 ; deduct from that number the number in attendance at the winter schools, 347,700, leaves 245,977 *attending no school in the winter* ; deduct again from 593,677, the number attending the summer schools, 294,700, gives 298,977 *attending no school in the summer*.*

If these figures are at all to be relied on, do they not show that from the State Treasury is now paid full *one dollar* to every child of school age attending the district school, and about *ninety cents* to every child of *any* age actually attending the public schools. The assessed *property* of the counties pays an equal amount, which in the first case would give \$2, in the last \$1.80, to every pupil actually attending the public schools.

The revenue of the Literature Fund is distributed to academies according to the number of students who have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of English education or both, *for four months of the year*. The whole number of pupils in attendance at the academies, at the date of their annual report, is given ; this number probably bears about the same proportion to the number who attend at different periods of the year, as the estimated 300,000 actual attendants in the district school do, to the full reported number of 657,782.

We have but few statistics here to guide us ; 149, of the 167 incorporated academies, report as in actual attendance in the month of December last 11,581 students ; the census returns of 1840, give 34,715 as the number of students in the academies of this State that year. We are

* A prompt and efficacious cure of this evil, would be a statutory provision giving each town its share of the school money upon the same principle that now governs the distribution, but directing the town superintendent to distribute that share to the districts *only* according to the *actual attendance* of children of school age, during each last preceding year. The effect of such a measure is too obvious to need illustration.

aware that great errors have been discovered in these returns; we place however some reliance on them in this particular, inasmuch as a gentleman connected with one of the oldest academies in the eighth Senate District, in a letter to the committee in reply to one addressed him by the committee, more than corroborates them; saying that "only about one-third of our academical students draw anything: *i. e.* those on whom the dividend is made rate at \$3.55, but the whole number at \$1.25, and some much lower, say 75 cents."

Schedules Nos. 2 and 3 of the Regents' report of the present year, contain tabular statements relative to the condition [of the 149 academies reporting; from which it appears that there is a very considerable fixed capital invested for academies, in lots, buildings, libraries, philosophical apparatus, and in other property set apart for their support, and that it is steadily increasing.

In 1841, it was,	\$1,261,132
In 1842, " "	1,271,368
In 1843, " "	1,332,857
In 1844, " "	1,393,430

The amount of debts as reported, was as follows:

In 1842,	\$182,709
In 1843,	187,923
In 1844,	207,688

The following is a comparative view of the amount of tuition fees and salaries of teachers:

In 1842, tuition fees were \$177,684, salaries of teachers \$187,658
In 1843, " " 178,691, " " 195,182
In 1844, " " 186,708, " " 200,496

Leaving a balance of indebtedness of some \$13,788; to this should be added for the annual contingent expenses of all the institutions as reported, about \$50,000.

The statement of annual revenue and expenditure, on a balance sheet will perhaps best convey the impression of the financial condition of the academies.

Annual Revenue.

Tuition moneys for the last year,	\$186,708
Interest or income of academic property,	25,655
Amount received from the Regents,	38,796
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	\$251,159
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Annual Expenditure.

Salaries of teachers last year,	\$200,496
Interest accruing on debts during last year,	10,702
Repairs of buildings and academic property, last year,	12,268
Fuel and other incidental expenses, last year,	26,654
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	\$250,120
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From this statement, it must be evident that if the annual amount distributed by the Regents is diminished by the withdrawal of \$28,000, several academies having the smallest means of support, must be closed; if they are justly obnoxious to the charge of being aristocratic institutions, inaccessible to the poor, the sooner their numbers are reduced, the more creditable to the State.

Let us examine into their exclusive character: in 1841, the number of students reported as having been "instructed *gratuitously*," was 243; in 1842, 269; in 1843, 228. It can hardly be supposed by any one, that these pupils thus classed, were "the sons of the rich; but it would seem rather, that they were, in the language of the act of 1793, "such youths of genius whose parents are too indigent to pay the expense of tuition."

The liberality of the State to academies has not been for the mere sake of patronizing such institutions, but that the expense of instruction in those seminaries possessing superior advantages to obtain an education, may be so kept down as to be within the compass of the most moderate means. In all the Executive messages in which academies have been mentioned; in the communications of the Regents of the University with the Legislature; in the annual reports of the different superintendents of common Schools, and in the reports of the literary and educational committees of each branch of the Legislature, academies have always been regarded and treated as forming a necessary part in our system of public instruction.

Endowments and appropriations to them could never have been made to enable the rich to educate their children in exclusiveness, or to foster in any way an aristocratic spirit; but rather to prevent the begetting such a spirit, to break down the barriers with which wealth might seek to encompass the higher seminaries of learning. Hitherto *the aid* of the State has so *cheapened expense*, that their doors have been open to any youth of *enterprise*, however limited his resources. If the State had been able yet more liberally to endow them, so as to render their advantages accessible to all, instead of to some 200, *without any charge for instruction*, would it not have rendered them much more *democratic institutions*, than they now are?

The first outlay for lots, buildings, fixtures, apparatus, &c., is so very considerable, that if academies were to receive no aid from the State, very many of them would never be founded. If this aid were now withdrawn, the expense would be so enhanced, the price of tuition would be necessarily so raised that, to a very great extent, *academic education would become the monopoly of wealth*.

One principle runs through all our educational legislation: *the State will do something, provided the people will do as much or more*. The Common School Fund had its origin in this principle. The State has also said, for half a century, that it will make an annual appropriation to every academy having scholars pursuing certain studies, provided its patrons will invest a fixed sum in buildings, apparatus, &c. The property of the wealthy, with most commendable liberality, contributes to erect suitable structures, furnish library, chemical apparatus, &c.; and then the State steps in with its modicum of aid—the result of all, which is, that but a small amount of the contribution is levied directly from the student.

Every additional expense at these institutions, is an additional barrier to be surmounted by the indigent youth, and tends directly to his exclusion from the seminary. Every diminution of expense tends to equalise the advantages of all conditions—to level the inequalities of property and *cause them to be less felt*; if all expense was removed, the effect would be, that the property of the *rich* would educate the *poor*—increase the expense so as to place the institution beyond the means of the *poor*, and learning becomes the privilege of the wealthy—in other words, the rich are left to educate *only* the rich, and the *poor* educate themselves or are not educated.

As already remarked, past legislation appears to have steadily kept the end in view, of making not only the elementary schools, but the higher seminaries, as easily accessible as possible. Is it too Utopian a hope to be indulged, that even in our day, we shall be permitted to see education free—*free* in the district school—*free* in the academy, and *free* in the college—every advantage, every facility—*free* to all? Would not this be indeed *democratic*? Every diversion of the revenues of these institutions, by so much, increases the present tariff on education.

It may be urged that the more difficulties young men encounter in acquiring an education, the better—that obstacles winnow out the chaff; difficulties to a certain extent, are blessings to young men of talent and enterprise, but not when they become insuperable. If tuition was *free* to all who desired it, there would still be heavy expenses to be incurred for board, clothing, &c., sufficiently embarrassing to stimulate indigence to exertion—to form habits of industry and self-reliance—to cause the acquisition of an education to be prized?

In opposition to this view it may be said, that too many are now educated at our academies and colleges—that young men who have received the advantages of the latter class of seminaries are already too numerous—that the *professions* are crowded—and that graduates are willing to embark in no other pursuits. It can hardly be alleged that we have too much wisdom, or learning, or close and accurate thinking, and do not our seminaries of learning contribute their proportion to this class of men?

Doubtless to some extent, there has heretofore been in all college courses of study, a want of practical adaptation to the pursuits and business of after life. If this has been an evil, it is now greatly modified by making the *application of science to the useful arts*, exciting and directing attention to *industrial pursuits*—a part of the regular course of instruction. The consequence is, that many young men now resort to colleges, whose avowed object is, better to fit themselves for the business of farming, merchandise, the mechanic arts, &c.

By the fifth section of the act of April 13, 1814, it was enacted “That the sum of fifty thousand dollars be appropriated to augment the small charity fund heretofore granted by the Legislature of this State, the same to be invested by the trustees of *Union College*, and the avails thereof to remain forever sacred to the relief of indigent students, while prosecuting their studies in said institution.”

Who can tell the number of hearts that princely endowment has cheered and gladdened ?

Upon inquiry, the committee learn the revenue of that fund, within the last ten years, has paid much the larger part of the tuition and other fees of more than three hundred young men. During that period, out of an average of two hundred and eighty-five students, eighty-six have annually received aid from it. Although the number thus benefited does not constitute, on an average, quite one-third of each class, yet the maximum number who participate in that fund, sometimes amounts to full half of a class.

The annual *expenditure* of Union College, including interest on funds invested in buildings, apparatus, professorships, libraries, &c. is about \$25,000. The annual *receipts* from tuition, room rent, use of library is less than \$8,300. If this institution had not heretofore been liberally endowed by the State and the friends of learning, that annual deficiency of \$16,700 must necessarily be made up by students. The effect would be to increase their expenses for tuition, &c. *threefold*, where they now pay \$30, they would have to pay \$90. The bearing of this on the indigent youth is too apparent to need further argument ; yet the same reasons that would *now* justify the withdrawal of the bounty of the State from literary institutions, would, in 1814, have prevented its bestowment upon this college. And yet this charity of the State, and other endowments granted to that institution, have so *cheapened* education that the register of the college, as the result of a careful examination, reaching back over four or five years, comes to the conclusion, that *nearly two-thirds of all the students* educated there, belong to families in what may be considered as of *decidedly moderate circumstances*.

The committee refer to this college because it has been nearer of access than any other ; it is presumed an examination at other literary institutions, would furnish the same illustrations.

If the State is now to reverse its policy, to *enhance*, rather than *diminish*, the expenses of an education—from what sources are we to obtain our educated men ? Are our educated chancellors, our judges, our counsellors of law, our clergymen, our physicians, our engineers, our educated mechanics, &c. &c. henceforth to come *only* from the rich ? Is our common school-boy, of poor parentage, yet who feels, as he grows up, that he ought and could rank with the highest intellectual peerage in the land—

destined to see the doors of academies closed against him, because he happens not to be "the accident" of a rich man? is he to be condemned to behold afar-off the temples of science, and, an impassable gulf between? What will be his feelings as he enters the halls of justice, as he mingles among men whom *nature*, perchance, has less liberally endowed, than himself, and, who yet are taking their seats in the high places of the World of Intellect, while his acquirements fit him only for "the lower seat?" Will *he* commend that as wise foresight, which aided him on the threshold of existence, and then cast him forth hopelessly to struggle in the galling fetters of Want!

It may be said that success in life—that education in the full meaning of the word, is attainable, without ever entering an academy or a college? It may be: *it is*. Our own beloved country furnishes several bright examples of *self-education*, of men who have distinguished themselves and the land of their birth, yet who have never entered any other university or perchance academy than the common school! The shoemaker's apprentice, Roger Sherman, *made himself what he was*. It is said that Washington had only a common domestic education. But "Mary, the mother of Washington," was his teacher! Franklin, Rittenhouse, West, Fulton, Bowditch and other great Americans, might be named common school men. Yet they were *all educated men—educated*, in the highest sense of the word,—*by their own indomitable perseverance,—by the industry of self-application,—by the force of Genius itself!*

And who can say had these splendid exceptions early had access to the libraries, the lectures and all the helps of education found at well endowed institutions, they would not have made yet grander and more glorious discoveries in the realms of Thought, or in the mysteries of Nature!

It is related of the celebrated astronomer, Tycho Brahe, that on leaving his observatory one night, he found himself suddenly surrounded by a tumultuous throng which filled the public square. Upon inquiring into the cause of so great a concourse, they pointed out to him in the constellation of Cygnus, a brilliant star, which he who lived in telescopes had never discovered. Would any one hence believe that "the stars in their courses" might have been tracked; that "Arc-

thus with his sons" might have been numbered, or that Newton might have

"Pursued the comets where they farthest run,
And brought them back obsequious to the Sun."

without the aid of the world revealing telescope?

Let it here be born in mind that *these self-educated men never undervalued the higher institutions of learning.* Their experience taught them the value of systematic and thorough elementary instruction. For example, Washington was the most successful general of his age. To what conclusion was he brought by his experience in the War of the Revolution? In his message to Congress, (1796) speaking of the necessity of maintaining the country in an attitude of defence, he suggests as one very important means, that "opportunity be afforded for the study of those branches of the military art which are scarcely ever to be attained by practice alone." In a later message he insists that "whatever argument may be drawn from particular examples, superficially viewed, a thorough examination of the subject will evince that the art of war is at once comprehensive and complicated, that it demands much previous study, and that the possession of it in its improved state is always of great moment to the security of the nation." And yet without this "previous study," he achieved our independence!

His convictions of the necessity of a thorough education in seminaries, were not confined to the military art. He was in the practice of giving £50, annually towards the education of indigent youth in the Academy in Alexandria.* In his last will he left bequests to academies and a university. He had a favorite plan of rearing a *National University*, which should prevent parents from sending their sons abroad to imbibe "*principles unfriendly to republican governments and to the true and genuine liberty of mankind.*"

Franklin too, was the *founder of the University of Pennsylvania, of the American Philosophical Society.*"

It is believed if time would permit, it might be shown that there have been but very few, if any, of those so called *self-educated men*, who have not been liberal patrons of the higher institutions of learning; thus seeming to desire that all who come after them shall have access to

* Sparks.

those seats of science from which they by the force of circumstances were excluded.

There is yet another view to be taken. Franklin's character and style were moulded very early by reading *Cotton Mather's* "Essay to do good," the *Spectator* of Addison, the "Essay" of *John Locke*, and *Defoe* "on *Projects*." Of these four, the *first three* were graduates of colleges or universities. Locke was of Cambridge, Addison of Oxford, Mather of Cambridge, Massachusetts.

So again of *Watts*, his early school education was in authors prepared mostly by college-bred men; his later training and that which fitted him for his greatest service to mankind, was when he resided as mathematical instrument maker *within the walls of Glasgow University*, and was in habits of great intimacy with the eminent chemist Dr. Black,* and with a distinguished mechanical philosopher Dr. Robinson, both professors in the University.

If the biographies of all, who without the aid of an academic education, have distinguished themselves, could be examined, it is apprehended that with scarce an exception, it would appear that they were greatly indebted to *books*, and to those books that in nine cases out of ten, were written by graduates of the higher seminaries of learning.

In the early history of this country we should hardly expect to find many graduates among the leading minds, because there were then but here and there a college; but even at the era of the revolution they predominated: the Adams's, (John and Samuel,) Otis and Quincy, were of Cambridge College; Jefferson, Madison, of William and Mary's College; Jay, Hamilton, Robert R. Livingston, Gouverneur Morris, of Columbia College. Patrick Henry, though not a graduate, owed more to English translations of the *Bible* and of *Livy*, than to any other human source, for his eloquence and political wisdom; and it was the graduates of English colleges that produced those translations.

