AMERICA
Builds a SCHOOL SYSTEM

Short History of Education in the United States
or Later Elementary and Junior High School Students

Bulletin 1941, No. 12

DERAL SECURITY AGENCY
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U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION
John W. Studebaker, Commissioner

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FOREWORD

THIS BULLETIN represents an innovation in U. S. Office of Education procedures in the writing of publications, since it has been produced by the cooperative effort of 12 students at Kent State University in Kent, Ohio, and their instructor in English. Because of the many requests from seventh- and eighth-grade rural school pupils for a brief history of education, it was thought desirable to have such a manuscript written simply rather than technically. This purpose the group of students has kept in mind. Acknowledgment is made to:

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Berta Kernen
Frances Keyser
Harry Miller
Jacqueline Miller
Hazel Williams

who were group authors of the publication; and to Berta Kernen and Luise Reitzel who with their instructor, Wilma Leslie Garnett, Associate Professor of English, edited the manuscript.

Acknowledgment is also due the various specialists in the U. S. Office of Education who reviewed certain sections to check the accuracy and completeness of statements made; to Sabra W. Vought for review of the manuscript; to Edith A. Wright who checked some of the historical statements and who selected the pictures for sections I and II; and to Helen K. Mackintosh who had general supervision of the project and who prepared the manuscript for publication.

It has been possible to add to the interest of the bulletin through the use of a large number of pictures from various sources. Courtesy lines identify these, with the exception of illustrations appearing on the cover. The one at the top of the cover is the interior of a schoolroom about 1840, by R. F. Heinrich, used through the courtesy of the National Life Insurance Company; the modern school at the bottom of the cover is used through the courtesy of the public schools of Grand Rapids, Mich.

It is hoped that this publication will fulfill its purpose by stimulating in young people, especially, an interest in the public schools of this country as a product of many years, made possible through the efforts of many different people.

BESS GOODYKOONTZ,
Assistant U. S. Commissioner of Education.

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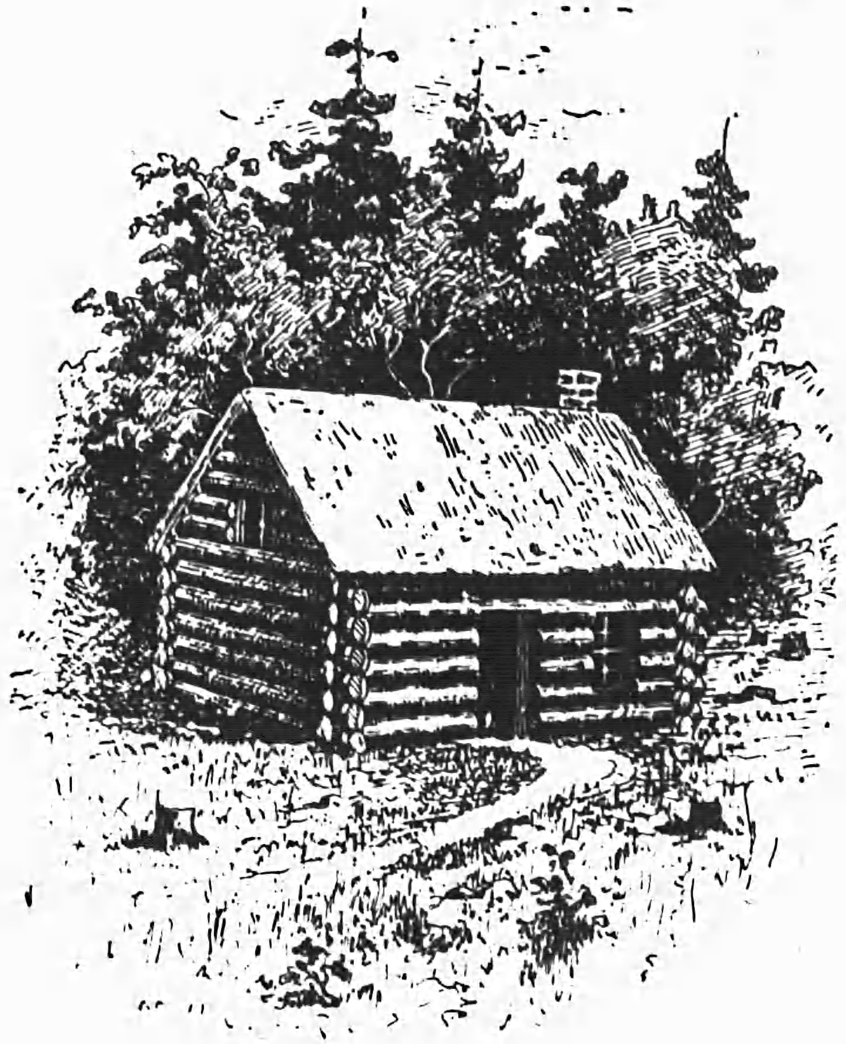

1795

LOG SCHOOL HOUSE.

From the centennial chart of the New York Department of Public Instruction, 1895.

INTRODUCTION

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE of today are indebted to many people of long ago for the public schools of their country. Many are the years it has taken to develop the public-school system that Americans know. A long time ago, in the Colonial Period of American history, to be exact, our national ancestors laid the foundation of a school system for rich and poor of all ages.

In this bulletin, *America Builds a School System*, we present the story of how schools came into being in these United States of America.

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I. THE AMERICAN COLONISTS AND OLD WORLD BELIEFS ABOUT EDUCATION

IT WAS 1500, the time for adventure. A new world, just discovered, was calling daring Englishmen, inquiring Scotchmen, and trading Dutchmen to come to it and establish a civilization offering new opportunities to men and women of courage. The new region beckoned the restless with its promise of riches, offered freedom to the oppressed, and promised security to the poor—to all, in fact, who could make the hazardous ocean voyage and have courage enough to break into a wilderness and begin life anew. By 1600, many people from the British Isles, Holland, and France had responded to the call from the continent of North America.

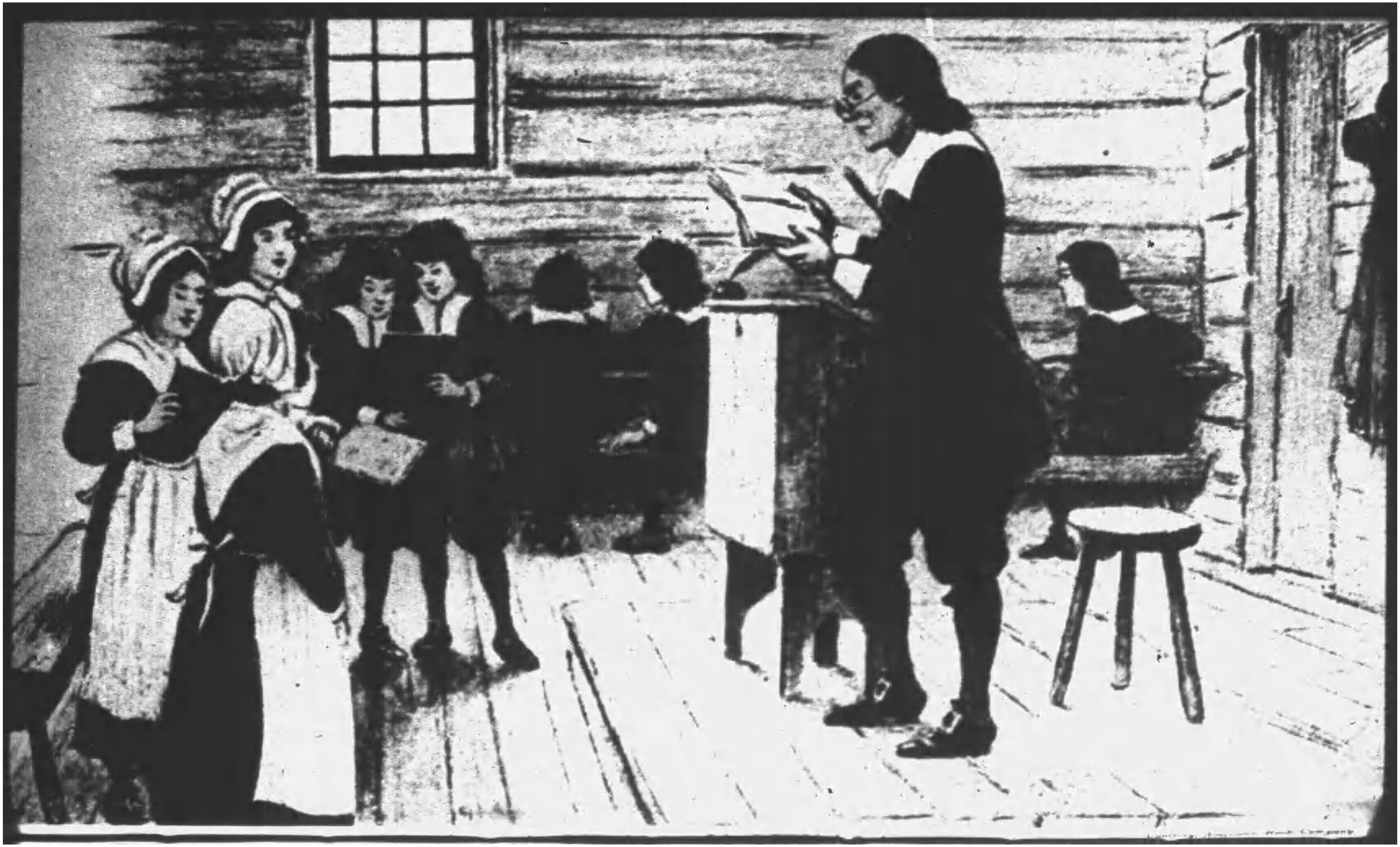
When did the American colonists first think about schools?

Soon after the colonists had become established in their new land, they felt the need for universal education. They came to believe that a nation could not grow and prosper as they wished theirs to do unless the majority of the people could be educated.

These colonists brought with them Old World traditions and ideals which were to go into the foundation for a new nation. English beliefs about education were mingled with ideas from Holland and Scotland as the schools were established. The church and the trades had supervised the educational program in England; the church had been the power influencing education in Holland, while the state had supported the school systems; both church and state had directed the program in Scotland. When the colonists began to plan schools, they gathered together ideas from many countries and followed Old World traditions in setting up the systems used for a long time in the various colonies. These traditions molded the educational ideals in America and a great public school system was the result.

Did every child go to school in the early days?

From the beginning, the colonists were determined to give their children some education. By 1642, the people of Massachusetts were demanding that the "selectmen" of each town be responsible for seeing that all children in the town be taught to read, to understand religion, to obey the laws, and to do some useful work. The education could be given in the homes or in the village school. In the early days of our country, the American Colonies were merely extensions of Europe



across the Atlantic Ocean. The American colonist, just as the Englishman, the Dutchman, or the Scot, believed that there were only two ways to become educated if one were poor: By being trained at home, or by becoming an apprentice. The wealthy did have a third choice. If a rich man wished his son to be educated, he sent him to a school. In the lower schools for the rich, the boy was taught, as his most important subject, the reading, writing, and speaking of Latin. With this knowledge, he could enter a university and perhaps be trained there for a profession. The chief work of these schools was to turn out polished young gentlemen.

Why couldn't everyone go to school?

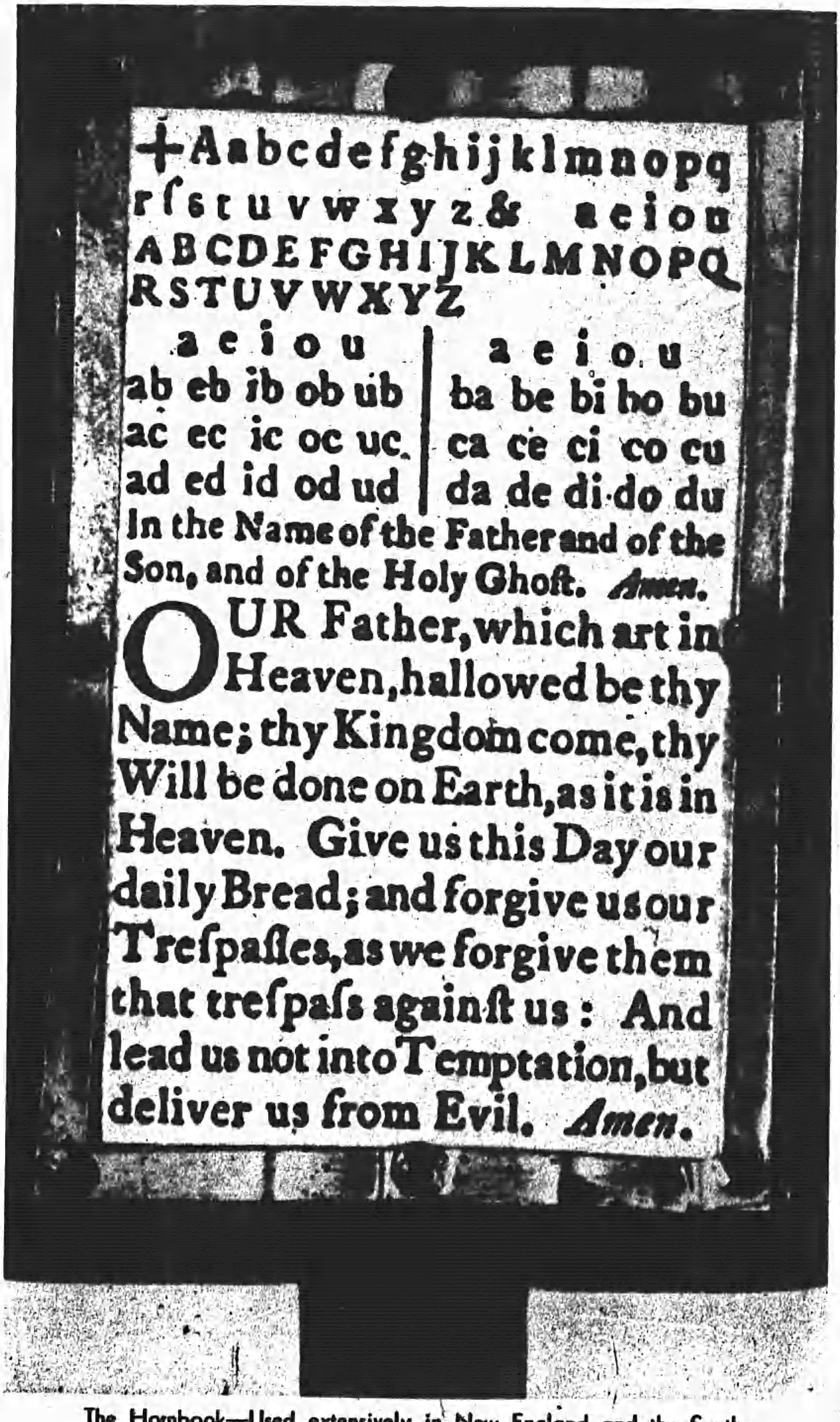
The era of colonial education is perhaps the most picturesque and interesting that this country has yet seen. At least to the modern student it would seem so. With its log-cabin schoolhouses, hornbooks, stern schoolmasters, and many pranks, it makes a dramatic appeal to the present-day student. One must remember, however, that all was not "rosy" for the student in early times. He did not know from one day to the next whether the townspeople had provided enough money to furnish him with a teacher and a schoolhouse. The idea of general education had not at first met with widespread approval in the Colonies. Many parents would rather have had their sons at home working—cutting down trees or ploughing in the fields—than attending school learning the three R's. It even became necessary for some town fathers to levy penalty taxes on all towns not having schools; and it is hard to believe, but true, that some towns actually paid those taxes rather than offer education to their own children. It took money to go to school in colonial times. Tuition fees were an accepted part of the plan for financing education in nearly all the old towns. As a result, in many parts of the country only the children of the well-to-do were able to attend schools beyond the primary or dame school.

What was the dame school?

Most communities had at least a dame school, that is, a school taught by some woman in the town who could give children instruction in reading and spelling. These schools were for the younger children. While the dame heard her pupils read their primers, she often busied herself with knitting or spinning.

What kinds of books did colonial children have?

As to materials for learning, they were limited. Books in early New England schools were a luxury. The hornbook was the beginner's chief aid in learning to read. It was a bit of printed paper fastened to a thin board. This board with its printed paper was named "hornbook" because of the thin sheet of transparent horn placed over the printed



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In the Name of the Father and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghoſt. *Amen.*

OUR Father, which art in Heaven, hallowed be thy Name; thy Kingdom come, thy Will be done on Earth, as it is in Heaven. Give us this Day our daily Bread; and forgive us our Treſpaſſes, as we forgive them that treſpaſs againſt us: And lead us not into Temptation, but deliver us from Evil. *Amen.*

The Hornbook—Used extensively in New England and the South.

page to keep it clean. The alphabet, capital letters, and small letters were printed on the paper, followed by religious passages including the Lord's Prayer. The mainstay of all older students was, of course, the *Bible*, and these early students lived, studied, and worked by the *Bible* with due reverence. Some spelling books were used. Clifton Johnson says:

> The earliest spelling-book was Coote's, *The English School-Master*, a thin quarto of 72 pages, first published in 1596. It continued to be extraordinarily popular for over a century. According to the title-page, "he which hath this Book only, needeth to buy no other to make him fit from his Letters to the Grammar-School, or for an Apprentice." Besides spelling, it contained arithmetic, history, writing lessons, prayers, psalms, and a short catechism. To add to the intricacy, much of the text was printed in Old English black letter.[1]

During the 1700's the stern schoolmaster might have swaggered into the classroom, with a, "Hrumph," and then have rapped heavily on his desk for order. There would have been a noisy scramble of boys and books, as the command was obeyed. Out of the desks might have appeared, as if by magic, one of the most famous American textbooks of the time, the *New England Primer*. It was a little book of 88 pages, only 3¼ inches wide and 4½ inches long. In those days the alphabet had to be mastered before one could read; therefore, verses were taken from the *Bible* to illustrate the letters. The students pored over the two catechisms in the famous *Primer* until they almost knew parts of the *Bible* by heart. In this book, the *New England Primer*, there were two pages of "Easy Syllables for Children" which happened to be a list of spelling words. The 88 pages were completed with more verses, poems, and selections from the *Scriptures*.

How did the colonial children write their lessons?

Pens made of goose quills, home-made ink, and some rough, dark paper were used as aids to learning. When paper was scarce, sums were written on birch bark. Children ruled the paper that was used. Colonial children, even with these crude materials, seemed to learn to write very well—better than many children of today. There were no blackboards in the earliest schools. When blackboards were introduced, slates came, too, about 1809. Lead pencils came even later.

The arithmetic books of that day were very difficult. The work was not simplified. The pupils had to get their education the hard way. The academies boasted of Morse's *American Universal Geography* as soon as sciences were ~~taught.~~ *Lily's Latin Grammar* and many of the original works of Greek and Roman writers were read every day in the schools. The study of the Hebrew language, how-

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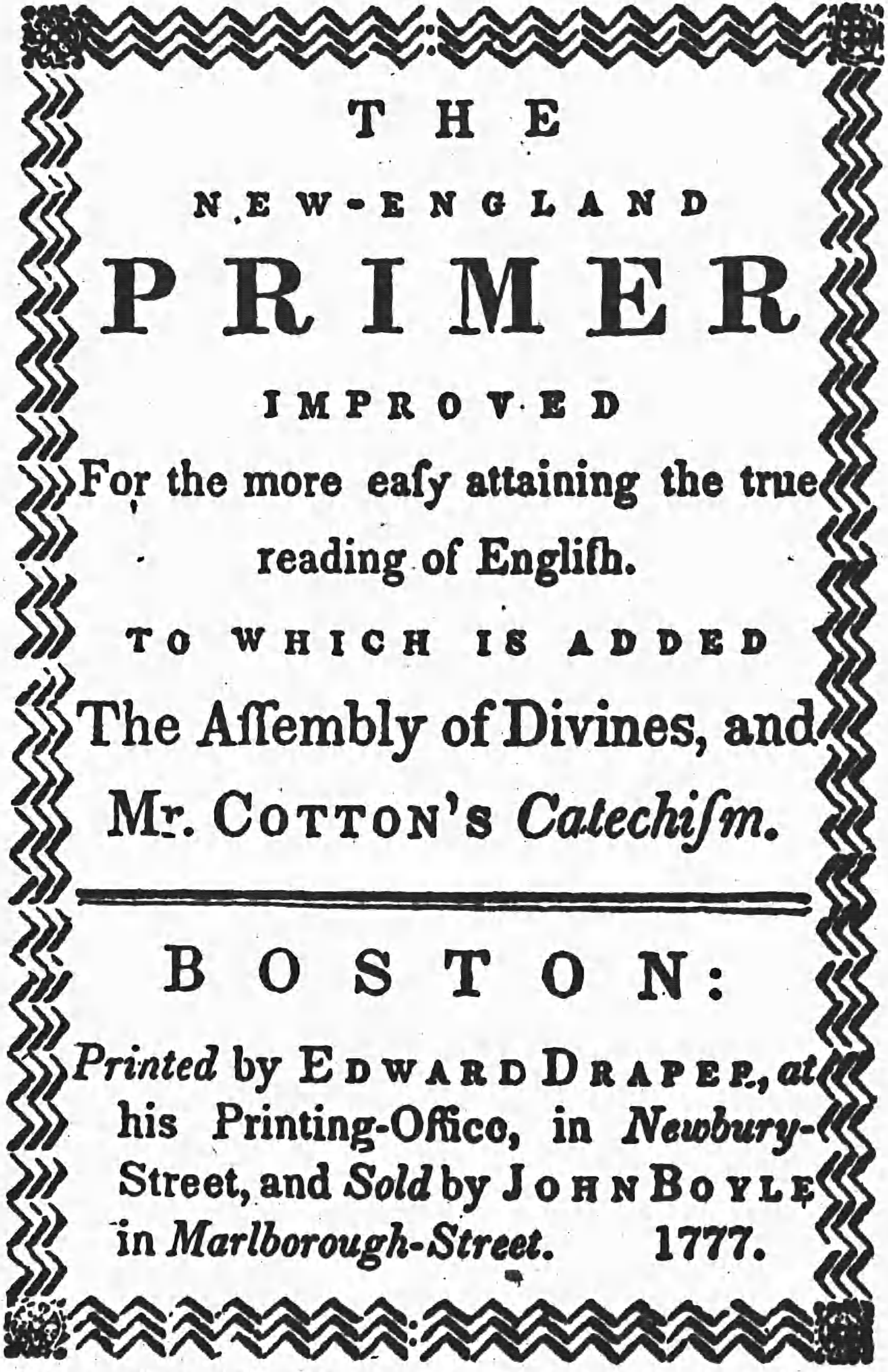
[1] Johnson, Clifton, *Old-time Schools and School-books.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1904. p. 20, 22.