In looking at the literature of our country, we instinctively name Edwards, the metaphysician—Dennie, the American Addison—Dwight, Edwards the younger, Witherspoon, &c., theologians—Brown, the novelist—Bryant and Percival, &c., poets—Prescott and Bancroft, &c., the historians—Allston, the painter—Channing, Irving, &c. &c.—men

* The discoverer of the very principle in heat, on which *Watts'* greatest invention is founded.

that would do honor to any land. Have our common schools supplied many such names? But we cannot dwell longer on this point.

There remains yet one other view to be taken of this subject; the State has for nearly half a century made large annual distributions to common schools—the people of the different towns and wards have been required to raise equal sums, and, in addition, to purchase lots, build school houses, provide books, &c.; yet all this expenditure of money will not educate a child. They are means necessary indeed, but profiting little, however favorably combined, without the aid of competent teachers. Hitherto, to a very considerable extent, teachers have been obtained from academies. Those who teach are generally in very moderate circumstances—but who have been enabled to spend some time at one of the higher seminaries—who resort to the district school room temporarily, and then select some other occupation for life. If the price of tuition is to be raised from what it now is, in the same proportion that \$28,000 differs from \$40,000—then it places these “better advantages” beyond the reach of many of that class from which must, for some years, come our teachers. The effect would *inevitably* be, we should very soon have a class of teachers in our district schools whose qualifications would be inferior to those of the existing ones.

It can hardly be expected that at present our common schools, generally, can supply their own teachers; this will be assented to by every intelligent person practically acquainted with the school room, with the teachers and the taught. It may be said that the system should be so reconstructed as to be able to sustain itself, in this respect, within itself: if this were admitted—still the question recurs, from whence is to come the present and future supply of teachers, while the reconstruction is taking place and, under it, a suitable number of pupils are being prepared to teach? They must come from the academies, or come not at all.

If we had had the Massachusetts statute of 1647, making it an indictable offence not to maintain schools, and requiring every town “of the number of one hundred families or householders,” to “set up a *grammar school*” where “youth may be fitted for the university,” under a forfeit of “five pounds per annum, to the next such school,”* we might obtain teachers from them.

* In 1718, the penalty of the act was greatly raised.

By various subsequent enactments, towns containing 500 families, (equivalent to 3000 inhabitants,) are required to maintain a school at least *ten months*, exclusive of vacations, each year, "for the benefit of all the inhabitants of the towns;" where in addition to the branches taught in the district schools, instruction must be given in history, * book-keeping, surveying, geometry and algebra. Towns of 4000 inhabitants must employ a master in this school, competent to instruct in the *Latin and Greek languages, &c.* Exclusive of Boston, in 1840, 43 towns came within those provisions. Recently these statutes have been enforced, and the effect is palpable; there were, in 1840, 80 incorporated academies, attended by 3,825 students; the next year the number was reduced to 75, with 3805 scholars; the following year the academies were 71 in number, and the students attending, 3,379.

Since 1824, no appropriations have been made to academies, and it is said that the banks would now as soon expect a donation, as those institutions.

In this connexion it may be well to bear in mind, that heretofore Massachusetts has most munificently endowed her colleges and some of her academies; and that she *now* expends annually upon her common schools more than half a million of dollars; and this is voted and raised by *tax* in the several towns.* To that tax, interesting almost every citizen in watching that the moneys thus raised are wisely expended, is attributed much of the excellency of her system of public instruction.

If \$28,000 of the amount now distributed to the academies, were added to the Common School Fund, the sum would give each district less than \$2.67; an addition not sufficient to prolong *one week*, the duration of a district school. Academies would be more *sensibly* affected by its division,—crippling all, and ultimately closing several.

Would this be the *greatest good* to the greatest number? To effect anything, in all undertakings, must there not be some *concentration of effort*? Are there not limits beyond which distribution or division cannot be wisely made? Connecticut made a *per capita* distribution of her share of the United States surplus revenue, *each man, woman and child received between one and three cents*. Has the wisdom of that *diffusive example* ever been commended? If the funds which have erected

* The entire revenue of her School Fund is about \$6,625,

a magnificent Insane Asylum at Utica, had been expended in attempting to build for *each town* in the State, a *separate retreat*, would not such *diffusion* have been characterised as most stupendous folly?

Believing that academies have long had a recognized place in our education system; that the true interests of common schools would suffer if they were prostrated or their resources wantonly impaired; that however desirable it might be to increase the Common School Fund, the cause of popular education would ultimately be injured by attempting it at the expense of a class of institutions who subsist solely by the charity of the State and the voluntary contribution of individuals—the committee do not deem it expedient to recommend the withdrawal at present, of \$28,000 from the Literature Fund, for the purpose of adding the same to the Common School Fund.

The committee now propose to examine whether the academies have fulfilled the conditions impliedly annexed to the bestowment and acceptance of donations and appropriations, and especially the recently increased distributions from the Literature Fund.

THE EDUCATION OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS.

The necessity and the importance of having better educated and better qualified teachers, to ensure progressive improvement in our common schools, has been so generally felt and so publicly acknowledged, as to be noticed in several of the annual Executive messages to the Legislature. Governor De Witt Clinton in 1819, used these words, “the most durable impressions are derived from the first stages of education; *ignorant* and *vicious* preceptors and *injudicious* and *ill-arranged* systems of education must have a most pernicious influence upon the habits, manners, morals and minds of our youth, and vitiate their conduct through life.” In 1820, he used the following language, “the education of youth is an important trust, and an honorable vocation, but it is too often committed to *unskilful hands*. Liberal encouragement ought to be dispensed for increasing the number of competent teachers.” In 1825, after speaking of the cause of education generally, the Governor says: “in furtherance of this invaluable system, I recommend to your consideration the education of competent teachers,” &c.

In his message to the Legislature at the opening of the session of 1826, De Witt Clinton, thus adverts to the subject of the proper preparation of common school teachers :

“ Our system of instruction, with all its numerous benefits, is still however, susceptible of improvement. Ten years of the life of a child may now be spent in a common school. In two years the elements of instruction may be acquired, and the remaining eight years must either be spent in repetition or idleness, unless the teachers of common schools are competent to instruct in the higher branches of knowledge. The outlines of geography, algebra, mineralogy, agricultural chemistry, mechanical philosophy, surveying, geometry, astronomy, political economy and ethics, might be communicated in that period of time, by able preceptors without essential interference with the calls of domestic industry. The vocation of a teacher in its influence on the character and destiny of the rising and all future generations, has either not been fully understood or duly estimated. It is, or ought to be, ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructors of our common schools does not extend beyond rudimental education—that our expanding population requires constant accession to their numbers ; and that to realize these views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers in those useful branches of knowledge which are proper to engraft on elementary attainments. A compliance with this recommendation will have the most benign influence on individual happiness and social prosperity.”

On the 4th of February subsequently, Mr. J. C. SPENCER from the literature committee of the Senate, to which this portion of the message of the Governor had been referred, made an elaborate and able report, from which the following is an extract :

“ In the view which the committee have taken, our great reliance for nurseries of teachers must be placed on our colleges and academies. If they do not answer this purpose, they can be of very little use. That they have not hitherto been more extensively useful in that respect is owing to inherent defects in the system of studies pursued there. When the heads of our colleges are apprised of the great want of teachers which it is so completely in their power to relieve, if not supply, it is but reasonable to expect that they will adopt a system by

which young men whose pursuits do not require a knowledge of classics, may avail themselves of the talent and instruction in those institutions, suited to their wants, without being compelled also to receive that which they do not want, and for which they have neither time nor money.

“ Our academies also have failed to supply the want of teachers to the extent which was within their power ; although it is acknowledged that in this respect they have been eminently useful. But instead of being incited to such efforts they are rather restrained by the regulations adopted by the Regents of the University for the distribution of the literary fund placed at their disposal. The income of that fund is divided among the academies in proportion to the number of *classical students* in each, without reference to those who are pursuing the highest and most useful branches of an English course. With such encouragement how could it be expected of trustees of academies that they should prefer a pupil disposed to study the elements of Euclid, surveying or belles lettres, to a boy who would commit the Latin grammar, while the latter would entitle them to a bounty which was refused to the former ? The committee are not disposed to censure the Regents, they have merely followed the fashion of the times ; and it is believed that they are themselves alive to the importance of extending the usefulness of the institutions under their care by adapting them more to the wants of the county and the spirit of the age. But if they should not be willing to extend the benefit of the fund under their control beyond classical students, still it will be in the power of the Legislature and within the means of the State to appropriate a capital sum that will yield a sufficient income to compensate for this inequality, and to place the English student on the same footing with the others, and thus make it the interest of the academies to instruct them. And if this bounty be distributed in reference to the number of persons instructed at an academy who shall have been licensed as teachers of common schools, by the proper board, it is believed the object of obtaining able instructors will soon be accomplished.”

At the ensuing session of 1837, Mr. SPENCER, from the same committee, reported a bill entitled “ An act to provide permanent funds for the annual appropriation to common schools, to increase the Literature Fund, and to promote the education of teachers,” by which the sum of \$150,000 was added to the Literature Fund. And the Regents of the University were required annually to distribute the whole in-

come of this fund among the several incorporated academies and seminaries, which then were or might thereafter become subject to their visitation, "in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each academy or seminary for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies, or the higher branches of English education, or both." In the report accompanying this bill, which, on the 13th of April, became a law, the committee expressly observe, that their object in thus increasing this fund is "to promote the education of young men in those studies which will prepare them for the business of instruction, which it is hoped may be accomplished to some extent, by offering inducements to the trustees of academies to educate pupils of that description." "In vain will you have established a system of instruction; in vain will you appropriate money to educate the children of the poor, if you do not provide persons competent to execute your system, and to teach the pupils collected in the schools. And every citizen who has paid attention to it and become acquainted practically with the situation of our schools, knows that the incompetency of the great mass of teachers is a radical defect which impedes the whole system, frustrates the benevolent designs of the Legislature, and defeats the hopes and wishes of all who feel an interest in disseminating the blessings of education." "Having undertaken a system of public instruction, it is the solemn duty of the Legislature to make that system as perfect as possible. We have no right to trifle with the funds of our constituents, by applying them in a mode which fails to attain the intended object. *Competent teachers of common schools must be provided; the academies of the State furnish the means of making that provision.* There are funds which may be safely and properly applied to that object, and if there were none, a more just, patriotic, and, in its true sense, popular reason for taxation cannot be urged. Let us aid the efforts of meritorious citizens who have devoted large portions of their means to the rearing of academies; let us reward them by giving success to their efforts; let us sustain seminaries that are falling into decay; let us revive the drooping and animate the prosperous, by the cheering rays of public beneficence; and thus let us provide nurseries for the education of our children, and for the instruction of teachers who will expand and widen and deepen the great stream of education, until it shall reach our remotest borders, and prepare our posterity for the maintenance of the glory and prosperity of their country."

¶ The Superintendent of Common Schools, (Mr. FLAGG,) in his annual report for 1828, refers to the act of the 13th April 1827, in connection with the subject of training up competent teachers for the common schools, and observes " Heretofore the apportionment (to the several academies and seminaries,) has been confined to the number of students pursuing *classical studies*. The increase of the Literature Fund and the extension of its benefits to all such pupils as are pursuing the higher branches of an English education, *will tend to multiply the number of those who will be qualified to instruct in the common schools, and to encourage the academies in becoming nurseries of teachers.*"

In his message to the Legislature at the commencement of the session of this year, Gov. CLINTON alludes to the necessity of some competent provision for the suitable preparation of teachers, in the following terms :

" That part of the Revised Laws relative to Common Schools is operative on this day, and presents the system in an intelligible shape, but without those improvements which are requisite to raise the standard of instruction, to enlarge its objects, and to elevate the talents and qualifications of the teachers. It is understood that Massachusetts has provided for these important cases ; but whether the experiment has as yet been attended with promising results is not directly known. It may, however, be taken for granted, that the education of the body of the people can never attain the requisite perfection without competent instructors, well acquainted with the outlines of literature and the elements of science." He recommends, with this view, " a law authorizing the supervisors of each county to raise a sum not exceeding \$2000, provided that the same sum is subscribed by individuals for the erection of a suitable edifice for a Monitorial High School, in the county town." " I can conceive " he adds, " of no reasonable objection to the adoption of a measure so well calculated to raise the character of our school masters, and to double the powers of our artizans by giving them a scientific education."

The following extract from the annual report of the Regents of the University for this year, (1828) will show the views entertained by this Board relative to the duties incumbent on the several academies, under the act of 1827 :

“ The academies have become, in the opinion of the Regents, what it has been always desirable they should be, fit seminaries for imparting instruction in the higher branches of English education, *and especially for qualifying teachers of common schools*, as well as for preparing students in classical studies preliminary to a collegiate course. For this elevation and degree of usefulness to which our academies have thus happily attained, they are chiefly indebted to the munificence of the Legislature—first, in the original establishment of the Literature Fund, for the special encouragement of these institutions—and next in the gradual increase of that Fund from time to time, until by the extraordinary and most liberal endowment of \$150,000, made by the act of April last, the Fund has become of such magnitude as to enable the Regents to distribute to every academy entitled to participate in it, a dividend sufficient, with the aid of ordinary tuition money and other revenues, to secure the services of the most able teachers, and thereby to enable the several institutions to fulfil all the beneficial ends for which they were established. “ The Legislature having by the act before referred to, declared it to be one of their primary objects in the great increase made by them of the Literature Fund ‘ *to promote the education of teachers,*’ *the Regents, equally with the Legislature, being impreseed with a sense of the paramount importance of this great object, will always cheerfully co-operate in promoting its speedy accomplishment.*”

In 1830 the sum of \$10,000, arising from the Literature Fund was apportioned among the several academies, the number of students in which pursuing classical studies, or the higher branches of an English education or both, was upwards of two thousand. The whole number of these institutions was 55,—and so nearly equally distributed, were they among the several Senate districts, that they were assumed in the annual report of the Superintendent as “ a number equal to seven seminaries in each Senate district which are capable of fitting teachers for the common schools.” “ These seminaries,” continues the Superintendent, “ have already received from the funds of the State, in grants of money, of land, and in the revenue of the Literature Fund, the sum of \$169,716, and are now receiving annually the revenue (\$10,000) of a capital of \$256,000. What more ready or practicable plan can be offered, than to convert these numerous academies, equal in number to the counties of the State, into seminaries for training teachers? The State has done much for these schools, and something

in aid of the cause of the common schools may reasonably be expected from them. And if the required information to fit a person for teaching, can be obtained in the present institutions, sound policy and good economy are in favor of relying upon them for the training of teachers." "Is it not feasible, as well as desirable, to make these seminaries the nurseries for teachers? *The Regents are desirous that it should be so*; and the instructors of the academies are not only able but willing to discharge their duty in the premises."

In his annual report for the year 1833, the Superintendent renews the expression of his conviction that "the incorporated academies may be relied upon as seminaries for the education of teachers."

In his message at the commencement of the session of 1834, Gov. MARCY in reference to this subject observes :

"As affecting more extensively the general welfare, common schools are justly entitled to the first consideration, and the most liberal patronage; yet seminaries of a more elevated rank ought also to be sustained and cherished for many reasons, *and for this particularly, that upon them we must in a great measure depend for competent teachers of the common schools.*"

The Superintendent of Common Schools (Gen. DIX,) in his annual report for this year, after adverting to the conceded defects of the system of common schools, arising from the want of a sufficient number of well qualified teachers—the difficulties in the way of a removal of this evil—and the absence, under our free institutions, of those compulsory means which were at the disposal of the Prussian government, and which enabled the latter to give such efficiency to the system of popular instruction there adopted, observes, "It was probably in view of the difficulty of providing for the successful operation of such a system, that the plan of establishing seminaries for the education of teachers was abandoned by the Legislature, after full consideration; *and the encouragement of the incorporated academies, by pecuniary aid, as nurseries of teachers for the common schools, was deemed more practicable and promising in its results.* Accordingly the Legislature, by the act of April 13, 1827, added one hundred and fifty thousand dollars to the Literature Fund, the revenue of which, amounting to ten thousand dollars, is annually apportioned to the academies, *with a view, in the language of the act referred to, "to promote the*

education of teachers.” That the academies, now sixty-five in number, are fully adequate to the object contemplated by the Legislature, hardly admits of doubt.

“The Regents of the University, in their annual report to the Legislature for the year 1832, make the following observations: ‘There is no doubt that a thousand instructors might readily be prepared for the common schools—a number exceeding by nearly two hundred, the average number supplied by the seminaries of Prussia.’

“The Regents are decidedly of opinion that the academies are the proper instruments for accomplishing the great object of supplying the common schools with teachers. These institutions have already the advantage of convenient edifices, in some cases of large permanent funds, valuable libraries and philosophical apparatus, amounting in all to an investment of about half a million of dollars. By engrafting upon the course of studies, a department of instruction in the principles of teaching, the respectability and capacity of the institutions will be increased, and those who are qualifying themselves for the business of instruction, may enjoy the benefit of all the other branches which enter into the ordinary academic course. In every point of view, it is conceded that this is the most advisable method of preparing instructors.”

In his message at the opening of the session of 1835, Gov. MARCY calls the attention of the Legislature to the fact, that “since 1827, the number of academies has doubled; the number of students much more than doubled; and the number of those who have pursued the classics and the higher branches of English studies, has increased more than fourfold.” And he attributes this gratifying result, “in no inconsiderable degree to the enlarged and liberal patronage extended to them by the government,” in the increase of the Literature Fund, by the act of 1827.

By an act passed May 2, 1834, the surplus income of the Literature Fund over twelve thousand dollars was placed at the disposal of the Regents of the University, to be by them distributed to such academies, subject to their visitation as they might select, and to be *exclusively devoted to the education of teachers for the common schools*, in such manner and under such regulations as they might prescribe. “The execution of such a plan,” observes the Superintendent (Gen. Dix) in his annual report for 1835, “will but carry out a policy which

was distinctly recognized by the Legislature in 1827, when the capital of the Literature Fund was augmented, to use the language of the law, in order, 'to promote the education of teachers,' although *the design of the law was not sustained by the measures necessary to give it the form and effect of a system.*"

"If the foundations of the whole system of public instruction were to be laid anew," continues the Superintendent, "it would perhaps be advisable *to create separate seminaries for the preparation of teachers;* although from the nature of our institutions it might be deemed arbitrary, if indeed it were practicable, to compel the school districts to employ them. It would be equally difficult, without a great augmentation of the School Fund, to present to the districts a sufficient pecuniary inducement to engage the individuals thus prepared; and it may be safely assumed that nothing short of a thorough conviction in the public mind, that common school teachers are in general incompetent to the proper fulfilment of their trusts, and that the standard of education is extremely imperfect, would accomplish the object. If that conviction can now be created, the existing evils may readily be redressed. Our common school system is so perfectly organized, and administered throughout with so much order and regularity, and so many academies under able management, are already established, that it would seem the part of wisdom to avail ourselves of these institutions to the extent of their capacity, for the purpose of training teachers for the common schools. Their endowments, their organization, the experience and skill of their instructors, and their whole intellectual power may be made subservient to the public purpose in view, and with the aid which the State can lend, much may be effected. But whatever differences of opinion may prevail with regard to the foundation of this plan in sound policy, the question has been settled by the Legislature, and it remains only to carry it into execution with proper energy. *Should it prove inadequate to the ends proposed, a change of plan may then be insisted on, without being open to the objection of abandoning a system which has not been fairly tested.*" After some remarks on the necessary connection existing between the common schools and the higher institutions of learning, he continues: "but it is principally as accessory to the great objects of common school instruction that our colleges and academies deserve to be cherished, as nurseries for those through whose instrumentality the standard of popular education must be raised to its proper elevation."

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of 2d May, 1834, authorising the Regents of the University to apply a part of the income to the Literature Fund to the education of common school teachers, a plan was reported on the 8th of Jan. 1835, by Gen. Dix, from the committee appointed for that purpose, to the Regents with the view of carrying into effect the intention of the act. This plan was approved and adopted by the Regents; and one academy was selected in each of the eight Senate districts, charged with the establishment of a Department specially adapted to the instruction of teachers of common schools. To support these departments, each academy received from the Literature Fund, a sufficient sum to procure the necessary apparatus for the illustration of the various branches required to be taught; the sum of \$191 to be appropriated to the enlargement of the academical library; and an annual appropriation of \$400 to meet the increased expense which might devolve upon the institution in consequence of the establishment of the teacher's department.

In his annual report for 1836, the Superintendent (Gen. Dix,) again adverts to the fact, that in the adoption of this system "the Legislature has merely provided for the more *complete execution of a design long entertained, so far as respects the employment of the academies for this purpose.* The propriety of founding separate institutions," he continues, "upon the model of the seminaries for teachers in Prussia, was for several years a subject of public discussion in this State. It was contended, on the one hand, that such institutions would be more likely to secure the object in view; and on the other, that it might be as effectually and more readily accomplished through the organized academies." After again referring to the act of April 13, 1827, he concludes:

"Thus, although the plan of engrafting upon the academies, *departments* for the preparation of teachers, may not have been contemplated at the time, *yet this measure is to be regarded only as a more complete development of the design of the Legislature in passing the act referred to.*"

"Our academies and seminaries of learning," observes Gov. MARCY, in his message at the commencement of the session of this year, "are objects of great public interest, and worthy of the fostering care of government; *particularly so in regard to their agency, in supplying to some extent, the demand for common school teachers.*"

In his message at the ensuing session, after adverting to the act of Congress directing the deposit of upwards of five millions of the surplus revenue of the United States with this State, and recommending the application of an amount equal to the annual appropriation from the State Treasury, to the benefit of the common schools, he adds "I also recommend that a liberal portion of the income should be appropriated to the academies, in such a manner, as will not only increase the amount annually distributed to them, but also improve the Literature Fund; *having in view principally the design of rendering them more efficient as seminaries for educating common school teachers.*"

The Superintendent, (Gen. Dix,) in his annual report for this year, (1837) suggests the selection of eight additional academies, in which departments for the education of teachers of common schools should be established, with an annual allowance from the income of the moneys to be received from the General Government of \$1000 to each department, including those already established; and that inasmuch as there would still remain \$24,000 to be appropriated to all the academies, including those having the teachers' department, the sum of \$15,000 should be annually added to the capital of the Literature Fund, and the balance, \$9000, together with the whole of the present income of that Fund \$16,000, be annually distributed to the academies.

"An appropriation of money" he observes, "to the support of other academies than those in which teachers' departments shall be established, may not appear to promote the object of providing for the education of common school teachers. It should, however, be remembered, that the first measure adopted by the Legislature, was a simple distribution of moneys to the academies, with the avowed purpose of promoting the education of teachers, and without any special provisions as to its application. The organization of departments for the purpose, by the Regents of the University, was made under the authority of an act passed at a subsequent time, with a view to the establishment of a regular and efficient system of training. *Still, as the other academies have furnished, and will continue to furnish, a number of teachers, and will probably adopt substantially the plan of instruction prescribed by the Regents for the teachers' departments, it is not, perhaps, desirable to appropriate specially to the support of those departments, a larger amount than the sum above named.*"

In his message at the commencement of the session of 1838, Gov. MARCY again adverts to this subject in the following terms :

“Our common school system still labors under embarrassments arising from an inadequate supply of well qualified teachers. Our colleges and academies have heretofore been relied on to supply, to a considerable extent, this deficiency; *but it has been quite evident from some time, that further provision ought to be made by legislative authority, to satisfy the public wants in this respect.*” After referring to the condition of the departments for the education of teachers established in the eight academics selected by the Regents, he adds :

“But *no success that can attend those already established, will make them competent to supply in any considerable degree, the demand for teachers.* It has, therefore, been proposed to increase the number of such departments in each Senate district of the State, by devoting to that purpose a portion of the income to be derived from the deposit of the public moneys. It is well worthy of your consideration whether still better results might not be obtained *by county normal schools*, established and maintained on principles analogous to those on which our system of common schools is founded.”

By the 8th section of the act of April 17, 1838, appropriating the income of the United States Deposit Fund to the purposes of education, &c., the sum of \$28,000 was directed to be annually paid over to the Literature Fund, and apportioned among the several academies of the State; and by the 9th section, it was made the duty of the Regents of the University “to require of every academy receiving a distributive share of public money, under the preceding section equal to seven hundred dollars per annum, to establish and maintain in such academy, a department for the instruction of common school teachers, under the direction of the said Regents, as a condition of receiving the distributive share of every such academy.” Under this provision eight academies, in addition to those designated specially for this purpose by the Regents, established departments for the education of teachers.

Desirous of knowing the practical operation of the departments thus organized, the Superintendent (Mr. SPENCER) during the summer of 1840, commissioned the Rev. Dr. Potter of Union College, and D. H. Little, Esq. of Cherry-Valley to visit these institutions, and report the result of their examinations to the department, accompanied by such suggestions as they might deem expedient. Prof. Potter in his report,

after enumerating the various advantages and defects which had presented themselves to his observation in the course of his examination, observes in conclusion :

“The principal evil connected with our present means of training teachers, is, that they contribute to supply instructors for *select* rather than for common schools ; and that for want of special exercises, they perform even that work imperfectly. I would suggest whether some means might not be adopted for training a class of teachers, with more especial reference to country common schools, and to primary schools in villages and cities—teachers whose attainments should not extend much beyond the common English branches, but whose minds should be awakened by proper influence—who should be made familiar by practice with the best modes of teaching—and who should come under strong obligations to teach for at least two or three years. In Prussia and France, normal schools are supported at the public expense ; most of the pupils receive both board and tuition gratuitously ; but at the close of the course they give bonds to refund the whole amount received, unless they teach under the direction of the government for a certain number of years. That such schools, devoted exclusively to the preparation of teaching have some advantages over any other method, is sufficiently apparent from the experience of other nations : and it has occurred to me that, as supplementary to our present system, the establishment of one in this State might be eminently useful. *If placed under proper auspices and located near the Capitol, where it could enjoy the supervision of the Superintendent of Common Schools, and be visited by the members of the Legislature, it might contribute in many ways to raise the tone of instruction throughout the State.*”

From an examination of these reports, the Superintendent comes to the conclusion that “these departments ought not to be abandoned, but sustained and encouraged, *and the means of establishing a large number in oher academies provided.* They, *with the other academies and colleges of the State, furnish the supply of teachers indispensable to the maintenance of our schools.*” He recommends “the extension of the public patronage to all the academies in the State, to enable them to establish teachers’ departments ; and in those counties where there are no academies, the establishment of *normal schools.*” “*One model school or more,*” he thinks, “might be advantageously established in some central parts of the State, to which teachers, and those

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ntending to be such, might repair to acquire the best methods of conducting our common schools."

By a resolution adopted by the Regents of the University, on the 4th of May of the same year, eight additional academies were designated for the establishment and maintenance of teachers' departments; and the appropriation to each of the institutions in which such departments had been organized by the Regents, reduced to \$300 per annum. At this period, including the academies which were required, under the act of 1838, to maintain such departments in consequence of the receipt of a specified portion of the Literature Fund, the number of academies in which departments for the education of teachers were organized, was twenty-three, and the number of students taught in them about six hundred.

In the spring of 1843 these departments were discontinued by the Regents, with the view of maturing a more efficient system, by the reduction of the number to four, and a proportional increase of the funds appropriated to each: but for reasons which have been referred to in the annual report of the Superintendent of Common Schools for the present year, no designation of academies has yet been made for this purpose.

From this recapitulation, it will appear that the principal reliance of the friends and supporters of the common schools, for an adequate supply of teachers, has, from a very early period, been upon the academies—that the inability of the latter to supply this demand, induced, in 1827, an increase of \$150,000 of the fund, applicable to their support; and this for the express purpose of enabling them to accomplish this object; that the Regents of the University, the guardians of these institutions, characterized this increase of the fund as an unwonted and "extraordinary" act of liberality on the part of the State towards them—explicitly recognized the condition, or rather the avowed *expectations* on which it was granted—accepted the trust, and undertook to perform those conditions, and to fulfil those expectations; that, to use the language of one of the superintendents, "the design of the law was not sustained by the measures necessary to give it the form and effect of a system;" that to remedy this evil, one academy was specially designated in each Senate district, with an endowment of \$500 to provide the necessary means and facilities of instruction, and an annual appropriation of \$400, for the maintenance of a depart-

ment for the education of teachers; and soon afterwards the sum of \$28,000 added to the Literature Fund from the avails of the U. S. Deposit Fund, while eight additional academies were required to organize and maintain similar departments; that, finally, the number of these departments was augmented to twenty-three, and every exertion put forth to secure the great results originally contemplated in their establishment—and that in the judgment of successive superintendents of common schools, the Regents of the University and the most eminent and practical friends of education throughout the State, these institutions whether considered in the aggregate or with reference to those specially designated, from time to time, for the performance of this important duty, of supplying the common schools with competent teachers, have not succeeded in the accomplishment of that object. Having, therefore, to revert again to the language of the superintendent before referred to, “proved inadequate to the ends proposed,” may not now “a change of plan be insisted on without being open to the objection of abandoning a system which [has not been fairly tested?” And have the academies any just reason to complain, if they are not longer permitted to enjoy undiminished the liberal appropriations conferred upon them by the State *for a specific object*—an object which they have not been able satisfactorily to accomplish?