THE

NEW-ENGLAND

PRIMER

IMPROVED

For the more eaſy attaining the true
reading of Engliſh.

TO WHICH IS ADDED

The Aſſembly of Divines, and
Mr. COTTON's *Catechiſm*.

BOSTON:

Printed by EDWARD DRAPER, *at*
his Printing-Office, in *Newbury-*
Street, and *Sold* by JOHN BOYLE
in *Marlborough-Street*. 1777.

Title-page of one of the earliest American editions of the New England Primer.

ever, was considered slightly advanced for even the academies. It was usually taught in the universities and colleges. There were countless grammars written for the eighteenth century youth; such as Webster's *Grammatical Institute of the English Language* and Caleb Bingham's *Young Ladies' Accidence*. (An "accidence" relates to words and their inflections, in this case, the very foundations of grammar.)

What about the schoolmaster?

And now we come to the schoolmaster. The colonial schoolmaster was just as much a part of education as the schoolhouse, the hornbook, and the quill. He was much more picturesque. Perhaps these teachers had not been paid enough to enable them to buy much food; they were often tall and skinny. Many of the first teachers probably received their education at Harvard, if they received any formal education at all. Most of the teachers of that time were ministers, who lived by the *Bible* and expected their pupils to do the same. Most of these men could quote the *Bible* at great length, and were always presenting stories of the evils of loafing and other vices. Teachers firmly believed in the old adage, "Spare the rod and spoil the child." And you may be sure that they spoiled very few. Don't get the idea that the school of colonial times was merely a factory which turned out students after long, hard hours of study and perseverance reenforced by punishments. There were many schools in which the process of learning was a pleasant one—for the most part.

Perhaps the best description which we have of a schoolmaster is found in *Old-Time Schools and Schoolbooks*, by Clifton Johnson, who quotes from Sylvester Judd's *Margaret* thus:

> He wore a three-cornered hat. His coat descended in long, square skirts, quite to the calves of his legs. He had on nankeen small-clothes, white silk stockings, paste knee and shoe buckles. His waistcoat was of yellow embossed silk with long lappels. The sleeves and skirts of his coat were garnished with rows of silver buttons. He wore ruffle cuffs; on his neck was a snow-white linen stock. Under his hat appeared a gray wig falling in rolls over his shoulders. He had on a pair of turquoise-shell spectacles. A golden-headed cane was thrust under his arm.[3]

Another description offered by Alexander Graydon is of a certain Scot, by name Beveridge. Of him he says:

> Various were the rogueries that were played upon him; but the most audacious of all was the following. At the hour of convening in the afternoon (that being the most convenient, from the circumstance of Mr. Beveridge being usually a little beyond the time) the bell having rung, the ushers being at their posts, and the scholars arranged in their classes, three or four of the conspirators conceal themselves without for the purpose of observing

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[3] Ibid, p. 41.

> the motions of their victim. He arrives, enters the school, and is permitted to proceed until he is supposed to have nearly reached his chair at the upper end of the room, when instantly the door and every window-shutter is closed. Now, shrouded in utter darkness, the most hideous yells that can be conceived are sent forth from at least three score of throats; and Ovids and Virgils and Horaces, together with the more heavy metal of dictionaries, are hurled without remorse at the astonished preceptor, who, groping and crawling under cover of the forms, makes the best of his way to the door. When attained, and light restored, a death-like silence ensues. Every boy is at his lesson; no one has had a hand or a voice in the recent atrocity. What, then, is to be done? and who shall be chastised?[3]

How were the earliest schools supported?

At first early schools were supported by gifts from the well-to-do, rentals from school lands, tuition fees, and taxes. The pay given the teachers was usually very small, averaging about $70 a year. Often a part of the salary was paid in grain or other farm produce.

From these informal beginnings, better schools grew. School laws became necessary. A general school law was passed by Massachusetts in 1647. The law required the township of 50 families to appoint a teacher for the children, whose wages were to be paid by the parents, masters, or citizens in general, as the community desired. The town of 100 families was to provide a grammar school to prepare students for university. The Massachusetts university referred to in the law of 1647 was Harvard. This Massachusetts law ordered, furthermore, that any town of 100 families that did not establish a grammar school should pay a penalty of 5 pounds. This penalty was afterwards increased to 10 pounds and later to 20 pounds if the town had 200 families. A town of 500 families was required to maintain two grammar schools and two writing schools. This law continued in force although it was unpopular and often disregarded until the law of 1789 lightened the burden of the penalty.

Why did the schools seem so religious?

The importance of the church to education cannot be stressed too much. The Latin grammar schools and the universities were controlled by it. A schoolmaster even had to take an oath of faith before he was allowed to teach. The universities directed the life of that time; they led the thought. Everyone respected these higher schools, and no one doubted the efficiency of direction from the church; that is, no one but the colonists who differed as to *which* church should do the directing. Because the Puritans were zealous about having their own religion taught in the schools, they used their law to force the townships to pay for the services of Puritan schoolmasters.

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[3] Ibid, p. 43.

When did free schools come into existence?

As it became increasingly difficult to collect tuition fees, pupils were allowed to come to school free; and thus the idea of free public schools was born. The poor people favored these free schools, but the wealthy opposed them, especially the wealthy who had no children. Free schools did not become the community rule until long after 1700. The claim has been made that New Amsterdam (now called New York) had one of the first *free* schools (1633); but its first school was a public school in only a limited way.

What towns were first to have public schools?

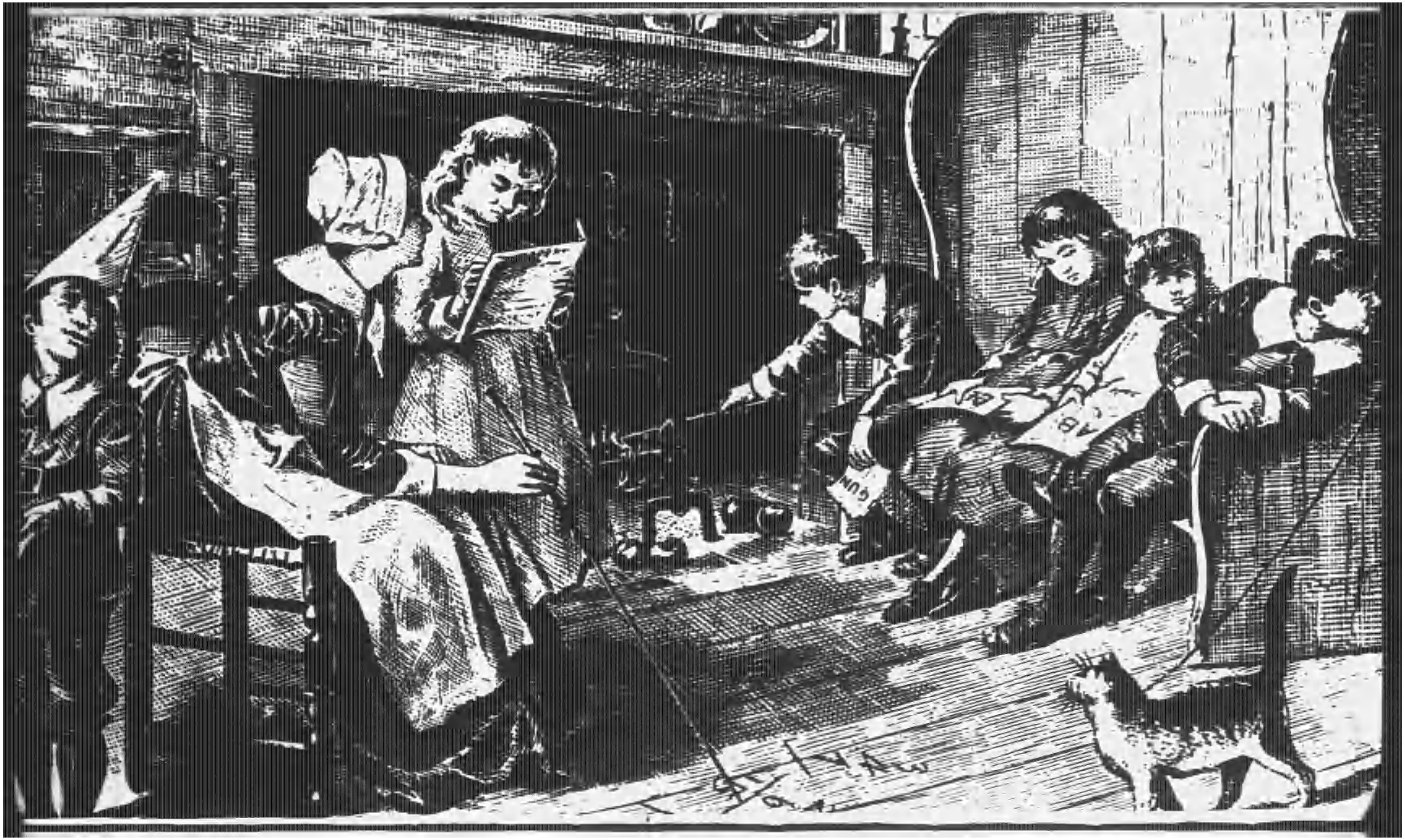
One of the first towns to have a public school supported by general taxation was Dedham, Mass. (1648). A regular schoolhouse was built there, including a little sentinel tower. The master was permitted to keep his school in his own house in the cold winter and in the meeting house or church in summer. In many places, schools were held in the churches. Buildings of logs or crude timbers, furnished with rough, backless benches, were heated by wood-burning fireplaces. The school fireplaces consumed many logs in the cold winter weather. These schools were for the children of 1650–1700. Other northern colonies patterned after Massachusetts in holding schools in almost any convenient place.

Where did the poor children go to school before there were public schools?

The system of education through apprenticeships which had grown up in England and in other parts of the Old World was adopted as a major part of the educational plan by those colonists who settled what is now known as the New England, New York, and Pennsylvania regions.

Under this system anyone who wished to become a printer, a tailor, a baker, or any other type of skilled worker, had to serve under the teaching, guidance, and will of someone already engaged in the desired business or profession. This person was father, mother, brother, chastiser, and teacher for the apprentice, all in one. The reason for such a system was simple. It took money to go to school or college in colonial times and since many people did not have the necessary funds, they sent their sons to friends who were in business. For 7 years a young apprentice boy worked without pay. He was responsible to that person to whom he was apprenticed and saw little of his family until his apprentice years had been completed and he had learned the trade.

But the man who took apprentices had obligations, too. He had to feed his pupil and furnish him with two suits of clothes, one suit for work and the other for Sunday. The master had to teach, train, and



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discipline the person under his care so that at the end of the 7 years the young man who had come to him could take his place in the chosen industry. The colonists made special use of the apprentice system in which the master was ever the director of the learner and saw to it that the lads under his care obeyed him to the letter. The apprentice plan is important in the history of education because it helped the poorer children to learn trades. With the introduction of public education in later years, however, the apprentice system died out. This was the beginning of our industrial or vocational education.

Were Southern schools like the New England schools?

"Way down South" in the early eighteenth century the Church of England sponsored a large part of the educational system. There was a society in the church that supported many charity schools for the children of the servants and slaves on the great plantations. This organization was called The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, but that name was shortened to S. P. G. Free schools or endowed schools also were provided for the poor; at least, charges of tuition were not necessary. In fact, not only was the master given his living, but sometimes even a few of the students were taken care of. Rich plantation owners often sent their children to private schools. These schools were set up in the various parishes in Virginia. The parents of the children paid tuition for having reading, writing, and ciphering taught.

Did colonial children go to higher schools?

Everyone who went to an advanced school in the 1600's and the 1700's was sure to come out with a thorough knowledge of Latin. But this should not be at all surprising since for a long time Latin grammar schools were almost the only ones the colonists had that resembled our modern high schools. Latin was the chief subject taught. Sometimes a little English was taught by an usher, the master's helper. Usually the mysteries of English grammar were left for the children's parents to explain. If the parents decided they did not enjoy playing teacher, they were occasionally taken into court and easily persuaded.

How long was the school day in early times?

In these early days sleepy students had to reach school by 7 o'clock. The school day was from 7 in the morning to 5 in the afternoon during the 7 warmer months of the year. But in the cold, dark winter months the schoolmasters began classes at 8 and dismissed them at 4. Every day there was a recess from 11 to 1, except on Monday, when studies were dropped from 11 to 12. Blue Monday! And no doubt about it! It was then that the master examined his scholars on what they had learned and punished those who had been "bad." "The rod of correction is a rule of God," was a firmly fixed belief in the minds of many schoolmasters. How those schoolmasters obeyed the teachings!

Who were the teachers of the older children in the eighteenth century?

The conditions in the early 1700's were much the same as those of the latter part of the 1600's. The teacher remained the same honest, God-fearing person (with some exceptions of course) whose chief duty it was to instruct his charges in religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic. Not all the teachers of this period were high-minded, but most of them were. Records show that one Dutch schoolmaster was tried for drinking, slander, and other forms of misconduct. Many of the teachers of the time were men, usually employed for their ability to keep order. Women taught only the younger children in schools known as the dame schools. Teachers were given very little training, if any. The qualifications of most teachers included their ability to *keep* school regardless of what they taught.

Where were the better teachers educated in the eighteenth century?

As time went on conditions improved. Some of the more fortunate villages boasted Harvard or Yale students as teachers. The pay in the profession was very small; not many people desired to become teachers. The duties of the teacher ranged from those of janitor of his own schoolhouse to preacher for the church when the local parson was absent. Most of the teachers of the early Latin grammar schools had been educated in England. They were not only college graduates, but also experienced men in their profession. Harvard University supplied good teachers for the Colonies. Of course, the schoolmasters had to know their Latin, but they also had to be expert pen makers. If the teacher couldn't make or mend the students' goose-quill pens, he was considered a failure at his profession.

Can you picture spending a day in a Latin grammar school like the one given in the motion picture, *The Howards of Virginia?*

The master of the Southern Latin grammar school, dressed in black, entered the schoolroom. Immediately there was a scuffle and then an expectant hush. The young boys within had scattered to their respective seats, snatched up their Latin books, and then were gazing guiltily at the intruder. The person who silently sat down at the teacher's desk was not a pretty young miss nor a delightfully soft-hearted older miss. Never! The teacher was a stern, middle-aged man.

All this was happening in Virginia while Indian uprisings were being squelched in Ohio. That day war stories had been filling the heads of those boys instead of Latin translations. As a result, their master happened upon a scene in which Matthew Howard, one of the boys of the school, was excitingly describing a battle. The silence became unbearable. The boys began to squirm. Slowly the schoolmaster opened his book. He selected the page and the section to be studied. When he assigned it to his class, there was a nervous leafing of pages. Then silence!

"Scan the first sentence, Master Howard," said the master, finally choosing a victim, the suspected ringleader of the disorder.

A boy of about 12 years arose rather unsteadily. He gulped and looked blankly at his open book.

"Go on," the schoolmaster urged mercilessly.

"*Quicquam*," stammered Matt. "*Quicquam* ———."

He struggled through the rest of the sentence, then sat down with a sigh of relief. But he was not to remain relieved. The schoolmaster continued to direct his glare at the young culprit.

"Now translate," he said. It was like a death sentence.

Master Howard stood up again and began to translate: "Who—who———."

The master increased the force of his glare. In order to save his good friend, Thomas Jefferson (one day to become President of our country) prompted, "Whatever." But poor Matthew misunderstood him, and lamely began with: "Where or when ———."

At this point the schoolmaster intervened.

"Whatever you do," he bellowed, "do with all your might. Come up here, Master Howard."

The boy got up.

"Bring that piece of paper with you. The one everyone was so deeply interested in before I came in."

Taking the paper from Matt, he looked at it and questioned its meaning. Matthew told his teacher about the Indians in Ohio and how the Virginians were defeating them. But the schoolmaster was not satisfied.

"Turn around," he commanded.

The master reached a strong arm for a bunch of switches. Thoroughly angry at Master Howard, he lashed the boy. In measured strokes he beat him with the switches, repeating: "Whatever you do, do with all your might."

Such was one Latin class eighteenth century boys attended, as shown in the motion picture, *The Howards of Virginia*.

How did the public schools come about?

While the Puritans had complete control of early education in New England, there was a mixture of different church groups in the Middle Colonies (that is, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia) and no one sect was in control of all of the schools. At first the State governments did nothing about public education, but depended upon the various churches and private agencies to provide for the education of the children. Each church group did as it wished.

In some of the Colonies, particularly in Virginia, there was a belief that free public education was intended for orphans and poor children only, and that children of the upper and middle classes should be taught in private schools, where they paid tuition, or in their own homes by private tutors. These colonists believed that the education of the poor children was a matter of church charity and was no affair of the State. The church schools for poor children were called pauper schools and were very unpopular with the majority of the people, especially those who could not afford to send their children to other schools and did not want to brand them as paupers. After stiff fights in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and later, in the other States, the legislatures were forced to order free public schools in all the districts (in Pennsylvania, as early as 1848). In the beginning it was common for the State to aid church schools without establishing separate public schools.

How did many of the colleges and universities get started in early America?

The early Greeks and Romans had a very high type of education and had profited by lessons from great teachers like Plato and Aristotle. In the Middle Ages there had been formed groups or guilds of students and teachers who banded together to study, inspired by a common love of learning and a desire for knowledge. The term "university" was applied to these societies of scholars and masters that grew up in certain cities of Italy, as well as in Paris, in Oxford, and in Cambridge, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. Because the students were interested in education they formed groups to require the presence of their professors at all classes. These students also demanded that the professors give them regular examinations and that they cover the material in their books completely. The professors had to be well qualified, and the certificate to teach became the first form of degree granted. In return, the professors formed groups or "colleges" and these colleges set up certain qualifications as requirements, no student being able to enter without the consent of the college. Thus arose the formal organization of universities with the system of entrance requirements, prescribed courses of study, and degrees, which has lasted for more than 700 years and which continues in some form today.

When the colonists began to think of colleges, it was natural for them to choose an English model. This choice was important in the development of American colleges. Today our institutes of higher learning scarcely resemble British Oxford and Cambridge, but at one time there was little difference between English and American colleges.

The earliest English universities had been modeled upon the medieval universities, but American universities were patterned after the English institutions; they have since developed into forms characteristically American.

Harvard, the first college in America, was established in 1636. Many of the Puritan leaders were educated men, and the people, as a whole, were not only anxious to continue the tradition of learning, but, being deeply religious, wanted to provide schools for the training of clergymen for their churches. As church and state were closely connected at this time, leaders in the church were also leaders in the government of the communities; thus, their education was of great importance. The Massachusetts court which appropriated 400 pounds for the founding of Harvard is said to have been the first body in the history of the world in which the people, by their representatives, ever gave their own money to found a school for higher education. The chief purpose, of course, in establishing Harvard was to prepare ministers for the Congregational Church. Some were ready to go into their profession at 15 years of age.

Just as in England, all the students had to live in the college dormitory. Those were the days when discipline was one thing a student learned in college, if nothing else. In fact, one time a student was refused his Master of Arts degree because he had snubbed his fellow students. Imagine an American college today refusing a degree to the college grouch!

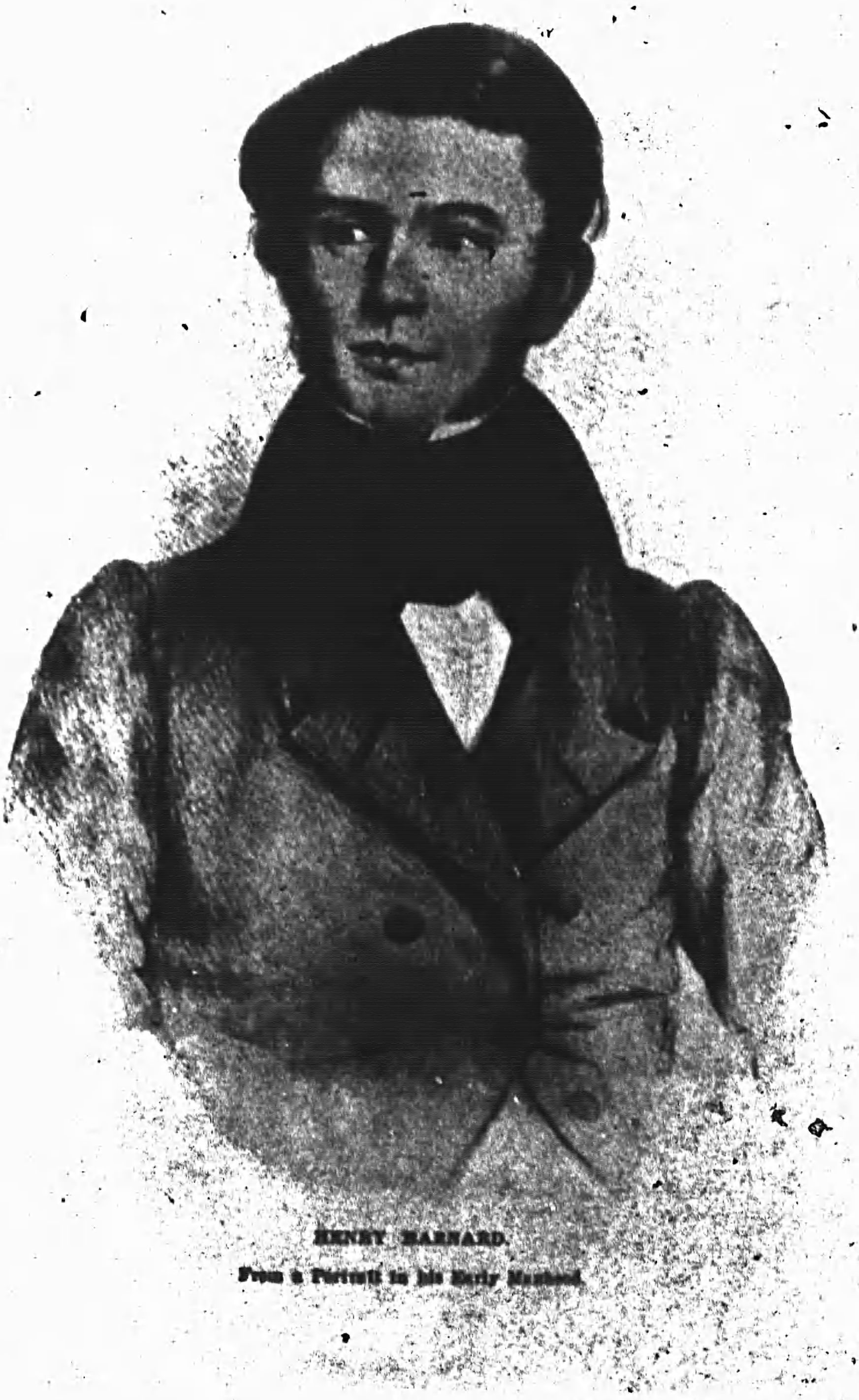
Not to be outdone by Massachusetts Colony, the other colonies began to establish colleges. The new colleges that cropped up during the eighteenth century were alike in most respects. The usual admission requirements were these: To be able to read and speak Latin and to have a knowledge of Greek grammar.