It will not have escaped observation that for a series of years the necessity of having better qualified teachers has been freely expressed, and the legislative obligation to make adequate provision to obtain them, has been frequently recognized; and while it has been hoped that the academies would be made to meet this general call, it has been admitted by all whose attention has been directed to the subject, that there was a class of foreign institutions which, if they could be modified and adopted to our republican principles, would do something towards supplying this demand.

When in 1835 the Regents came to the conclusion that a sufficient number of well qualified teachers could be obtained by engrafting a department for their education upon the academies, and that this course was “more advantageous” than to create separate seminaries—it was predicted by several eminent educationists of Ohio, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, that the plan would fail of realizing the expectations of its advocates.

The Honorable Mr. Mann of Massachusetts, in giving his views on

the subject in 1839, concluded with this remark: "On the whole, the pursuits and the objects of a common academical class are so different from those of a normal one, that it would seem to us that the two can be far more successfully prosecuted separately than together."* A distinguished citizen of Pennsylvania thus expressed himself more recently: "False economy has often attempted to provide for the education of primary teachers, by making the teachers' seminary an appendage to a high school or an academy. Thirty years ago this arrangement was not uncommon in Germany, and later the experiment has been tried in the State of New-York; but, as might be seen, by this system the end desired is not attained. Supposing the teachers of such academies qualified to discharge the double duties of their station, they lack both the time and the strength. There is a constant tendency to melt both departments into one, whereby either the seminary or the academy is extinguished. The elements of the two institutions are of too different a nature to admit of a union. A common discipline for both is seldom suitable—a common instruction, never. In those branches of instruction suitable to both, the teacher will find a thousand occasions to illustrate and explain the principles of method, and for remarks valuable to the pupils of the seminary, but which are entirely out of place to the pupils of the academy. * * * Every thing depends on making the seminaries for teachers separate and independent establishments, with a careful provision for a thorough, theoretical and practical preparation for all the duties of the common school."

The committee now propose somewhat minutely to trace the origin, the progress, and practical operation of

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The term "*Normal school*," though now commonly used to denote a *training place* for teachers, primarily signifies, a "*model school*," that is, a school conducted on a plan deserving imitation by other schools.† A *model school*, in this sense, is an essential part of any well arranged institution for educating teachers. It is the *experimental* room where the future teacher learns by observation, the best methods of conducting an elementary school, and under the eye of *his* teacher, is taught to practise and perfect himself in those best me-

*Vol. 1, Mass. Com. School Journal, p. 84.

† The French adjective *normal*, is derived from the Latin noun *norma*, which signifies a rule, a pattern, a model.

thods.* Although the model school is, by some, regarded merely as an incidental appendage to the principal school; yet in Prussia, where seminaries to qualify teachers have been longest and most successfully in operation, the *model* or *normal* school is so important and so prominent a feature of the system, that it has given its name to all this class of institutions. The term *normal school*, as now used, comprehends indeed, this "model appendage," but more especially, it indicates a seminary where pupils are taught, theoretically and practically, the *art* of communicating knowledge, and of governing a school; where, in short, are acquired the rules of practice and the principles of guidance and direction in the various departments of common school education.

One writer has assigned to the reign of Maria Theresa, of Austria, the honor of having founded the first normal school in the the province of Bohemia.† President Bache, in his Report on Education in Europe, says (page 222,) "in 1735, the first regular seminary for teachers in Prussia, was established at Stettin, in Pomerania.‡ The better opinion seems to be, that Franke, the celebrated founder of the Orphan House of Halle, in Prussia, established at the same place, about the year 1704, the first seminary for the exclusive education of "the schoolmaster in the principles and application of his profession."§ From that seminary went forth teachers, who, spreading over the whole north of Germany, rendered education and the educator, objects of general interest, and thus prepared the way for the early establishment of similar institutions in that region. In 1748, government founded one at Berlin. Hanover now has a seminary which dates from 1750; in 1765-7, two were established at Breslau. So generally have they been introduced, and such has been the effect of their presence or absence, that a writer remarks, that for the last half century, the *progress of primary instruction in Europe, may be measured by the provision made for the education of teachers.*||

An American gentleman,¶ whose "primary object" in visiting Ger-

* Essays on Education, vol. 2, p. 302.

† Essays on Education, vol. 2, p. 149.

‡ In a note on the same page, he adds that he was informed "that imperfect establishments existed as early as 1680," in some parts of Germany.

§ Preface of Mrs. Austin's translation of Cousin's Report on Public Instruction in Prussia. Prof. Stowe on Normal Schools, &c.

¶ Mrs. Austin's Preface to Cousin on Public Instruction in Prussia.

¶ Lemuel Stephens, Esq.

many, was "to arrive at a just appreciation of the degree of advancement to which the Germans have brought the science of education," and to learn what have been the steps of the progress," in communicating the results of his observations and inquiries to the Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of Pennsylvania, under date of "Berlin, April 10, 1843," says—"one thing is certain, that the improvement of the schools has followed hand in hand the multiplication and improvement of teachers' seminaries."

Perhaps Prussia affords the most striking example of the truth of this remark. Normal schools have been more extensively founded and better perfected in that kingdom than in any other country of which we have any knowledge. Yet even Prussia was slow to appreciate the full benefit and capacity of a system so comprehensive in its reach, and so complete in its details. Although more than a century ago the germs of it existed in some of the provinces of the kingdom, yet only within the last sixty years has the attention and the patronage of the government been directed to the development of any very considerable fruit. Antecedent to this period, the common school system of Prussia did not materially differ from that of many other kingdoms of Europe. The improvement of the schools commenced with the general employment of teachers educated at the normal seminaries.

The Prussian system of school education consists of three degrees : 1. The primary school for the education of the common people. 2. The middle or burgher schools for the education of the children of a higher rank ; the pupils that attend these schools, generally become artizans or shop-keepers. 3. The gymnasium or grammar school, sometimes called "classical" or "learned school;" in this school professional men, the future clergymen, the judge, the lawyer, the magistrate, the physician, the state or army officer, &c., are educated and fitted for entrance to the universities. To prepare teachers for this third class, several normal schools called *pædagogical and philological seminaries* were early established.

Although the benevolent Franke designed his seminary "for the instruction of teachers whether of learned or popular schools," yet nearly sixty years elapsed before the teachers of the latter schools had the benefit of an education at such an institution. Up to about the year 1770, public instruction in the primary schools, continued generally to

be regarded and practised as a mechanic art, not unlike that of a cobbler; *teaching* was synonymous with *filling* the memory of a child.*

After the close of his long wars, Frederick the Second, directed his attention to the condition of the elementary schools in his territories, suggesting radical changes in the modes and principles of teaching. The most serious obstacle to carrying out the views of that enlightened monarch was found to be unqualified teachers; yet his efforts were not without great influence upon the progress of instruction. In his reign it came to be understood, says a writer, "for the first time that teaching is an art of great difficulty, which can only be acquired by long practice; this discovery advanced the cause a step further."

In the beginning of the present century, Pestalozzi began his career in Switzerland as the founder of a new system of education; a system in its origin designed and peculiarly adapted for the instruction of the lower classes. His system was based on a knowledge of human nature, derived from investigating the mental powers, carefully observing the manner in which they are gradually developed in children: to this development he adapted both the subjects to be taught, and the mode of teaching them.† He did not regard any number of facts and notions stored away in the memory, as education; he taught the *end* of a good education to be, to arouse, to develop, to exercise the intellectual powers—to refine, to moderate, to control the passions—to cultivate the moral and religious feelings—and to direct the mental activity to good purposes.

Under such a system, properly understood, teaching at once ceased to be a handicraft, to be exercised according to a few, simple rules in an uniform manner—it rose to the dignity of an *Art*—an *art*, to practise which, with success, required a combination of extensive knowledge, good sense, profound acquaintance with human nature in all its different phases from early childhood to the oldest parent of a pupil.

Prussia owes much of her high educational position, to the pains she has taken to examine the school systems of other nations, and her readiness to incorporate in her own, whatever was better in theirs. As soon as the fame of Pestalozzi reached that kingdom, several young men were sent to his school to acquire his method. It then remained

* Essays on Education, Vol. 1, p. 146.

† *Ib.* p. 149.

to devise the best mode of transplanting the excellencies of his method into the primary schools. The erection of seminaries for teachers was as it were, suggested by the great success with which pædagogical and philological seminaries had been crowned. All the grammar or classical schools taught by teachers from these seminaries, it was found had been greatly improved. On the return of the young men to Prussia, they were ordered to establish and arrange seminaries for the instruction of teachers for the lower classes.* Government commenced the experiment by placing one of these seminaries in each of the ten provinces into which the kingdom is divided.† Previous to the year 1800, there were throughout the kingdom, but six of these seminaries for the education of teachers for the primary schools; as their utility was tested, they were multiplied until, in 1840, they numbered forty-six.‡ The population of the kingdom that year was estimated at 14,000,000; the forty-six seminaries contained 2,721 pupils, or one to 5,000 inhabitants. At the close of the same year there were 24,328 situations for common school teachers. Of this number, reckoning thirty years as the average period of the service of a teacher, 811 situations become annually vacant. As the stated term of residence of these seminaries is three years, the forty-six seminaries furnish each year a supply of 907 teachers. A surplus of about 96 teachers is thus yearly left to engage as assistants, or to take the place of those who, from unfitness, or other cause, are prevented from continuing in the profession of teaching. The number of assistant teachers in the primary schools in 1840 was 2,620.§ The latest official report the committee have seen, that of 1838, gave the number of children *due to the school*,¶ and in attendance upon the public elementary schools, as 2,171,745. The number of children who may attend under one school teacher, is not limited; it varies from 25 to 200; Dr. Harnisch, one of the most distinguished of the Prussian teachers, thinks the number should never exceed fifty or sixty. If one-sixth of the population, the estimated number between the ages—six and fourteen—fixed by law for attending school, shall be divided up

* Connecticut Common School Journal, Vol. 1, p. 125.

† Prof. Stowe on, &c.

‡ Dr. Julius on teachers' seminaries in Prussia. Essay on Education, Vol. 1, p. 141.

§ L. Stephens's letter before cited.

|| The Hon. Horace Mann, in his last, most able and interesting report to the Board of Education of Massachusetts, says, "The German language has a word for which we have no equivalent; either in language or in idea. The word is used in reference to children, and signifies *due to the school*;—that is, when the legal age for going to school arrives, the right of the school to the child's attendance attaches, just as with us, the right of a creditor to the payment of a note or bond attaches on the day of its maturity."

into classes of fifty and sixty, then the normal schools for training teachers for the primary schools, must be increased to the number of *one hundred and fifty*, or about *one for every eighty thousand population*, to supply the requisite teachers.* Of this circumstance the Prussian government is well aware, yet is not deterred by the difficulties to be overcome in the execution of its extensive and praiseworthy plan to provide not only *adequate* but the *best* means of instruction.†

The number of students in each of these normal seminaries is from thirty to one hundred; the law intimates the medium number at sixty or seventy; the number of teachers in each seminary is from three to six. The Fletcher seminary at Dresden, with twenty-one students, has three principal teachers and one assistant teacher. The Friederickstadt seminary at the same place, with seventy pupils, has four principal and three assistant teachers; the seminary at Magdeburgh, with sixty-two pupils, has four principal teachers and one assistant; the seminary at Feiburgh, with sixty-nine pupils, has four principal and four assistant teachers.‡ The government bears the whole, or nearly so, of the expense of these seminaries; the students resorting to them "receive instruction without payment; with regard to board and lodgings, some are maintained gratuitously, while others pay a small fixed sum." Preparatory to admission, the candidate is examined as to knowledge, talent, moral character, &c.; no boy is admitted before the completion of his sixteenth year; those who receive their education and support wholly from the State, sign an obligation to the purport that they will teach school three years after leaving the seminary; and should they not choose to teach, that they will refund all the expenses the institution has been put to on their account, and for each year of instruction pay fourteen dollars. The usual length of the full course at these institutions is three years; some teachers designed for "the poorest and most thinly inhabited parishes," attend small normal schools where the course is fixed at two years.§ The first year the student is employed in perfecting the knowledge he brings with him, and giving it a better foundation; receiving some instruction in general and special pædagogic, or the *science of teaching*; being first made acquainted by conversation, not by formal lectures, with the general principles and principal objects of education; afterwards the duties of a teacher, as a person who not only must *teach* but *educate* the young—must attend

* Essays on Education, Vol. 1, p. 170-1. † Ibid. Vol. 1, p. 171. Prof. Stowe on, &c.

‡ L. Stephens letter to, etc. § Cousin on Public Instruction, in Prussia.

to the development of their moral qualities not less than to the enlargement of their mental faculties. The second year he is instructed in all the branches of knowledge which are taught in the primary schools; the general principles of instruction are explained, and then the manner in which they can be applied with the best effect to each of these branches of knowledge. The third year is principally occupied in learning to teach, or in practising the art of teaching, in the model school connected with each seminary.*

The course of instruction pursued in these institutions is,

1. Religion, biblical history, systematical instruction on the religious and moral duties of man.
2. Native language, its careful study, frequent exercises in speaking and writing it.
3. Mathematics, arithmetic and algebra taught in the abstract, illustrated and exemplified by application to practical cases.
4. History, natural and civil, especially of their own country; geography proper, and physical geography, natural philosophy, &c.
5. Musical instruction, the theory and practice of singing and music. This branch is carried to such an extent "that the students are able to sing easy compositions at sight."
6. Penmanship and linear drawing. The latter is not carried to a great extent.
7. Physiology, the structure of the human body, what is hurtful and what is conducive to health, psychology or the chief phenomena of the human mind indicated and explained.
8. Gymnastic exercises of all kinds.
9. Where it is practicable, theoretical and practical instruction in horticulture, in the cultivation of fruit trees and in husbandry.

On leaving the seminary at the expiration of the third year, every student passes an examination, not only to ascertain his stock of knowledge, but his *skill in communicating it to others*; the latter part of the examination is in the model school. The result of this examination determines which of the *three* classes of testimonials he will receive; the first or best students receive the testimonials numbered 1,

the second best receive testimonials numbered 2; the third class receive number 3, and are to be employed in the "less numerous and poorer schools."*

At the end of three years after leaving the seminary, the young teachers are required to return and pass a second examination.†

Such is a brief outline of that system of Normal Schools which, in less than half a century, raised Prussia from the Dead Sea level of ages, and placed her at the head of the educated nations of Europe.