What happened to education during the Revolutionary War Period?

Everything was going along well when the Revolutionary War broke out. Education in the Colonies then suffered seriously. It was no longer safe for the children to go to school, even if there were schools open. The teachers no longer had time to rap smartly on the desk and bellow: "Parse that sentence, Master So-and-so!" Instead the very important business of waging war with England had to be undertaken. All the great minds of the Thirteen Colonies were employed with war. Teachers, of course, were summoned to the defense of their country. Some were given responsible positions of state.

At this time, schools taught by British subjects, using British methods, were resented by the colonists. Eventually they closed such schools. In many cases, these were the only schools in a community. During the war, in all but a few private or charity schools, education had come to a standstill. By the end of the eighteenth century these were the only schools in existence. Illiteracy was increasing rapidly.

After the war, the colonists had little time to notice their lack of education. They had a new government to create; they had homes to build; and the pioneers had new homes to find.


HENRY BARNARD.
From a Portrait in his Early Manhood.

From Lithograph by Van Geel, Paris, 1835.

Henry Barnard—Believer in education for all.

★ ★ ★ ★ ★ ★

II. THE NATIONAL PERIOD: EDUCATION FOR ALL

What grand awakening came in education in the 1800's?

About the middle of the 1800's education had a general awakening in this country. Travelers in Europe and immigrants who came to this country during this time brought with them stories of the European systems of education. There were some objectors, such as Henry Barnard and Horace Mann, who revolted against the inadequacies of the American system. Following the Revolutionary War, the academy flourished and helped in training teachers. The academies and private ventures in the line of teacher training were the only sources of preparation given to those who wished to enter the profession of teaching. As a result of the general awakening of the country and the revolutionary methods put forward by Barnard, Mann, and others, teachers began to get the necessary training. Most of these reforms in education took place first in the New England States, the rest of the Nation not having much faith in the new ideas. A brief summary will clarify the conditions of the late 1700's and part of the 1800's:

1. Between the later 1700's and the early 1800's education, in general, was at a standstill.
2. Teachers were not well trained for their work.
3. Academies and private institutions were used as schools for teacher training; but, on the whole, these schools failed.
4. About 1830 a more or less static period of education ended and a period of development began.

This summary leads us into the period of Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, and other great educators whose work in the "development period" is foundational even to the present day.

What did Horace Mann give to American education?

The first quarter of the nineteenth century belonged to the "transition period" in American education. About 1825, America experienced a renewed interest in culture and cultural subjects, which led to an increased appreciation of education. The conditions in the earlier schools have been described and it is now only necessary that we point out those in Boston, for its system of schools was looked upon as the model for other States.

In 1837 the Legislature of the State of Massachusetts created a State Board of Education. This board's primary function seems to have been that of collecting information on the general conditions of the schools. Horace Mann was appointed secretary to the board in that State. He was at first handicapped because of the limited powers granted him, but he soon began a crusade for *free schools* in which he managed to get the people of Massachusetts behind him. When he left his office 12 years later, his reforms had already been copied by many other States.

Through his paper, the *Common School Journal* and his *Annual Reports*, he made the people of Massachusetts realize the inefficiencies of their system of education. Through his lectures, talks, and meetings, he was able to make the people of that State "education-conscious." His tireless efforts brought forth "normal schools." Taxes for school support were levied and the number of teachers increased. The school year was lengthened 1 month. His efforts bore results, as is shown by summaries of conditions prevailing after he left office.

What women pioneered in education?

There were many leaders in the field of education, each trying to raise the standards by which American children were taught. Among these leaders were three women who, although they worked independently and perhaps knew each other by name only, did much to secure a higher education for the girls of this Nation. The first of this trio was Emma Hart Willard, a Connecticut schoolmistress, who struggled to get the first higher schools for girls. Being a wise woman, she understood the people of that time who considered that woman's place was in the home and not in the school. In fact, it was considered very unbecoming for a girl even to aspire to an education. With this in mind, Mrs. Willard tried to convince the people that a girl ought to have a fuller education to carry on the duties of wife and mother. Useful things should be taught her and she should be disciplined by such solid studies as mathematics, philosophy, geography, and the scientific study of housewifery. Mrs. Willard's favorite subject was geometry, which she made interesting by using potatoes to illustrate her points.

She had great faith in history and religion. She planned a type of education for girls that was different from that for men in that it trained the girls for the home. After overcoming many obstacles, she established a female seminary in the city of Troy, N. Y. It was so successful that when she retired after some years she was acclaimed one of the most famous women in America.

Catherine Beecher began her distinguished career as a teacher at the Hartford Female Seminary in 1828. Here she attempted to teach her advanced ideas. Her work failed because it did not seem practical. She then started to act as a missionary for women's education on the western frontier. Her plan was to interest wealthy women in supplying money for a girls' school and to supply teachers from a school in New England for this new seminary. The crusade, except for a small measure of success, failed at the time; but the publicity she got later advanced the cause of education for women. She believed that the woman's world consisted of home-life, nursing, and teaching. She wished to furnish training for these three fields in her school. She made possible the "scientific" study of health; she introduced calisthenics, or gym work, as we know it, in her school at Hartford, and ever after advocated physical education for girls.

The third of these crusaders was a woman of great religious fervor combined with an almost fanatical desire for higher education—Mary Lyon. She was deeply sympathetic with girls of small means who had little to spend on schooling. She founded a school in which the tuition cost was at a minimum, Mount Holyoke Seminary, now Mount Holyoke College. This school emphasized religious education and sent many of its graduates into mission work.

What foreign educators influenced the American schools?

Probably one of the greatest educators of all times was Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827), a German-Swiss reformer. More than any other reformer, he laid the basis for the modern elementary school, believing in making the school as nearly like home as possible. He urged the teaching of spinning, weaving, and other useful activities, and at the same time the children were taught to read and count. Knowing the needs of children of elementary-school age, he suggested a new form of instruction particularly suited to their minds. He developed the object system and considered the environment and experiences of a child his most valuable means of instruction. Many of his methods are used today, such as teaching by observation and investigation.

To another European, Friedrich Froebel, we are indebted for three additions to elementary education: The kindergarten, the play idea, and handwork activities for the child. Froebel turned to the Pestalozzian school to train for his work as a teacher. While in this training he became greatly impressed by the values of music and play in the education of children. His childhood had been unhappy, so he decided to devote himself to establishing schools for the very young. He believed that we could start early in educating children because they acquire habits during their early years. In his school, which he called a "kindergarten," the main types of activity included play and music.

He was, however, unsuccessful at that time, the fault lying in his inability to convince the great educators. One of his friends, the Baroness Bertha von Marenholtz Bülow-Wendhausen, who spent her life bringing his work to the attention of the world, helped crown Froebel's efforts with success. Although he was a European, his schools attracted educational leaders from all over the world. His ideas were first introduced into the United States early in the nineteenth century largely though the work of Joseph Neef, one of Pestalozzi's instructors.

What influence had Sunday Schools on education in the nineteenth century?

One of the greatest influences on nineteenth century education was the church. It must be remembered that the church had had complete control of schools in the early history of the country. When a public system of education was founded, the church lost much of its influence, although some church schools were continued. The Sunday School was opened to give the church a way of educating the young. The chief field of the Sunday School was, and is, that of spiritual education. Some of the ideas held by churches persisted in the new system of Sunday Schools; but since 1800, the direct influence of the churches on the education of the young has been almost wholly confined to the parochial (church) schools organized as private schools in many parts of our country. On Sunday, parochial school children and many children from the free public schools of today attend Sunday Schools connected with churches, just as they did in the early 1800's.

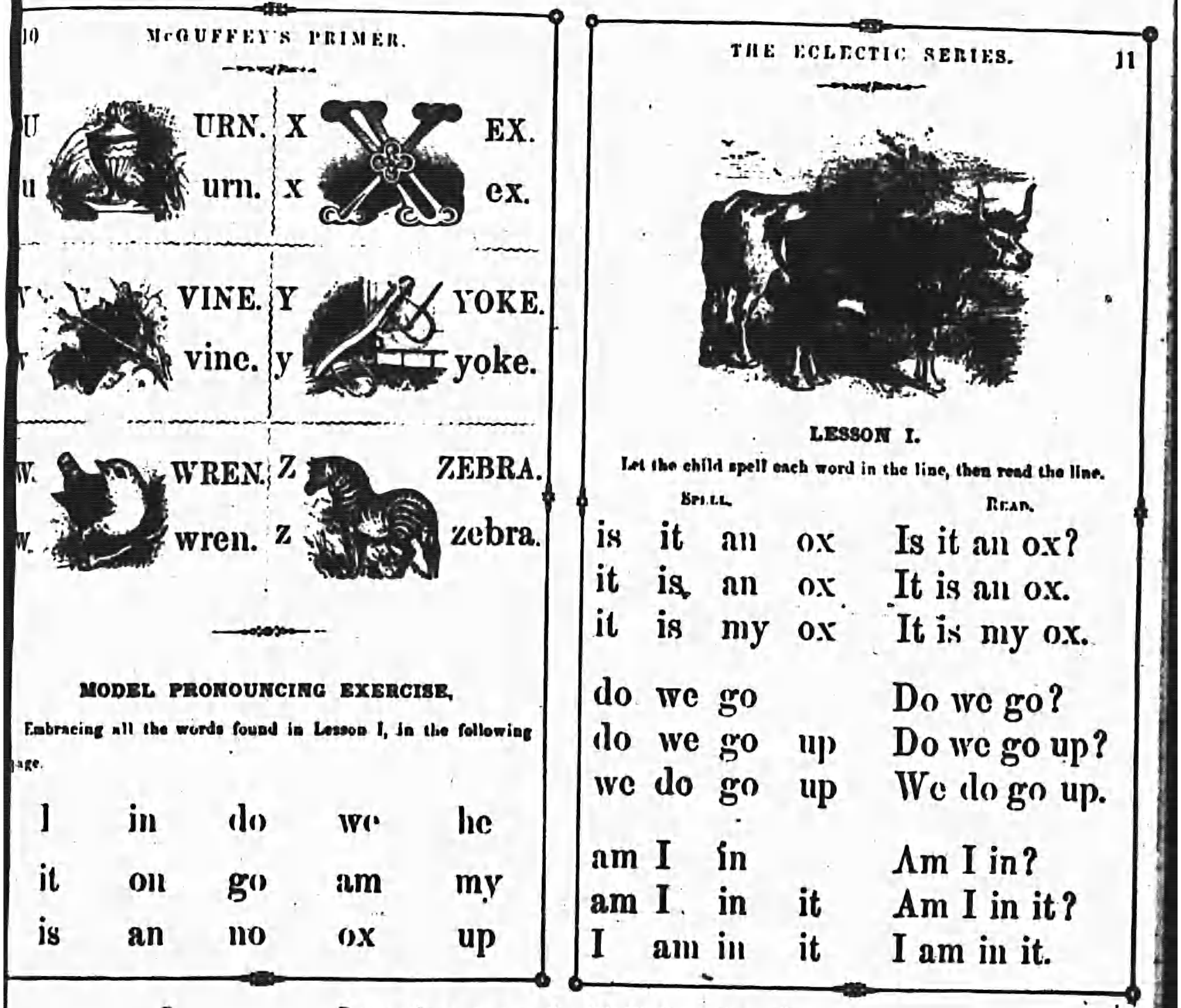
What general changes came about in rural and village education in the century that included the period of the War between the States?

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, elementary education was still in its beginning. Consider the worst elementary school of today; it is probably much better than many village and rural schools of the early nineteenth century. At the beginning of the century the average village or rural school was housed in a small, old frame building with a dirt floor. This building had few windows, a door, a hearth in the center of the room for the fire, and a hole overhead in the room for the escaping smoke. Often there were no desks; logs cut in half and laid across barrels served for desks! There was seldom a blackboard; the earth floor sprinkled with sand was used by the master of the school as a place for writing problems. Even this poor school was appreciated; for had they not had it, classes would have been held in homes or public buildings.

The schoolroom had to be cared for by the pupils, for it was not until later that there were janitors. The boys had to come early and sweep the room, set it in order, and start the fire. The wood for the fire was brought by the pupils until local authorities assumed the responsibility.

The master of this school could not be compared with ours of today. He was invariably poorly qualified for his work. The requirements of the schoolmaster were merely that he know how to read, write, and use numbers, and that he be strong enough to maintain discipline.

Quite often half the time was spent in disciplining. Bad boys were beaten on the back, head, or hands with a heavy rod or a firm hand. In milder misdemeanors, a pupil was made to squat in an uncomfortable position, hold heavy books at arm's length till the muscles would sting, sit with a girl, or stand with his face to the corner. A girl was given such punishments as sitting with a boy or standing in the corner. If the children could not bear the punishments, they were expelled from school.



10 McGUFFEY'S PRIMER.

U URN. X EX.
u urn. x ex.

V VINE. Y YOKE.
v vine. y yoke.

W WREN. Z ZEBRA.
w wren. z zebra.

MODEL PRONOUNCING EXERCISE,

Embracing all the words found in Lesson I, in the following age.

I	in	do	we	he
it	on	go	am	my
is	an	no	ox	up

THE ECLECTIC SERIES. 11

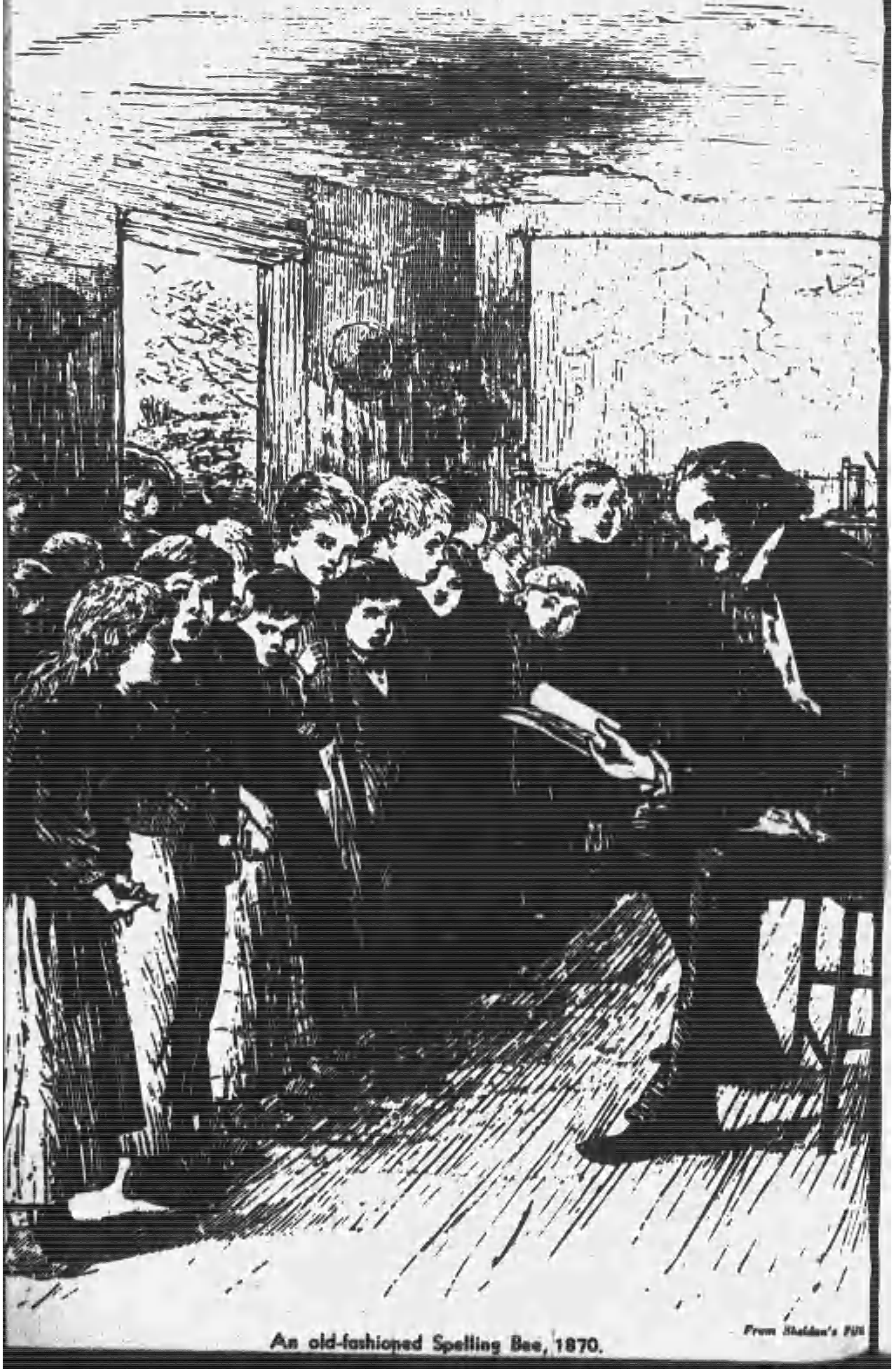
LESSON I.

Let the child spell each word in the line, then read the line.

Spell.				Read.
is	it	an	ox	Is it an ox?
it	is	an	ox	It is an ox.
it	is	my	ox	It is my ox.
do	we	go		Do we go?
do	we	go	up	Do we go up?
we	do	go	up	We do go up.
am	I	in		Am I in?
am	I	in	it	Am I in it?
I	am	in	it	I am in it.

Pages from an early McGuffey Primer

The books were as inadequate as were the other materials and equipment. Often there were no books, in which case the master taught from his small store of learning. Dictionaries and spelling books were the first to make their appearance. Arithmetic and reading books were very scarce. In 1836 appeared the first of the popular *McGuffey* series of readers. During the next 75 years 122,000,000 copies were printed.



An old-fashioned Spelling Bee, 1870.

From Sheldon's Fift

Even in the later 1800's, little children went to a school which was very different from ours of today. The classes were held in a small school building of one room. The children all met in this one room and were not divided into classes as are the children of today. The schoolhouses were small and scattered because most people lived in the country then. Means of travel were difficult; so children were forced to miss many days of school.

The results of having school classes meet in one room were both good and bad. It was easy in the general 1-room school of 10 to 20 pupils to give the bright children material which kept getting harder and harder and give the duller children easier work. The children had to do much seat work, for the teacher had to divide his time among the different groups. A typical program for the different groups of one of these primary schools included many 5- and 10-minute periods of work. Such subjects as spelling, reading, arithmetic, geography, history, animal husbandry, singing, and drawing suggest the variety of courses included in one school. There was no arrangement by which even the separate groups could work by themselves. There was usually a playground upon which the children might play, but there was no indoor recreation room. Often the building was cold in the winter and damp in wet weather. The location of the school and the home usually made it necessary for the children to walk quite a distance. They had to carry their lunches and so were unable to have warm food at lunch in cold weather. These poor conditions easily explain the irregular attendance of children in those days. Although these conditions would naturally vary according to the people's demands, they are typical of what was to be found in the village and rural elementary school even in the middle and late 1800's.

What new schools were organized for the older children?

The academies grew out of the dissatisfaction with the old Latin grammar schools, which were keeping to their narrow courses of studies and failing to provide for the many new needs of the people in a changing America. It was Benjamin Franklin who showed the way to a new type of school and in 1751 became the founder of what was probably the first public academy in this country. He believed that pupils should learn useful things; he believed that children should be taught to live in the world of affairs. The aim of the academy was to teach both the cultural subjects and the real business of living; the chief function was to give a practical education, rather than to give training as a preparation for college. The academy was built to follow the elementary school, somewhat as our high schools of today, and was, in these early days, bound up with the interests of the common people. Many of the academies were considered substitutes for college.

Although none of the schools quite reached Franklin's ideal, all made their curricula more liberal. The emphasis was placed upon the standard subjects of English, arithmetic, the several sciences, commerce and industry, general history, algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, and languages. In addition to work in these subjects, athletics, running, wrestling, and swimming were encouraged. One hundred and forty-nine *new* subjects were added in New York schools during the period 1787–1870. In addition to the formal studies and sports, there was time for debating, literary societies, and school exhibitions of various sorts. Many of the schools were boarding schools for pupils who lived away from home. School was regarded as a serious and solemn matter, and the academies became very popular. In 1850 there were already about 6,000 academies in the country with more than 250,000 pupils. The period of their most rapid development was between 1820 and 1840.