It was after a critical examination of this system and its results, that Gen. Dix officially said, "The Prussian system is generally acknowledged to be unrivalled in the extent of the provision which it makes for the education of the people; the efficiency with which it is administered, and the perfection which it has carried into the various departments of instruction. The Prussian system is said to have been extremely defective down to the commencement of the present century, though it had been long in existence. No material advances were attained until *teachers' seminaries* had been established, a new class of instructors had been trained up." Prof. Stowe, who several years ago, commissioned by the State of Ohio, to examine the Prussian Schools, expresses some of his conclusions in the following propositions :

"1. The interest of popular education in each State demands the establishment of a *Normal School*, that is, a *Teachers' Seminary and Model School*, for the instruction and practice of teachers, in the science of education and the art of teaching.

"2. Pupils should not be received into the teacher's seminary, under sixteen years of age, nor until they are well versed in all the branches usually taught in common schools.

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

"4. The course of instruction in the teacher's seminary should include three years, and the pupils should be divided into three classes, accordingly.

"5. The senior classes in the teacher's seminary should be employ-

† Essays on Education, vol. 2, pages 108-121. Dr. Julius on Teachers' Seminaries in Prussia.

‡ L. Stephens' letters to, &c.

ed, under the immediate instruction of their professors, as instructors in the model school.

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

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

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

To the friends of education it is a deeply interesting inquiry, whether the principles of that system are so indigenous to Prussia, as not to admit transplantation and growth, with equal success, in any land desirous of having an educated people?

A glance at some of those countries where the experiment has been tried, will, perhaps, furnish the most satisfactory answer to this inquiry.

The primary Normal School of Haarlem, in the centre of Holland, was founded by government, as early as 1816. It was in reference to this school, and one other established the same year, at Lierre, near Antwerp, that the celebrated M. Cousin, in his work on the state of education in Holland, in 1836, said: “I attach the greatest importance to normal primary schools, and consider that all future success in the education of the people depends upon them. In perfecting her system of primary instruction, normal schools were introduced for the better training of masters.” In travelling through Holland, he was informed by all the school officers he met with, that these schools “had brought about an entire change in the condition of the school master, and that they had given young teachers a feeling of dignity in their profession.” The universal effect of the primary schools of Holland upon her population, may be read in an extract from the Third Report of George Nicholls, esq., on the condition of the laboring classes, &c., in Holland and Belgium—“In Haarlem, with a population of 21,000, we were informed there was not a child of ten years of age, and of sound intellect, who could not both read and write, and throughout Holland it is the same.”

The first normal school of France owes its origin to a decree of Napoleon, issued on the 17th of March, 1808, directing the organization of the university and the establishment of a central normal school at Paris. In 1829 there were but *thirteen* of these schools throughout the empire; in 1832 there were *forty-seven*; in July 1833, a law passed requiring the establishment of one of those teachers' seminaries, in each of the eighty-six departments. In 1837 there were *eighty-three* of these seminaries in full operation, "forming," as M. Guizot the Minister of Public Instruction said, "in each department a grand focus of light, scattering its rays in all directions among the people." In concluding an able speech in the Chamber of Deputies, he used these decided words: "All of you are aware that *primary instruction depends altogether on the corresponding normal schools. The prosperity of these establishments is the measure of its progress.*"

The estimation in which the French nation hold these seminaries, may be learned from a provision contained in one of their recent laws, "that no school master shall be appointed who has not himself been a pupil of the school which instructs in the art of teaching."*

It only remains to be added here, that the French system is confessedly modelled after that of the Prussian; that those who resort to them are not only *educated* but *maintained gratuitously*.†

England, with all her wealth and literature; her munificent endowments of universities; her numerous and costly charitable institutions, as a government, has done very little for the education of her common people. She has never established any general system of education; whatever has been done has been effected solely by individual enterprise. Whenever in Parliament or elsewhere, a government plan has been proposed, to diffuse the blessings of a common school education among the masses, normal schools have of late, almost invariably, formed a constituent part of all such plans.

In 1835, Lord Brougham said in the British House of Lords, "the seminaries for training masters are an invaluable gift to mankind, and lead to the indefinite improvement of education. It is this which above every thing we ought to labor to introduce into our system." "These training seminaries would not only teach the master the branch of learn-

* Connecticut Common School Journal. Vol. 1, p. 84, 87.

† Hon. H. Mann's 7th Annual Report, p. 142.

ing and science they are now deficient in, but would teach them what they know far less—the didactic art—the mode of imparting knowledge which they have or may acquire—the best method of training and dealing with children, in all that regards both temper, capacity, and habits, and the means of stirring them to exertion and controlling their aberrations.”

In 1839, the Queen directed Lord John Russell, to form a Board of Education. His Lordship's circular on the subject says : “ that among the chief defects yet subsisting, may be reckoned the insufficient number of qualified teachers, the imperfect mode of teaching, which prevails in, perhaps, the greater number of the schools. * * * * Among the first objects to which any grant (of money) may be applied, will be the establishment of a Normal School. I beg leave, at the outset, to state my opinion, that the establishment of a *normal school for training masters* in the most perfect methods of communicating literary and industrial, as well as moral and religious instruction, is the most pressing and important of these objects,” &c.

Parliament refused to vote any grant of money to carry out the views of the Board of Education,* and England was left with *two* seminaries for the education of teachers ; for these, she was indebted to the exertion of individual benevolence.

When we read such views and such recommendations, and read the result of them, we are prepared further to read such items as the following, in English papers : “ In three years, in England, there have been 361,894 marriages ; of these, 723,788 married persons, 304,836 *could not sign their names.*”

The parochial schools of Scotland, long the admiration of enlightened educationists in all countries, have not disdained to borrow the aid of normal schools. They have been established at Glasgow and at Edinburgh. The one at the former place is the establishment of an Educational Society, whose objects are twofold : first, to provide a particular system ; second, to extend it. In furtherance of the latter object, in 1839, 505 teachers had been trained and left the institution ; 17 had been sent to Australia ; 21 to the West-Indies ; several to British

* It ought, perhaps, to be stated, that the government bill for the normal and common school, unconditionally required that all the pupils should be educated in the tenets of the Church of England. Against a bill containing such a sectarian provision, the entire body of dissenters so strongly protested, that ministers abandoned the whole plan.

America, &c. Such is the reputation of the seminary, that "several missionary societies have sent there their foreign missionaries to acquire the system of Bible training."*

Under the auspices of the National Board of Education for Ireland, a normal school has recently been established at Dublin. At this institution, exclusively devoted to the education of teachers, a thousand pupils have already received their whole maintenance—tuition, board, lodging—*gratuitously*.†

In the twenty-two cantons composing the Swiss Confederacy, in 1840, there had been fourteen normal schools established. Their effect upon the educational interests of Switzerland, had been as striking and as beneficial since their establishment, as during the same period, they had been in Prussia. One of the most distinguished of these schools, in the canton of Zurich, on the shores of the lake of Kushnatch, its evening shadows rest upon the birth place of Pestalozzi. Another, occupies a chateau at Beuggen, in the canton of Basle, which once belonged to the Teutonic Order of Knights. The banqueting hall where those grim old warriors, over wine and wassail, recounted their sanguinary feats, is now the school room of Childhood and Youth—of either sex—the taught and the future teacher.

The Kingdom of Saxony, with a protestant population of one million three hundred and fifty thousand, at five normal schools, educates three hundred teachers. The required course of study is *four* years. Mr. Mann, as the result of his late examination of European schools, places this kingdom among those that "stand pre-eminent, both in regard to the quantity and the quality of instruction," given to the people.

Saxe-Weimer, with a population of 231,000 educates 127 teachers in two seminaries. The course of study "is *five* years and over.‡

The committee cannot further particularize those foreign nations that have successfully introduced these seminaries into their educational systems; they would only add, that they are now found in every kingdom, in every province, in every dutchy, throughout the Continent of Europe, where, in the eventful decades of a century, education has

* Fifth Report of the Glasgow Education Society.

† Hon. H. Mann's Seventh Annual Report.

‡ L. Stephens, Letters to, &c.

made any advance—Human Freedom attained any progress—Intellect erected one imperishable trophy on the fields of science.

Although from this hasty view of the establishment and operation of normal schools in Europe, they would seem to be so indispensable in a well-matured educational system, as to be founded and sustained by any intelligent government desirous of a thorough education of its people; yet with two exceptions, their introduction to this Continent has been the unaided achievement of individual enterprise and benevolence.

Their establishment has been repeatedly recommended by the educational officer in Pennsylvania. In the sixth annual report of the Hon. Francis R. Shunk, Superintendent of Common Schools, made to the Pennsylvania Legislature, March 3d, 1840, he says, "a more effectual method to increase the number of teachers, and to furnish facilities for extending the knowledge of the art of teaching, and improving this department of public instruction is by the establishment of teachers' seminaries, commonly called normal schools." In his next annual report of 1841, the same officer says, "the most obvious and direct means of providing competent teachers, is by the establishment of seminaries for their instruction. *A community, in order to appreciate and compensate good teachers adequately, should be enlightened by the happy efforts of their labors; a result which can never be produced by those who are inefficient and incompetent.*" In his report of January 1842, he renewed his suggestions of the importance of these seminaries for instructing teachers. The government has however never made an appropriation to aid even a normal school, but private munificence and enterprise have established several in the State.

In the annual reports of the trustees of the School Fund of the State of New-Jersey, 1839 and 1840, the following views are expressed on the subject of normal schools: "*There seems to be but one way in which a supply of good teachers can be secured. They must be trained to the business of teaching. They must be taught the art of teaching. Those who are to instruct others, must themselves be instructed. In short, there must be schools for the education of teachers.* * * * * To require that teachers should be examined and licensed, will not answer the purpose. When nearly all are unqualified, there is little room for selection. Their deficiencies in this way may be exposed, but how are they to be corrected?"

In his annual report, January, 1841, the Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of Ohio, says "the establishment of normal schools is the only effectual means for extending the knowledge of the art of teaching, and placing this department of public instruction on that elevated ground that its vast importance demands."

The committee might continue to give these favorable opinions and sanguine recommendations of high official personages, but they content themselves with the general expression, that in nearly all the States where the subject of popular education has in any respect received an attention from public men, at all commensurate with the magnitude of interests involved, the establishment of normal schools has been the invariable means recommended to invigorate and improve common schools. But while State Legislatures have generally neglected to test, by experiment, the expediency or practical utility of these institutions—the Canadian Parliament, at its very last session, passed an act providing for their immediate establishment in both the Upper and Lower Provinces.

While other States were deliberating, Massachusetts acted, and now justly claims the honor of first establishing institutions exclusively for teachers, as part of a State system of common school education. But even her action was stimulated by individual liberality.

In 1838, a citizen of Boston,* placed, at the disposal of the Massachusetts Board of Education, the sum of ten thousand dollars, to be expended in the qualification of teachers of common schools, on condition that the Legislature would appropriate an equal sum to the same purpose. This proposition was communicated to the Legislature on the 12th of March, 1838; ten days after, a joint committee of the two houses, reported in favor of accepting the proposition; resolutions, making the appropriation to that effect, passed the Legislature "almost unanimously," and on the 19th of April, 1838, received the signature of the Governor.†

The Board of Education having the sum of twenty thousand dollars thus placed at their disposal, "to be expended in qualifying teachers for the common schools in Massachusetts," with the single condition of rendering an annual account of the manner in which they had ex-

* Edmund Dwight, Esq.

† Massachusetts Common School Journal, vol. 1, pages 33 and 35.

pended the money, felt themselves somewhat embarrassed in selecting the best method of carrying out the intention of the private and legislative donors of the benefaction. The propriety of establishing and liberally endowing a *single school*, was considered and decided against mainly on the ground that if but one was founded, its success or failure could be known but to the citizens of a small part of the State; and it was desirable that an *experiment*, in which the whole people had a direct interest, should as far as practicable, be tried in presence of the whole people. The economy and expediency of engrafting a department for the qualification of teachers, upon academies in different parts of the State, was also examined. Against this plan it was objected that such a department would be but a secondary interest in the school — that “the principal and assistant teachers would not be selected, so much with reference to the incident, as to the principal object; and as the course of instruction proper to qualify teachers, must be essentially different from a common academical course, it would be impossible for any preceptor duly to superintend both.”*

As the money seemed not intended to be invested as a permanent endowment, and as it was sufficient, with what it was reasonably expected the friends of education would contribute to establish more than one normal school, for a period of time sufficiently long to bring the usefulness of such institutions to the test of experience, it was finally determined to pursue this course. The Board finding their present means and encouragements for the future would justify the establishment of three schools with a fair expectation of sustaining them three years at least; decided to establish that number, and to locate them in different parts of the State. The latter course was taken not only to bring within the reach of the people the means of partaking their advantages, but of observing their usefulness; with a view too of enabling the people understandingly to decide on the final adoption or rejection of these seminaries as a constituent part of the system of common school education.†

In accordance with these views, a school for the reception of females *only*, was opened at Lexington on the 3d day of July, 1839; another for the admission of pupils of both sexes, was opened at Barre, in September of the same year; the third was established at Bridge-

* Mass. Com. School Journal, Vol. 1, page 35.

† Second An. Rep. of Board of Education.

water on the same principles as the Barre school, in the month of September 1840.

The Lexington school received no pupils for less than one year; each of the other institutions admitted scholars for a less period. The terms of admission were, that applicants, if males, must have attained seventeen years of age, and sixteen if females — must on examination appear well versed in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic — must be in the enjoyment of good health, and must furnish satisfactory evidence of good intellectual capacity and of high moral character and principles. The pupils were in addition, required to “declare it to be their intention to become school teachers after having finished a course of study at the normal school.”*

The following course of study was arranged and recommended for each institution; fully to complete it required three years:

1. Orthography, Reading, Grammar, Composition, and Logic.
2. Writing, Drawing.
3. Arithmetic, mental and written, Algebra, Geometry, Book-keeping, Navigation, Surveying.
4. Geography, ancient and modern, with Chronology, Statistics and General History.
5. Physiology.
6. Mental Philosophy.
7. Music.
8. Constitution and History of Massachusetts, and of the United States.
9. Natural Philosophy and Astronomy.
10. Natural History.
11. The principles of piety and morality common to all sects of christians.
12. *The science and art of teaching, with reference to all the above named studies.*

The first term, the Barre school, with one teacher and one assistant, received thirty-nine pupils; the fourth term it numbered forty-seven —

* Massachusetts Common School Journal, Vol. 1, pages 96, 309.

twenty-six males and twenty-one females ; in December, 1841, the number of both sexes had reached seventy. In the year 1842 this school was suspended by the death of its principal, Prof. Newman.

After this school had been in operation about eighteen months, it was officially said by the Board of Education : " The scholars who have left this school have sustained a high reputation in their profession as teachers. They appear to be decidedly better qualified for their task, both by their thorough acquaintance with the elementary branches of learning, and their familiarity with the principles and practice of the art of teaching, than the majority of those generally employed in the care of schools." It was of this seminary that President Humphrey of Amherst College, on visiting it in December, 1841, said, " I was exceedingly pleased with the elementary and analytical processes in all the branches taught in the school. Everything had a direct bearing upon the great business of teaching, for which the pupils were preparing."

The Bridgewater school opened in September, 1840, with 28 pupils, of whom 21 were females ; the second term was attended by 35, of whom 26 were females ; the last term of the year 1841 closed with 52 pupils. The average number of pupils during the year 1842 was about 45 : that was the number in attendance at the close of the year 1843 ; at the preceding term 72 were admitted. On the day when this school was recently visited by one of your committee ; there were 42 pupils under instruction, of which number 31 or 32 were females. On examining the register of the school 233 persons were found to have been enrolled as members since its organization in September, 1840. This number includes several who did not remain through even one term. Of the whole number 131 were known to have taught after leaving school ; 42 were attending school ; 8 only (which includes two or three who were dead) are known not to have taught ; 5 others had never taught by reason of ill-health ; 3 had married ; 1 came from and returned to New-York ; of the history of the remainder the principal knew nothing.

The day spent by the chairman of your committee at this seminary was occupied in attending upon the regular exercises and examinations of the classes, and in a brief visit to the model school room. The normal school was opened in the morning by reading a portion of scripture, singing and prayer. The recitations, the explanations, the com-

ments, &c. were all analytical and practical—and as far as practicable—subjected to the test of black-board demonstration. All seemed arranged and designed to make every scholar thoroughly acquainted with the subject and with the best method of elucidating and communicating it.

The rules of the institution require the pupils to teach in the model school in rotation, under the supervision of the principal. This part of the school exhibited the effects of the too constant confinement of the principal in the general recitation room.

The usefulness of this seminary is greatly impaired by the want of more teachers, and by the short and uncertain periods for which students are received. A term of 14 weeks is hardly sufficient for one man and his assistant, to eradicate bad habits of thinking and feeling, and implant new ones in fifty or sixty minds, reducing the whole to demonstration and to practice, in the model school.

The normal school at Lexington, designed exclusively for ladies, closed its first year in August 1840, with 25 pupils; the second year numbered 40; the third year about the same number. During the last year there were the first term 31; the second term 39; the third 42; the fourth 55; at the close of the year the applications for the next term were 60; this was the number in attendance the day the school was visited.

The model school connected with this institution, consists generally of from forty to fifty young children, from the several school districts in the town. This school, under the general superintendence of the principal of the institution, is taught mainly by the pupils of the normal school. The principal visits this school daily as a listener and observer, sometimes as teacher. Here under the eye of a master is a real apprenticeship served in the noble *Art of Teaching*—here *theory* is combined with *practice*—here principles are illustrated by veritable examples. The model school sustained in the vicinity a reputation so high, that for the two or three first years a much larger number of children could be obtained for it, if it had been desirable to increase the number, and this too when the sending a child to that school was attended with a very considerable extra expense to the parent.

As pupils from the normal schools have gone out into the town to teach, parents have of late been enabled to supply their children in

their own district schools with the same kind of superior education taught in the model school; and in consequence, the number of pupils in the latter school has been reduced to some 25 or 30. A fact which shows the practical effect of the education and training of teachers at the normal school, that they *acquire* and that they can *communicate*.

The day spent at the Lexington Seminary, there were in the model school about 30 children, of ages and capacities as various as the same number exhibit in a common district school. An experienced and highly qualified teacher, spends all her school hours in this school; the more advanced pupils in the normal school in rotation, are required to assist in classifying and arranging the children, hearing and explaining lessons, *teaching* orally on the black-board, &c. All passes under the eye of the teacher, aided by the frequent watchful suggestions of the principal.

Interesting as it would be to detail minutely the exercises in this room—the natural and successful means used to make the stay in the school room pleasant, instead of irksome—learning a delight, instead of a drudgery—even to children of four and five years of age—the committee feel they must hasten to the normal school room. Here the morning exercises were quite similar to those of the Bridgewater institution, except that *all*, or nearly all of the pupils engaged in singing; as it was “review day” at the seminary, a very good opportunity was presented of learning the exercise and manner of study pursued at the school. Great pains are taken in *teaching* reading, accent, emphasis, grammar, colloquial and written. Spelling and punctuation are taught at the black-board. A half hour spent by all the school in *mental* arithmetic, vulgar fractions, rule of three, practice, interest, &c. showed great quickness in mental computation. Several scholars described and demonstrated problems in the various books of Euclid, stated and worked complex propositions in Algebra on the black-board with a readiness and clearness that evinced a perfect familiarity with those branches of mathematics.

Not to particularize farther, every exercise seemed well adapted to the great purpose of educating and instructing mind, with direct reference to fitting it to educate and instruct mind.

As there had been some change of principals since the organization of the school, no statistical information, to any extent, could be obtained as to the number of pupils who had taught or were now engaged in

common schools. The institution is now under the care of a principal and two assistant teachers. Its usefulness, like that at Bridgewater is somewhat circumscribed by the want of more spacious buildings; each being at some seasons of the year crowded to its utmost capacity—a most creditable fact, when it is remembered that hitherto individual liberality, aided by the bounty of the State, has only furnished tuition and rooms free of charge to the students.

A deeply interesting inquiry here suggests itself, what has been the effect of the establishment of these normal schools upon the common schools of Massachusetts?

After the Lexington school had been in operation about eighteen months, the Fourth Annual Report of the Board of Education says, several pupils of this institution have been employed as teachers, since completing their studies there. Their success has been for the most part remarkable, and acknowledged to be such by all who have had opportunities of observing their schools.

Dr. Samuel G. Howe, a most distinguished educationist of the Blind Asylum, South Boston, closes a letter to the committee of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, March 9, 1840, with the following high and decisive testimony in relation to this institution: "I will only repeat to you, what I have said to others, that if instead of the twenty-five teachers who will go out [from the normal school at Lexington, there could go out, over the length and breadth of Massachusetts, five hundred like them, to take charge of the rising generation, that generation would have more reason to bless us, than if we should cover the whole State with railroads, like a spider's web, and bring physical comforts to every man's door, and leave an overflowing treasury to divide its surplus among all the citizens."

A correspondent of the Common School Journal, of Massachusetts, under date of February 1, 1842, concludes a notice of one of these schools in these words: "If this and similar institutions shall continue and prosper, their good effects will be more and more manifest in the better health and improved dispositions, the superior intelligence, the more real information, the higher morality, and the greater goodness of the children of our land."

In a report made to the board of education in 1842, it was stated, "such is the estimation in which their services have been held, that

many districts which have once employed normal scholars, are extremely unwilling to employ any other teachers."

As the funds in the hands of the Board for the support of the normal schools would be exhausted that year, early in the session of 1842 a joint committee of the two houses was appointed to examine and report upon the propriety of making a further appropriation to aid those schools. Before that committee, on the 16th of February, Mr. Emerson, one of the most distinguished and successful educationists of that or any other State, after speaking in strong terms of approval of the normal schools, said: "In a large town which he had visited during the summer, the *unanimous* testimony of the school committee was given to the superiority of that one of the teachers who had passed through the normal school, *over all others in the place*. The Hon. Horace Mann, the secretary of the board of education, read before the same committee "six or eight letters from a large file that he had received unsolicited from school committees residing in the country, in regard to the success of the normal pupils, as teachers, in their respective towns." These letters spoke of the better class of the pupils from the normal schools as decidedly superior to any teachers of which the committees had ever had any knowledge; *and it was said that the second-rate teachers were better than common school teachers had ordinarily been.*"*

The joint committee, "without a dissenting voice," recommended that the sum of six thousand dollars be annually appropriated for three years to the support of normal schools. The resolution to that effect, passed in the House of Representatives "by a large majority and without a count"—in the Senate by a vote of 20 to 12, and was approved by the Governor on the 3d March, 1842.†

This was the second legislative scrutiny to which these schools had been subjected. They were a serious innovation and early excited attention, not to say suspicion and jealousy in some minds. In March, 1840, they were examined by a legislative committee, hostile to their continuance, and an attempt was made to abolish them, and signally failed; they had so far disarmed this prejudice that when the term of three years, for which provision had been made for them, was about to expire, the Legislature, as already stated, with great promptness, made an appropriation for their further support.

* Mass. Com. Sch. Jour. vol iv. p. 85, 88. † Vol. iv. Mass. Com. Sch. Jour. p. 97, 104.

In their Sixth Annual Report to the Legislature, (1843,) the Board of Education say, "The pupils who have gone forth from these schools have met with extraordinary success in the performance of their duties. *Their success has stimulated other teachers in the work of self-culture*; and even in those parts of the Commonwealth which have received *no direct advantage* from the establishment of these institutions, either in the education or employment of normal scholars, *a spirit of emulation has been excited, an advance has been made in the qualification of teachers*, and a *salutary impulse* has been given to the cause of education." They express a "deep regret" that they have not the means to send a well-fitted, certificated normal scholar into at least each town in the Commonwealth.

In their Report the present year, the Board say of the Lexington school, "*Such is the reputation of this school, that applications have been made to it from seven of our sister States for teachers.*"

An important question here arises, how are these institutions regarded in those sections of the State which have had an opportunity of employing the normal scholars as teachers? In looking over the reports of the *town* school officers during the years 1841-2,* after these institutions had been in operation little more than three years, *they find not one instance of disapprobation or disappointment expressed*—but they do find many of the reports from *seven* out of fourteen counties, speak of the normal schools with marked commendation. As specimens, the following are selected: The school committee of the town of Lincoln say, that in one teacher from the normal school they have "had an opportunity of witnessing the effects of teaching upon the teacher; though young and inexperienced, she appeared to understand her place well. There was a directness in her teaching which we too seldom see; she had an object always before her, and was constantly advancing towards it; her object seemed to be to fix the lesson more deeply in the child's mind," &c. Another town committee say, "the establishment of normal schools has done much and will do every thing to reform the system of teaching if persevered in." Another says, "if this town could have two or three teachers annually, who had enjoyed the privileges of a normal school, *that would be of ten-fold more benefit to our schools than any other measure that could be adopted.*" Another town use these words, "we look for still greater improvement through the agency

* The committee have not had access to returns of a more recent date.

of the normal schools, or schools for the especial education of teachers, whose establishment we hail with great joy. They must soon introduce a new era, by giving *dignity* to the teacher's *calling*, by bringing into the work minds that are well disciplined and trained. . . . By raising the standard of the teacher's qualifications, by making good teachers more common, by throwing light along their pathway, by diffusing among all the experience and improved methods of all, and by demonstrating how good an education may be given at the common school, when it shall be perfected as a system—by all these means the normal schools will act upon the public schools, and through them upon the moral and social condition of the people at large, with the happiest results." Another town bears this testimony, "Public opinion has grown stronger and stronger in support of these institutions, *till the time has arrived when their opponents are converted into friends, and men of all parties equally unite in commending them to the patronage of every philanthropist in the State.*" We make but one more extract from these reports: "No measure has ever been devised, tending so directly to the improvement of our system of public instruction, as the establishment of these schools. The specific design of them is to prepare teachers for our common schools. The results of the experiment in our own county, (Plymouth,) so far as they have had time to appear, have been most satisfactory. We, of this town, have had some means of judging. Five of our young women, and two of our young men have spent, part of them six months, and part of them a year, in the normal school, and have received instructions in all the elementary branches of learning, much more thorough, and much better adapted to enable themselves to teach, than they could have received at any school or academy with which we are acquainted."

In concluding so much of the report as has particular reference to the normal schools of Massachusetts, the committee would say, that twelve of the normal scholars, all females, are now employed as teachers in the public schools of Boston; that an intelligent school officer, whose duty it is in some districts of the town to select teachers, remarked to the chairman, that other things being equal, he *invariably* gave the preference to those teachers who had spent some time at the normal schools; that a year's training *there* was more than equal to *three years' experience*, the acquirements in other respects being the same in each case. Another school officer remarked that a good teacher from the normal school, *would, and did advance schools in*

one year, as far as common teachers did in two years, or even three years.

In those schools taught by these and other good teachers, so far as the same were visited, children of 4 and 5 years of age, seemed as interested, attentive and orderly as older scholars; pupils of 6 and 7 years of age, judging by question and black-board, were as conversant with geography generally, topography, mental and written arithmetic, &c. as those in our district schools who have the advantage of ten additional years.

Such was the origin—such the growth—such the effect—and such is *now* the appreciation of Normal Schools in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, a Commonwealth that last year paid towards educating in its public schools its 184,896 children between the ages of 4 and 16, \$517,215.97, of which \$510,590.02 were raised by a *direct tax*. In the five preceding years its three hundred and eight towns expended in the erection of school houses alone, \$516,122.74.

In this connexion more appropriately, perhaps than elsewhere, it may be stated that Massachusetts last year paid its 2414 male teachers, upon an average, each \$32.11 per month—less average board, \$24.35, this is an advance of thirty-three per cent upon 1837; 4301 female teachers each \$12.82—less average board 7.31, this is an advance of compensation beyond 1837 of over twelve and a half per cent; that the average length of time all the schools were taught was 7 months, 17 days.

The committee have been induced thus minutely to trace the origin and principles of normal schools in Europe and in this country, so far as they have been introduced, first, because of the great influence they are exerting upon popular education; second, for the reason that their establishment in this State has heretofore been opposed as incompatible with our republican institutions.

It has not been denied that the great defect of our common school system is not only the want of competent teachers, but of some provision to furnish a constant supply—that without able and well-trained teachers no common school system can be considered complete—that no country has ever yet obtained a sufficient number of competent teachers, except by erecting special institutions to educate and qualify them—that no other country has ever been so well supplied with competent

teachers as Prussia—that in no other country have seminaries for the education of teachers so long formed a constituent part of a State system of public instruction.

Whenever the question of erecting separate seminaries for the education of teachers has been brought before the Legislature, or discussed by educationists in this State, the principal objection urged has been founded upon the supposition, that the *compulsory features* of the Prussian common school system, entered into, and *necessarily* formed a component part of the normal school system.

The Prussian system does require that every child between six and fourteen years of age *shall* attend school, public or private; the normal pupil after that age, *voluntarily* enters the teachers' seminary, to remain there *three* years, if he makes good proficiency, in the same manner that a student enters one of our colleges, where a *four* years' course of study is pursued. Government bears the entire expense, or nearly so, of this three years' education and maintenance, and as an equivalent requires, that *for the three years* next ensuing, after leaving the seminary, the normal scholar shall, if required, teach—failing to do so, refund to the seminary whatever expense it has been put to by him.*

In all of this that pertains to the normal student, is there anything so *compulsory*, so *despotic*, as to be abhorrent to our democratic feelings or antagonistic to our republican institutions? Is it anything more than strict justice that the normal pupil should be obligated to return some equivalent for the three years' *gratuitous* education he receives?