For 75 years academies were the most important schools in the United States, but by 1890 their greatest influence was over; and today, the few remaining academies are supported by endowments or tuition fees and are almost all devoted to preparing their pupils for college. The academies were important because they marked several improvements over early education: (1) They changed and enlarged the curricula to include practical subjects; (2) they marked a change from private to public support and away from church influence and control; (3) they admitted less fortunate boys and girls; and (4) they prepared the way for our high schools of today.

What direction did the development in the colleges take from about 1800 on?

As the United States grew in size and wealth, as it developed in industry and commerce, life became more complex; new professions were opened; there were greater opportunities for personal advancement; more people felt a desire for education, education of a broader and more practical sort. The narrow curriculum of the early colleges, devoted largely to a detailed study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, had served its age with some degree of satisfaction; but toward the end of the eighteenth century the colleges, in response to the demands of contemporary life, broadened the scope of their offerings and began to regard themselves as institutions designed to advance learning in science and general literature, as well as in theology.

Still the United States grew, and more students flocked to the universities. Because many of them could not afford the high tuition fees of the private colleges, there arose a demand for less expensive instruction so that all who were mentally qualified could benefit. Thus it was that the nineteenth century saw the rise of the state, tax-supported university, open at low tuition fees.

The University of North Carolina and the University of Georgia were the first to be chartered and opened at the close of the eighteenth century. Thomas Jefferson gave importance to the movement with his plan for the University of Virginia, in 1819; and other universities were rapidly established in the various States until today all have colleges or universities. The nineteenth century saw also the rise of women's colleges and the admission of women to established universities. Oberlin was probably the first college to try coeducation and was open to women from its beginning in 1833.

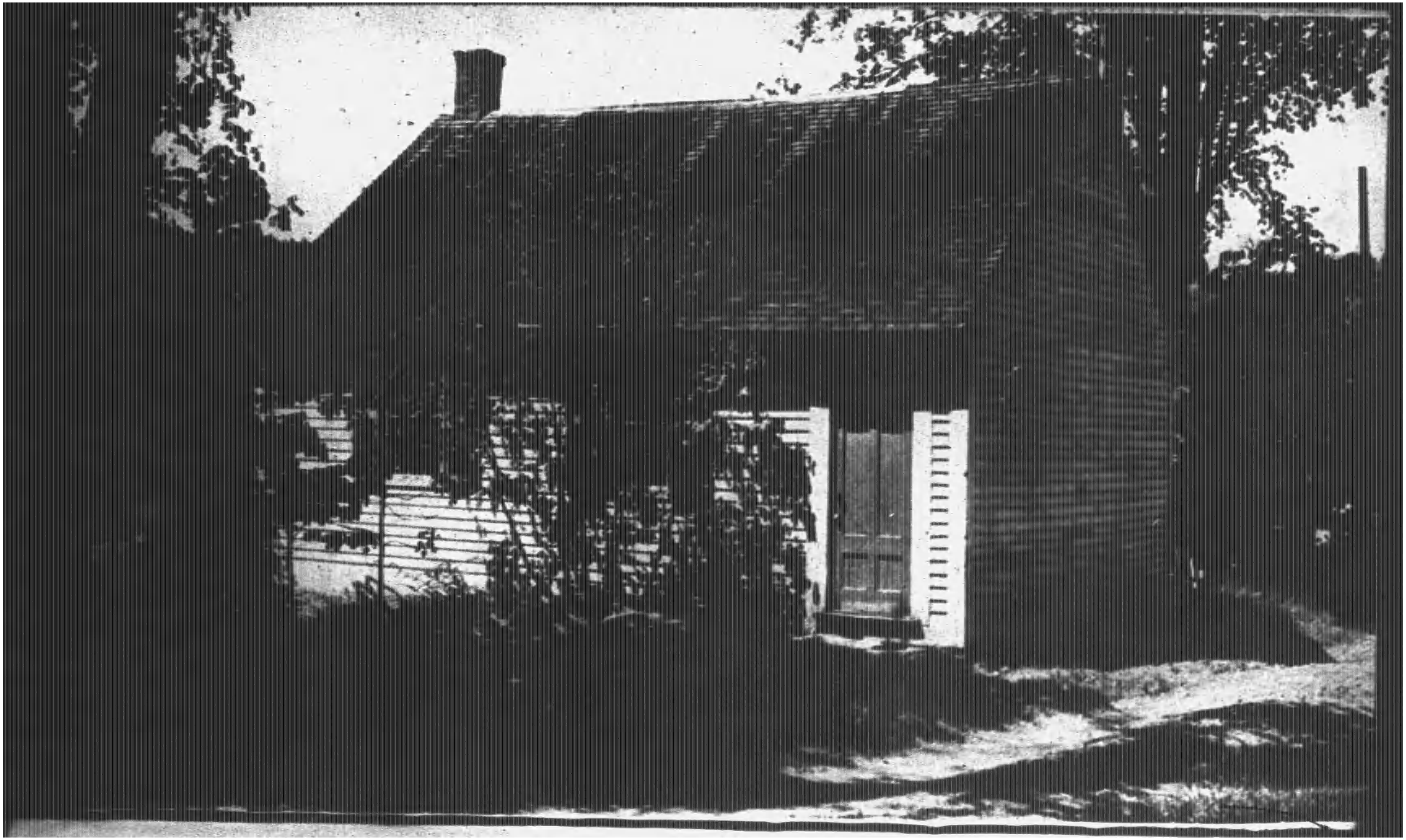
As previously stated, Emma Willard founded a school for higher education of women in Troy, N. Y., in 1821, and Mary Lyon opened a seminary for women at Mount Holyoke, Mass., in 1837; Elmira College for Women followed in 1855; and later came other famous institutions such as Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, Bryn Mawr, Barnard, and Radcliffe. Gradually the prejudice against higher education for women has lessened and today no State university is entirely closed to women.

In no other country has the increase in educational institutions and educational opportunities, and the increase in the number of students been so great and so rapid. The phenomenal rise to more than 1,000,000 young people in college from 238,000, 40 years ago, and a single pupil in 1636, has never been paralleled. In more than 1,700 institutions of higher learning young people of the United States are educated today.

How did the Federal Government give the schools a start?

If one has studied the Constitution of the United States, he has probably noticed that it does not mention education in any definite way. There are, however, several indirect provisions for educational work. Therefore, it was possible for the National Government to make land grants for schools.

When the Ohio company was formed, the Government gave Ohio the sixteenth section of land in every township for schools, the twenty-ninth for religion, and two whole townships for the purpose of establishing a university. Most of the States entering the Union after Ohio were given a similar gift. Texas did not receive this land as the State already owned territory when it was admitted; and Maine and West Virginia did not because they were carved from original States. Beginning with the admission of California in 1850, all States were given both the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of each township for schools. Three of the Western States, New Mexico, Arizona, and Utah, were given 4 sections of each township because of low land values. Approximately 226,562 square miles have been given by the Government to the people for educational purposes.



These grants not only aided our public schools, but they opened the way for our State universities and State colleges. In 1857 Senator Morrill introduced a bill into Congress providing for 20,000 acres of land to be granted to each State for each member it had in Congress. The land was to be used as a source of income for agricultural and mechanical arts training. The bill passed Congress, but was vetoed by President Buchanan. In 1861 a similar bill was introduced changing the acreage from 20,000 to 30,000 acres and adding military science and tactics to the curriculum. Congress passed the bill, and it was signed on July 2, 1862, by President Lincoln. All the States received the benefit of this land grant totaling 10,929,215 acres. Sixty-nine colleges and universities benefited by these gifts; 17 of these were for Negroes. Some of the land-grant colleges are: Purdue University, Cornell University, University of Alaska, Massachusetts State College, Rhode Island State College, University of Hawaii, and many of the universities in the Western States, the largest of which is the University of California.

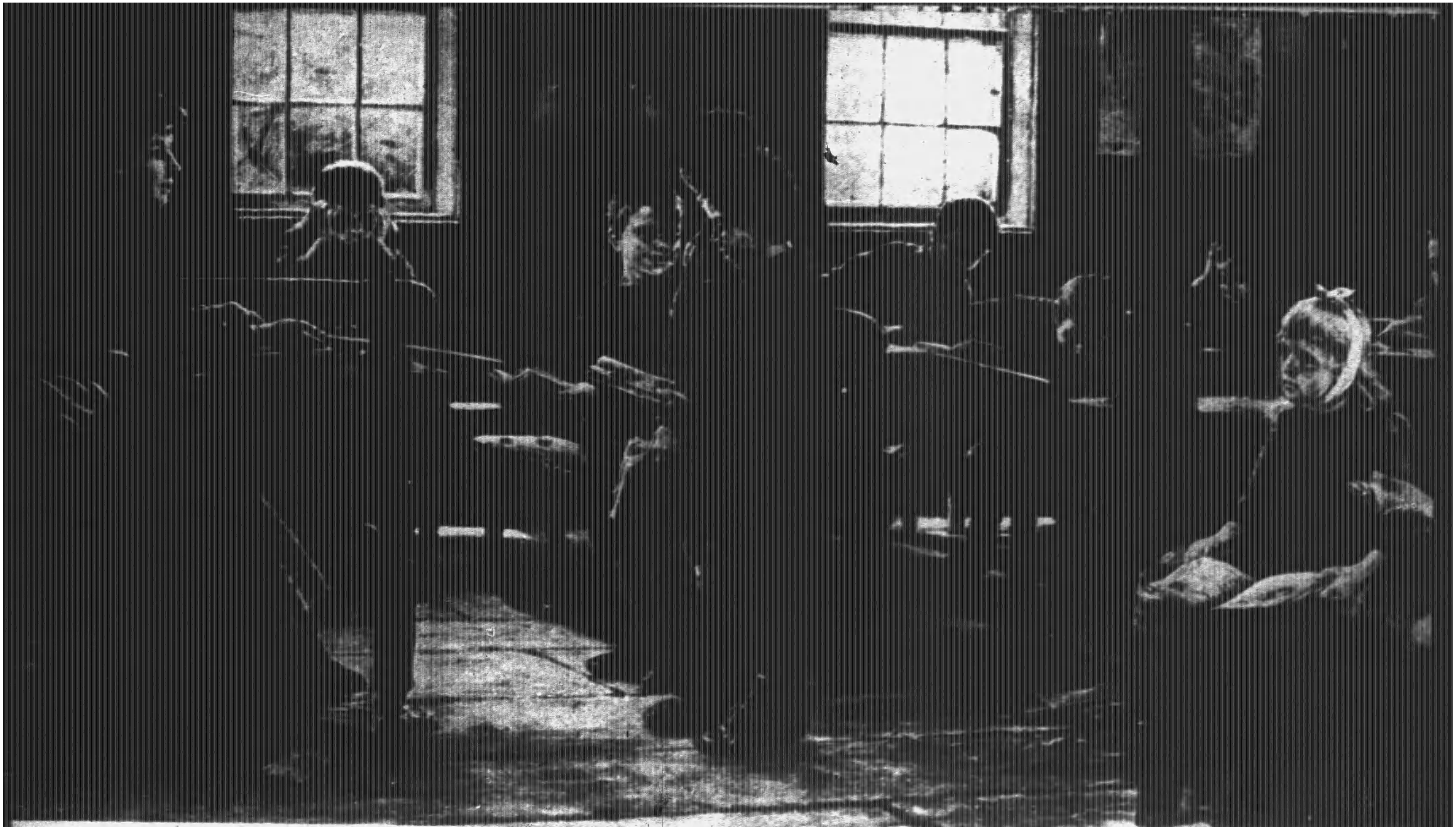
It was soon discovered that land-grant colleges were a success, so in 1890 the second Morrill Act was passed making annual appropriations for these institutions. Since then there have been many other sums of money given. The value of the gifts the Government has made to the schools in the last century would total millions of dollars. This is one of the many reasons we should be grateful to our Government. Although the Constitution had no set plan for providing public education, our Governent has done much to further it.