But perhaps this view does not present the real difficulties that exist or are supposed to exist, the normal pupil is educated at the public expense upon the supposition that he will not only teach *three years*, but that he will follow teaching as a business, a means of livelihood, a *profession*. With this end in view, government educates him, examines and determines his qualifications, fixes the minimum of salary that the local authorities can pay him, augments that compensation as occasion requires, when through age or infirmity he becomes incapable of discharging the duties of teacher, he retires with a government pension for his support.

* Dr. Julius on Teachers' Seminaries in Prussia, vol. 2. Essays on Public Edu., p. 107.

That common school teaching with us is not a *profession*, is a consideration entitled to weight in deliberating upon the propriety of erecting one or more seminaries for the exclusive education of school teachers—a *professional class* of men that here do not exist. But this is only an admission that a defect exists in our system that must be modified or cured before our schools can become what they should be ; it is therefore a negative objection, that rightly understood, should become a positive inducement to the prompt establishment of a seminary. Next to the want of qualifications, is the evil of a constant change of teachers. This evil must exist until we *do* have *professional teachers*, and these we cannot have until we have qualified teachers—qualified by education, by *training* as well as experience.

A glance at the tables appended to the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools of this year, shows the great extent and prevalence of this evil. The whole number of teachers in the winter schools over 30 years of age, was 803, of which number 666 were males ; the number who had taught longer, in the whole, than a year was 4156, of which number 1120 were females ; the number who had taught the *same school for one year* was 798, of which 303 were females ; the number who had taught the *same school for three years* was 319, of which number 70 were females. In the summer schools the results vary somewhat, the whole number of teachers over 30 years of age was 466, of which number 205 were females ; the number who had taught in the whole longer than a year was 3954, of which number 3150 were females ; the number who had taught the *same school for one year* was 1163, of which number 911 were females ; the number who had taught the *same school three years* was only 311, of which number 145 were females.

There were in October last 10,875 districts in this State, more than 9000 of whom change teachers every 12 months ; more than two-thirds of that number change teachers every 6 months.

What improvement can be looked for in schools, when change, *change*, is the one unchanging feature ?

Experience has long since taught that the frequent change of teachers is the great bane of schools ; that when a teacher is “ apt to teach ” —has a good faculty of governing, the school will make much greater proficiency the second term than it can the first. It takes a quick

teacher several weeks to become thoroughly acquainted with the various attainments, the dispositions and capacities of each scholar; and without such acquaintance how can he know what incentives are best adapted to spur forward the laggard, to interest the thoughtless, to repress the mischievous? A matter of no trifling consideration, is the fact, that scholars require some opportunity to become acquainted with the ways and mode of instruction of the teacher before they can make all the improvement that the common school is capable of imparting. The reputation of a high school or an academy would soon be frittered away by a constant change of principals once in two or three years, and has district schools no reputation to suffer from the more frequent recurrence of the same course?

We look to the establishment of normal schools as a means of curing or modifying this evil. From town officers, from county superintendents, from the friends of education in all parts of the State, the call has been and yet is long and loud — “give us better qualified teachers,” until that call can be responded to, there will continue to be change of teachers; intelligent districts will not be satisfied with indifferent or poorly qualified teachers; if they chance to engage such once, they will not do it the second time.

If this demand can be supplied with qualified professional teachers, this evil will cease; and such teachers we can only obtain by educating.

It may be said that thus far the supply has equalled the demand, and that it will so continue to do. There are unmistakable signs in various parts of the State, that the nature of that demand is undergoing a change — that the time is coming when teachers' qualifications must be greatly advanced from what many of them now are. It is painful to reflect that the demand for better qualified teachers has already outstripped the supply; and that this supply will now be the work of years. A good teacher cannot be prepared as a merchant or manufacturer fills an order for goods. Even Adam Smith excepts education from the mercantile or economical law, that the supply will follow and equal the demand. “In every age, even among the heathen,” says Martin Luther, “the necessity has been felt of having good schoolmasters, in order to make any thing respectable of a nation. But surely we are not to sit still and wait until they grow up of themselves. We can neither chop them out of wood, nor hew them out of stone. God

will work no miracles to furnish that which we have the means to provide. We must, therefore, apply our care and money to *train up* and make them.”*

One obstacle in the way of making teaching to any extent a profession, has been inadequacy of compensation. But in very many districts, has not the pay been fully equal to the worth of services rendered? Have not very many teachers *felt and acted* the veritable saying of the English dame “*it is but little they pays me, and it is but little I teaches them.*”

It is believed that but very few instances can have occurred in this State where persons have fitted themselves to teach, and had “sufficient ability” to instruct and manage a school, and yet failed to obtain employment and reasonable compensation.

The average monthly compensation of male teachers employed in the winter schools has been \$14.28 exclusive of board; that of female teachers \$7.00; in the summer schools, the male teachers received on an average \$15.00 per month; female teachers \$6.00. These sums are very considerably less than the average paid in Massachusetts for the same services. In that State, teaching is more a profession, more the occupation of manhood and womanhood, than it is in this State. Last year, more than *one-tenth* of all our district schools were taught by teachers “under 18 years of age.” Is there any propriety in such inexperienced, immature persons complaining that the average pay in this State, is not a fair equivalent for the *use* of the *capital invested* or for the services rendered? The committee are far from saying the average compensation for *good* teachers is as high as it should be or as it will be when *the average of such* teachers is more general.

Another objection urged against the *profession* of teaching is, that there is not constant employment through the year. The public schools have been taught the past year, on an average 8 months; in two counties, 12 months; in two other counties, 10 and 11 months; the lowest county is Hamilton, where schools have been taught but 5 months; this is one of the newest and most unsettled counties in the State. Is not the employment of 8, 9 or 10 months as continual an employment through the season as most mechanics or artizans obtain? And when teaching becomes an employment, a profession, will not the measure of

* Fifth annual report of Secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education.

compensation soon be graduated by not only the fact whether the avocation admits of any diversion of time or labor to other pursuits, but by the superior qualification and annually increasing experience of the teacher?

The Prussian system is based upon the principle that every child must be educated—that in every stage of that education, teaching as an *art* is required as the quickest way to attain the proposed end—to impart the theory and practice of that *art*, government builds suitable edifices, and pensions there the best talents and experience—furnishes the means of maintenance, and then requires its school teachers shall be well versed, theoretically and practically, in the principles of the *art*. These provisions of law have made the teachers, even in the primary or lower schools, a professional class that take rank with that of the clergy or army.

Our own system requires good teachers, but has not supplied adequate means to obtain them. Would not the same means so successful in Prussia produce similar results in this country? Can we expect teaching to become a *profession* until the government does for it what it has for other professions—recognize its candidates as worthy of a special preparatory education, and contribute something towards diminishing the expense of obtaining that education?

Perhaps the most serious obstacle in the way of making teaching a *profession*, remains yet to be noticed—the low estimation in which that occupation is held, especially so much of it as pertains to common schools.

How can this be otherwise so long as so great a proportion of novices, ignoramuses, and incompetents are permitted to hold the station of public teachers?

In too many cases teaching is resorted to by academic and college students merely to eke out a stinted income to aid in completing their studies—by young girls desirous of obtaining the means of *finishing* their education by spending one or two terms at a higher seminary. The ruling motive here is praiseworthy, and far be it from the committee to disparage a youth of scanty means making such efforts to obtain an education; but the fact is nevertheless true that not unfrequently schools suffer by the employment of such teachers. Their minds are

intent upon their own studies—to them their hours out of school are devoted ; with such the duties in the school room must and do become secondary considerations ; not expecting or desiring a permanent connexion, there cannot be that entire giving up of the whole mind and attention to a temporary occupation, which yet is so essential to ensure success in any employment, and especially in that of teaching school.

There is another class, quite too numerous, whose mercenary motive is not extenuated or relieved by so laudable an object—a class who engage in teaching without any love for the art, without any consideration of the incomputable importance of the trust committed to them—without any object further than to keep scholars and parents from complaining until the school closes. They enter the school room as the eye servant enters the shop or the field to spend the allotted time—to watch for the going down of the sun—to count the hours, the days, the weeks, the months, that must come and go till “the last day” arrives, when the task will be ended and the money be received.

Can such a teacher profit a school ? Can such a teacher be respected by his scholars, by his employers, by himself ? This class of teachers must disappear before the occupation of teaching can become respectable, sufficiently so to be recognized as a profession. It must come to be more generally understood, and acted upon, that a poor teacher is *very poor*—that all of necessity are poor teachers who have not taken some pains, spent some time *specially*, to fit themselves for teaching—that great skill and experience are requisite to know how to teach well. By common consent, it is necessary to serve an apprenticeship of years to know how to make a hat, a shoe, a coat, or erect a building, and then the apprentice is admitted and recognised as a “workman,” “a mechanic.”

A common understanding seems to prevail among most christian denominations, that no one shall be recognised as rightfully having “the cure of souls” who has not, preparatory to the exercise of that “function,” spent some time with an approved divine, or at some seminary specially instituted for the education of the ministry.

The State, too, has not regarded as beneath its care, to require that no man shall be recognized as competent to take charge, in its courts of justice, of the property, the reputation, or the life of his fellow men, until he has gone through a course of seven years’ study ; three of

which is to be spent in the office of a *practising* lawyer. It has also denied hitherto, to those who assume the care of the body, the aid of its laws to collect pay for their services, unless a fixed course of study, or attendance upon lectures, has been rigidly pursued and properly certified. Yet thus far, neither common consent, nor common understanding, nor statutory provision, have required any apprenticeship, any special education, the spending of any fixed term of time, preparatory to entering upon an employment where is laid the very foundation of all these superstructures. Here, inexperienced, unskilful hands are permitted to make experiments to perfect themselves—and yet the subjects of these experiments are immortal beings.

From the very nature of the case, the teaching of such teachers cannot but be in low estimation; the art they practise suffers by their inexperience and unskilfulness. If no preparation, no training preparatory to the practice of that art, continue to be thought necessary, it must remain where it now is in the public estimation. It can never be elevated while so little is required from those who practise it.

Will it be said that the evil of employing incompetent teachers can be reached and cured through the present constituted inspecting or examining officers? If they were disposed fully to do their duty, and reject all the incompetent, the unqualified, from whence are their places to be supplied by the competent and qualified? But let us examine a moment what the law requires of this town or county officer, in respect to granting licenses to teach. The form of certificate prescribed to be given to the person who passes examination, requires the examining officer, to certify particularly to the “moral character,” “learning,” “ability,” &c. The general moral character may be taken on general reputation—the sufficiency of the knowledge of books, may be ascertained by personal examinations—but who can from “general reputation,” or from direct examination, *safely*, certify the “ability” of that mind to teach, to communicate? Will the minutest inspection disclose the general temperament—the petulant, or the kindly disposition? Who can safely certify that the power of self-government—the habitual self-control, will in the moment of temptation, as well as in the long hours of wearisome occupation, patiently endure unto the end? Ludicrous as the statement may appear, the law seems to suppose the examiner to be capable of this—in other words, to have not only a practical knowledge of the disputed science of Phrenology, but to be versed in the yet more questionable *art* of Mesmerism—to be able to arrive at results from a

digital, as well as intellectual examination—to deduce conclusions from *clairvoyancing* scenes in the future school room, and certify thereto as to existing realities?

Will it be said that the visitation of the school will enable the licensing officer to judge of a teacher's fitness and "ability" to teach? It may to some extent; but will one afternoon, or at most two, reveal to the visitor aught of the teacher's impatience, fretfulness, precipitancy? The two or three years' training at the normal school, the daily, hourly intercourse, in the recitation room, and more than all in the model school, where real perplexities—real trials—tempt and try the equanimity and self-control, disclosing defects of temper to be corrected—errors of practice to be avoided—enable the principal with some show of reason to certify to the moral character, "ability," &c. of the future teacher.

It must be obvious, it long has been, that entire reliance upon town or county officers to elevate teaching into a *profession* will be vain—they may aid, but they cannot "in and of themselves" effectuate; many of them will continue, they must to

"_____ lay careless hands
On skulls that cannot teach, and will not learn."

We are, nevertheless, of those who believe that teaching—common school teaching—can and ought to be raised in this State, to the dignity of a *profession*, that it must be done before our educational system attains the full perfection of which it is susceptible. Until then we cannot expect to see education occupying, as in truth it ought, the energies, the thoughts of "society's best minds." In this matter the Athenians, and the Romans, who had glimpses of whatever was most glorious, left mankind a great example. "Teaching," says a writer, "was the honorable occupation of their greatest men. The brightest minds of Athenian philosophy were the instructors of Athenian youth; so keenly was the truth felt, that the mature intelligence and moral power, acquired in the struggles of a distinguished life, could perform no higher function than that of rearing up the same precious fruits in the rising minds of the community."

Julius Cæsar, far in advance of his age, was the first Roman who honored school teachers by raising them to the rank of Roman citizens.

Independent of the *professional effect* of the establishment of the normal school system, the school teacher himself feels that he needs the advantages of such a seminary. He has heard and read of far higher

and more successful attainments than what he possesses ; to become acquainted with them, he would be willing to sacrifice his time and perhaps more—but where shall he go ? If he asked the officer having the superintendence of public instruction in this State—where shall I go—to what section or institution of this entire State could he direct the inquirer ?

It is a teacher's high prerogative to develop the faculties of human beings—if he mistake his calling—if he mistake the true principles of his art, *to educate*,* to develop—and aim merely *to instruct*,† to instil—not only the *child*, but the *man*, will carry to the grave the sad effects of this ignorance and incompetency. Such a course stunts and dwarfs the whole mental and moral nature ; it renders the intellect a mere passive recipient of words and signs, and words and signs only instead of ideas, it will evolve—it will be clothed “with a vesture of apparent information”—but the power—the originality—the expansion of mind—are enfeebled, constrained and circumscribed. It creates the form—it constructs the mechanism of education—without breathing into it a living soul. It prepares the child to make use of his acquisitions just as the ancient Roman artist did, who was *taught to copy* with life-like precision the Grecian master-pieces—just as does the serf of the Russian noble, at the present day, who is trained to execute *at command*, difficult pieces of music, or make facsimiles of paintings of the best modern Italian or Flemish masters—without the slightest advance of the operative in intellectual stature—or without one power of producing an *original* conception.

How many of our ten thousand teachers have ever known that education, even a common school education, should be directed to the due development, the symmetrical cultivation of the physical, the moral, and the intellectual faculties of every child ? How many have known the constant, careful, practical use to be made of this knowledge, if possessed, in the treatment of every child ? That to educate the moral powers to the exclusion or total neglect of the intellectual, would be detrimental in the extreme rendering their subject the victim of superstition and the sport of passing delusion. To educate the intellect to the neglect of the moral nature, would be to give talent and power without principle—in other words, it would be to educate for the penitentiary, the prison cell, the scaffold of the gallows, the grave of the suicide !

* *E-duco*, lead from, draw out, &c.

† *In-struo*, build on or over, &c.

Again, how many are ignorant of the distinction between intellect and feeling, between ideas and emotions—know not that these two classes of mental operations are called into activity by very different objects, cultivated by different processes—and that as one or the other predominates in the mental constitution, produce very different results both in conduct and character ?

Oh, woe for those who trample on the mind,
That deathless thing! They know not what they do,
Nor what they deal with! Man, perchance, may bind
The flower his foot hath bruised; or light anew
The torch he quenched; or to music wind
Again the lyre string from his touch that flew,
But for the soul! Oh! tremble and beware
To lay rude hands upon God's mysteries there!

In addition to the true discernment of his duty as an educator, there are other requisites, without which, perhaps, no one should be permitted to have the care of the young. Time will not permit us to dwell here upon the importance of a teacher's social and moral qualifications—his mildness, his generosity, his patience, his sense of decorum, his kindness, his cheerfulness, his love of virtue, his reverence for his Maker. These constitute the most precious traits, the richest ornaments of childhood; and there is no parent so debased as not to desire even in the depth of his debasement, that *his* child should grow up the possessor of all these qualities? Yet how often have the very means that should have implanted and cherished all these graces, been neglected in the unsuitable selection of a teacher, the constituted delegate of the parent? How can the teacher cause his pupil to feel the truth and beauty of what has never touched or entered his own soul?

We are sometimes almost tempted to believe that much of what has been written and sung about our earliest moments, is but the dreamings of a beautiful fancy; and yet who that pauses amid "beings busy bustle" and thinks upon childhood—all its joys and its brief tears—its soft purity and its brave gentleness—its charity that thinketh no evil—its hope that believeth all things—does not *feel* as well as know that it is the one green spot to which Manhood often looks back and sighs that but once only through it runs the Thoroughfare of Individual Existence. How rarely too is the evening of any life so dark that the dimmed eye of Age, sightless though it be to all things present, does not fix and fasten upon that far off Auroral Brightness? How easily are we thus by observation and experience brought to believe that

"Heaven lies about us in our infancy."

If thus pure and precious and permanent are the impressions of childhood, how inappreciably important the character of the agents that produce them! The parent, the *mother*, is the first natural observant of these glimpses of a higher nature; how easily we can excuse that beautiful superstition which teaches her that the smiles of her sleeping infant are "gleams of fairy visitings or angel ministrations."

If the mind were as Locke and others of that school supposed, like a sheet of paper on which might be inscribed whatever characters we pleased, how immeasurably important that an intelligent artist should be selected who had studied long and well, not only the mysteries of his art but the precepts of its great masters! But far different is the mind from being a passive recipient of ideas, it is rather "a germ with distinct tendencies folded up within it." The earliest unfolding of this germ, the virtuous and intelligent mother, watches and fosters—

"Till, fold after fold, to the fainting air,
The soul of its beauty and love lays bare."

Too soon by the force of circumstances, the child is removed from maternal guidance and faithfulness, and placed under the care of the schoolmaster. Shall that most "sensitive plant" blossom with culture or droop by neglect—shall it expand in part and be blighted in part—shall it grow up with noxious excrescences, unsightly distortions, or exhibit the graceful proportions of symmetrical beauty? Under God, these are questions that for answer depend almost wholly upon the character, the qualifications of the teacher.

Taking such a child, from such a mother, an intelligent teacher would aim by *suggestive* education to carry the mental and moral powers from one process of development to another. The vicious child of a neglectful or immoral mother, would require an opposite training; conscience would need first to be awakened, enlightened and invigorated—first to cultivate the intellect of such a child, would produce a knave, if not a worse offender.

The day is fast approaching when the intelligent, thoughtful parent will no longer entrust his child with a teacher who is incapable or incompetent of making these discriminations. The importance of having these germs of immortal existence nurtured and matured by safe and skilful hands, is beginning to be realized. If such are not found in the common school, resort will be had to the high school, the select school or the academy.

Aside from any moral or intellectual considerations in behalf of his child, the parent will be governed—he is—by economical considerations. The teacher that can in four months or a year, advance a school as much as another teacher will be able to in eight or twenty-four months, will be sought after; if he is found in the public school, the public school will be patronized; if *only* at the high or select school, then *such* school will be patronized at the expense of the common school. As stated in another part of this report, the normal teacher in Massachusetts is found on trial to be able to put a school forward much more rapidly than teachers who have not had equal advantages. And must there not be something in having *trained* teachers in schools to accomplish such results? How else is it that at 14 years of age the Prussian scholar is discharged from school with attainments far superior to those our youth of 16 years possesses?

This large saving of time, of clothes, of books, of school money, will not, does not, escape the observant eye.

Motives of public economy, besides the *imperative* necessity and obligation of doing something to bring the public schools up to the select and high schools, require that we should in earnest set about taking the incipient steps to obtain a permanent supply of competent teachers.

The committee do not indulge an expectation that an adequate supply of well-trained teachers for our schools can be furnished in a very brief period; this, whenever undertaken, and under the most favorable auspices, must be the slow work of *years*.

As already seen in a former part of this report, the State long ago set apart a specific fund for educating the teachers of its common schools. The plan adopted to ensure such education had so failed of of the object that the Regents of the University last year, suspended all appropriations in aid of it. There now remains in the treasury, unexpended last year, the sum of \$4,800; at the end of the current year, unless otherwise appropriated, there will be an equal additional sum. The wisdom and forecast of former legislation, having made an appropriation, the revenue, of which this annual sum of \$4,800 constitutes a part, to educate common school teachers — no one, it is presumed will have the hardihood to seek to resume for the state the use of it for general purposes, or to divert it to any other object, however meritori-

ous, than that of educating teachers, nor can it reasonably be expected that the Regents will restore it to the teachers' departments.

Having then in the treasury available means that in good faith can be appropriated in furtherance of but one object, the committee believe they do no wrong to other institutions, and least of all to the "specific fund" itself, but rather best subserve the first great object of that fund, in recommending that the aggregate of these sums, \$9,600, be appropriated to establish a *Normal school* for the education and training of teachers for the common schools. After the present year the annual sum of \$10,000 is recommended to be appropriated from the Literature Fund in support of this institution. This amount will not be regarded as too large, when it is borne in mind that it is desirable that accommodations should be made for from 150 to 200 pupils: that if suitable buildings are furnished, there will be serious items for furniture, blackboards, apparatus, text-books: salaries of three or four assistant-teachers and one principal will require a very considerable amount. But after meeting all such expenses and charges, the committee indulge the hope that the appropriation will not be so far exhausted that those charged with the general superintendence of the school will have no means left to make a weekly allowance towards the maintenance of one class of pupils.

It is not the result of gallantry or of that complaisant homage which in every refined and christian nation is the accorded due of the female sex, that has given to the sex an unequivocal preference in teaching and controlling the young. It is not superior science, but superior skill in the use of that science, it is the manner and the very weakness of the teacher that constitutes her strength, that ensures her success. For that occupation she is endowed with peculiar faculties; while man's nature is rough, stern, impatient, ambitious — hers is gentle, tender, enduring, unaspiring. One always wins, the other sometimes repels; the one is loved, the other sometimes feared. Kindness and quickness of apprehension, frank sympathy with the young, endear and attach, and when the scholar's confidence and attachment are once gained, he is henceforth easily taught and governed.

In childhood the intellectual faculties are but partially developed, the affections are much more fully; at that early age the affections are the key of the whole being; it must be possessed before the understanding can be opened to the easy ingress of knowledge. The female

teacher readily possesses herself of that key, and thus having access to the heart, the mind is soon reached and operated upon; while the male teacher seeks, in direct approaches to the understanding, to implant scientific truth. Here we have the solution of the problem — of the superior success of female teachers with small scholars; although thus resolved the *cause* will remain while the different natures and temperaments of the two sexes remain. One of the distinctive characteristics above hinted, deserves a further remark; that while the habits of female teachers are better, their morals purer, they are much more apt to be content with, and continue in the occupation of teaching. It is an employment to which, as already said, they are peculiarly adapted, and wherever they have attempted they have generally succeeded. In Massachusetts where females have been most employed, they have been most appreciated. In the winter and summer schools, 6,715 teachers were last year employed, 4,301 of whom were *females*; in 1841, of 6,503 teachers, 4,112 were females; showing a gradual increase. As already seen at the Barre and Bridgewater institutions, where both sexes were received, and where *only* such were admitted as signified that it was their intention to teach, the number of females over males preponderated more than three to one.

As they will be more 'apt to teach' when educated, more likely to continue in the employment, ask and receive less wages than males, the committee believe the State should hold out some inducement to females, perhaps to the number of two-thirds of all the pupils admitted who have attained the age of 16 years complete, and who are physically and morally and intellectually properly constituted to become teachers, and who shall signify it to be their intention so to do — to spend a year or more at the Normal School.

The different counties should be entitled to send pupils to the school in the same proportion they are represented in the Assembly; the county superintendents associating with the first judge of the county, might, perhaps, safely be entrusted with the power of recommending pupils; it being understood that no one would be received until examined, or continued after being admitted unless commendable proficiency was made in the science and in the practice of teaching.

The terms of admission, the course and duration of study, the testimonials to be given on the completion of the course, and finally all the detail of regulations to organize and govern such an institution, may

better be left to the deliberation and sound judgment of those under whose supervision and control the whole subject matter is placed, than an attempt be made to particularize them in a report, or digst them into a legislative enactment.

It will be noticed that the committee speak of the establishment of *one* normal school; did our present means seem to warrant it, the committee would with confidence recommend the immediate establishment of *at least one* in each of the eight senatorial districts; if one is now established, and that is properly endowed and organized, there cannot be a *doubt* that not only one will be called for in each of the Senate districts, but in a brief period very many of the large counties will insist upon having one established within their limits. The establishment of *one* is but an *experiment*—if that can be called an *experiment* which for more than a century has been in operation *without a known failure*—which, if successful, will lead the way for several others. It is believed that several of the academies now in operation can and will be speedily converted into normal seminaries, when the period arrives for the rapid improvement of education; in this way there will be no loss of academic investment, and the great interests of the public will be as well or better subserved than they are at present.

The committee believe the “experiment” should be tried at the capital; if it cannot be tested in the presence of all the people, it should be before all the representatives of the people. As a government measure it is untried in this State; the result therefore will be of deep interest.* Here at each annual session of the Legislature, can be seen for what and how the public money is expended; here can be seen the exhibitions of the pupils of the seminary and of the model school; here, if unsuccessful, no report of interested officials can cover up its failure, or prevent the abandonment of the experiment; here citizens from all parts of the State, who resort to the capital during the session of the Legislature, the terms of the courts, &c., can have an opportunity of examining the working of the normal school system, of learning the best methods of teaching, and all the improvements in the science and practice of the art; those who in the spring and autumn pass

* The committee are aware that the public schools in New-York owe much of their success and celebrity to teachers *trained* in normal schools in that city; that a school for educating teachers for some few weeks in each of the last two years, has been kept up in the county of Fulton. As *private enterprises* such efforts are praiseworthy, but they cannot supply the place—possess the influence or produce the effect of a *central government* institution.

through the city and from the Great Metropolis, those who from all parts of the Union make their annual pilgrimage to the Fountains of Health, will pause here to see what the Empire State is doing to promote and improve the education of her people.

In confirmation of the views of the committee as to the eligibility of this location, one of several authorities must suffice. The able and popular treatise of the School and Schoolmaster asks, * "Why not plant a teachers' seminary or normal school, sufficient to accommodate one or two hundred pupils, at the capital, where it can be overlooked by the officer who has been charged by law with the superintendence of primary instruction, and where it can be visited by members of the Legislature, strangers and others, thus sending its influence to the remotest extremities of the State, and even of the nation."

If located here, it would be as easy of access for pupils from all parts, as any selection that could be made; here it could be placed under the direction of the Superintendent of Common Schools and of the Regents of the University; if located elsewhere, a new class of officers must be created to take charge of the institution.

One objection of considerable force may be urged against the location, increased expense of subsistence in the city, over the country; that has not been found an obstacle in the way of the prosperity of, and large attendance at, the Medical College and Female Academy of this city, and at several institutions of literature and science in New-York. Perhaps, as more than an equivalent offset to this objection, the committee are authorized to say, if a normal school is established and located here that buildings and rooms suitable to accommodate the institution will be provided without subjecting the State to any additional expense.

In concluding this long report, the committee would fain ask, is there no responsibility resting upon *this* Legislature to do something to lessen some of the evils of our school system? Is there no obligation resting upon us to make at least an *effort* to renovate the schools—to supply them with competent teachers? Can we adjourn, having filled a volume with private and local bills, without yielding a pittance of our time to consider, and perfect and pass an act of vital interest to the right education—the well being—of more than 600,000 of the children

* Page 249. Vide also Superintendents' Reports, 1844, page 636.

of this State? Have none of us read and felt as that noble Prussian expressed himself: "I promised God that I would look upon every Prussian peasant as a being who could complain of me before God, if I did not provide for him the best education, as a man and a christian, which it was possible for me to provide?"*

"When education is to be *rapidly* advanced," says president Basche, "*seminaries for teachers* afford the means of securing this result." Do we not owe it to the too long neglected children—do we not owe it to the State itself—do we not owe it to our whole country—that these "approved means" for the rapid advance of the best education—should at once be prepared?

"Duties rising out of good possessed,
And prudent caution needful to avert
Impending evil, equally require
That the whole people should be taught and trained.
So shall licentiousness and black resolve
Be rooted out, and virtuous habits take
Their place; and genuine piety descend
Like an inheritance from age to age."

The committee ask leave to introduce the following bill.

* Dinter.

AN ACT

For the establishment of a Normal School.

The People of the State of New-York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows :

SECTION 1. The Treasurer shall pay on the warrant of the Comptroller, to the order of the Superintendent of Common Schools, from that portion of the avails of the Literature Fund, appropriated by chapter two hundred and forty-one, of the laws of one thousand eight hundred and forty-three, to the support of the academical department for the instruction of teachers of common schools, the sum of nine thousand six hundred dollars ; which sum shall be expended under the direction of the Superintendent of Common Schools and the Regents of the University, or any six of them, in the establishment and support of a normal school for the instruction and practice of teachers of common schools in the science of education and in the art of teaching, to be located in the city of Albany.

§ 2. The sum of ten thousand dollars shall, after the present year, be annually paid by the Treasurer on the warrant of the Comptroller, to the Superintendent of Common Schools, from the revenue of the Literature Fund, for the maintenance and support of the school so established.

§ 3. The said Institution shall be under the government and management of the Superintendent of Common Schools and of the Regents aforesaid, any six of whom, with the Superintendent, shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business ; and they shall annually report to the Legislature a full account of all their expenditures and proceedings under this act, and of the condition of the institution.