What were permanent school funds?

There were many forms in which money was received for the support of the schools. Tuition fees supported schools of all grades, and in many places there were formed local school societies that made annual contributions to the support of these institutions. Subscriptions were taken in the churches; and a few colleges and academies, mainly those located in New England, had endowments. Some schools received their support from funds gained by holding lotteries, which in that day were considered legitimate and profitable means of getting money. Some sections aided their schools with public appropriations. About the beginning of the nineteenth century, Virginia, Connecticut, New York, and several other States set aside permanent school funds which were later greatly increased. These funds were created so that the school could feel secure and always have something to depend upon when resources were low.

As schools increased in number in the 1800's, what units of school administration were worked out?

The school district common in parts of our country today is different from that used in the eighteenth century. Today we think of a



Country School of 1890, by Lamson Henry.

Courtesy, Mabel Brady Garvan

district as an area having a definite boundary within which are located schools. These schools are attended by pupils in the surrounding area. The local residents of the district support their schools by paying a large share of the taxes. The number of schools within each district is determined by the number of people living there and by the economic status of those people. As the population increases, it makes possible the increase of the number of schools without seriously increasing the taxation of the people. The children of today are much more fortunate with respect to ease of finding a school in which to get their education than were their ancestors. Your great-grandfather living in the nineteenth century had to go a long way to school without the aid of streetcars or automobiles. If the weather were bad, or if mother wanted the boy to clean out the chimney, or if brother wanted to wear the shoes, school was forgotten for the day. The nineteenth-century pupil did not always play hooky for the same reasons as those given by boys and girls today.

In Massachusetts and other Colonies, the towns had been settled close together because of the Indians. By the end of the seventeenth century and especially after the close of the Second French and Indian War in 1713, when the Indian scare had been greatly lessened, the people began to separate, living farther apart. Old towns began to spread out and new towns of the straggling type came into existence, bringing about the problem of getting a large enough number of schools to educate all of the people. The law required that every child attend school until he was of a certain age in order to prevent the people from being illiterate. This made it necessary to build schools which would be available to all. Many suggestions were tried. The building of a school in the center of the town was soon found to be unsatisfactory since the people living on the edge of the town either had to come to school whenever they could find someone to bring them or stay away, which was against the law. A "moving school" was then brought into being which dispensed with a central school entirely. This school moved from one part of the town to another at different intervals, depending on the town's opinion as to how much education was needed. There were no set laws as to which school moved at a certain time, the grammar school or the elementary school; and each town did what it deemed best to do.

Another solution to this problem was the divided school which was the origin of the school district of today. This school was divided into parts and each part operated at the same time in different sections of the town. All of these parts acted as one town-maintained school. It proved more efficient than the "moving school" and much more satisfactory. At first these towns had varying boundaries, but eventually they became definite, and the term "district" was applied to these sections. Names such as squadron, parish, and the like were applied to these school areas, according to the part of the country in which they were found. In time, these districts became like little towns within a town which had the controlling powers in deciding what kinds and how many schools that area could afford to educate its children. From a 1-school plan which made much traveling of great distances necessary, there developed the modern district in which there are several easily reached schools. This excellent arrangement does not prevail everywhere in the United States. At the present time, there are some schools which continue to serve large areas in which only a few people live.

Why was the consolidated school needed?

Whenever we think of reading, writing, and arithmetic, we associate them with the little country school. We think of the small school room with its benches, and a trek of two miles or so through the snow to reach it. The romantic side of the picture is very pleasant to us; but we do not perhaps fully realize the hardships which country boys and girls have had to endure in going to school. The term "consolidated school" was used in the United States to designate a school that had been formed by a union of two or more rural districts. Massachusetts had passed a law permitting the formation of union districts in 1838; Connecticut in 1839. By 1860, 9 States had laws encouraging the development of union districts in both rural and city communities. In 1869 Massachusetts passed a law permitting the expenditure of public money to transport children to school, a law originally intended to permit the carrying of older children to central town high schools. By 1880 the towns were taking advantage of the law to close small outlying schools and transport the children to a central town school. The movement was brought about more quickly in Massachusetts when in 1882 the district system was abolished and the town system restored in its place. By 1900 half the States had passed laws to make possible the union of certain school districts, and 18 States had laws permitting the use of school funds to transport pupils.

The main purpose in the establishment of consolidated schools, which vary in size, is that of giving a better education to pupils in rural schools. The district schools had been poor because they could not employ efficient teachers or obtain good equipment. The consolidation of schools was at first opposed because the people did not want to lose their local schools. It was said, too, that the value of the property near which the school formerly stood was lowered. The objections were overcome in time, for the advantages of the consolidated school are great. They provide for better teachers and for a better school program resulting in greater interest in education on the part of the pupils and the teachers. The opportunity of a country boy or girl attending a consolidated school is more nearly equal to that of a city pupil because of the enlarged curriculum, better organization of instruction, and new activities. The cost per pupil of maintaining a consolidated school is usually less than that of keeping up a great number of district schools. Enrollment is increased; absence and tardiness are decreased. Consolidation makes possible longer terms of school than country schools can afford. The consolidated school has become a well organized institution in both the United States and Canada.

What changes had been made in secondary schools?

As we would expect from our study of the early elementary school, the high school was usually found in buildings which were very unpleasant. Few windows, cramped conditions, poor heating and ventilation, scarcity of furniture all added a note of unpleasantness to the schooling process. The teachers also lacked much which we consider necessary today. There were few places where teachers might train properly for teaching positions. There had been no set of requirements established which the teacher had to meet. It seems that many of our incorrect impressions of teachers may be drawn from things that are told about those teachers. For example, the idea that a teacher was usually "crabby" probably resulted from the necessity for sternness in those days when schools could not offer sufficient work and activity to keep students well employed. Texts were also inadequate. The books for schools were in very fine print and hard to read. During the nineteenth century, the idea of making the lessons more practical came into wide use.

The purpose of the high school was to fill a gap between elementary schools and colleges since more and more students were going on to college. The curricula which resulted had two aims: To offer sufficient training for boys who did not intend to go to college; and to prepare adequately those who did plan to go to college. Languages, physics, mathematics, moral and mental science, rhetoric, and general history were subjects of the typical curriculum. The functions of the new high school were to fit boys for business or trade and to enrich the lives of the students in English culture. Late in the nineteenth century a movement was started to unite the seventh and eighth grades with the high school. This movement finally evolved into a system of a 6-year elementary school, a 3-year junior high school, and a 3-year senior high school.

During the nineteenth century the value of an extended education was stressed. At the beginning of the century, a boy was considered educated if he knew how to read, write, and calculate. By the end of the century, the attitude had changed. A college education was becoming necessary.

What special kinds of education were developed? What did the old singing school contribute?

Through the church choirs there came an interest in a "singing school." This school gave to school music its first methods and all of its first teachers. You might ask how it was started and why. This form of music school had its beginning in an attempt to improve the singing in the church services. During the first colonial period music dealt with religious subjects only, and was confined to the church. Its power to give pleasure was viewed with suspicion and was not encouraged by leaders of public opinion. Until late in the eighteenth century singing in the church was very bad, in fact, so bad it was often unpleasant to listen to. Is it any wonder that the singing schools were brought into existence? The oldest existing American book of music, the second book to be published in America, was called the *Bay Psalm Book*. Although first published in 1640, music was not included in it until 1698, when the ninth edition was issued.

Something should be said of the singing-school teachers. They were self instructed, for in those days there was little opportunity for even a scanty education in this work. These teachers laid the foundations of the knowledge of music and did much to develop and discover talents. There were two groups: The first group was taught in the period just following the American Revolution; and the second group, better trained, was led by Lowell Mason. This latter period was important because of the presence of the singing-school teacher who carried on his work in many towns.

For several years, beginning in 1829, groups of singing schools and societies began to meet in Concord, N. H., under the leadership of Henry E. Moore; music conventions were the outgrowth of these meetings. The music conventions were held for a period of about 30 years beginning in the 1840's. Just as the singing school became our first music school, so these conventions became our first national schools of music and were like our present conservatories. The singing school and its offshoot, the old-time music convention, are gone today and exist only as traditions, but their spirit lingers on and is expressed in such institutions as public school music, the music conservatory, the great music-teacher associations, and many choral societies. Music was the first of the expressive subjects to be included in the curriculum of the public schools.

What special plans were being made for physical education programs in our country by 1850?

Today, in America, we try to improve the national physical welfare through the school classes in health and physical education, through such classes as those directed by the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., and also through experiences with playground associations. During the 1850's many people in our Nation began to take a deep interest in physical development. This was due to the ever-increasing anxiety concerning the health of the school children, especially of those students in college. At first the "exercise lessons" resembled any other lesson. Two important systems of physical education were then introduced—the German system and the Swedish system. The German system emphasized the value of supervised play, games, and rhythm. Of course, if the equipment were not at hand for these activities, formal gymnastics of the Swedish type could be taught.

Educators expressed the desire to see more exercise of the physical as well as of the mental faculties of students, even those in colleges. Outdoor sports were first encouraged. Crude gymnasiums were opened at certain colleges by 1860. The gymnasium building usually included a dressing room, an office, a bowling alley on the first floor, and a game room on the second. Later, tracks and swimming pools were added, then stadiums.

The games of the college students in America are as old as the colleges. The common attitude of the early college officials towards the games was that although they were very annoying and shameful they had to be endured as necessary evils. It was not until about the middle of the nineteenth century that the authorities had to decide to do one of two things—to supervise the games or to abolish them. The crisis came with the intercollegiate contests. These contests assumed only a minor place in college life in the 1850's, but by the 1880's they were very important. Until the arrival of basketball, the major contests were rowing, baseball, football, and track. No activities in student life have caused as much controversy as have these intercollegiate activities, which have come about simply because certain groups have wished to match their prowess with that of others.

When did the teaching of trades become a part of our educational system?

Trade teaching in the sense of occupational training is one of the oldest forms of education. It was not, however, introduced as a part of the formal school program until the latter part of the nineteenth century when, excited by European example, educators in the United States organized manual training curricula for the students. Courses were so organized that they were used either for teaching the work as part of the general curriculum or as a separate course of study. In some places there was an independent high school devoted to manual training alone. One argument used in favor of this new system of work in school was that long hours in classes were harmful to health and made the students lazy. The purposes in introducing manual training to public education were to give natural exercise to the children, to furnish new interests, to furnish practical knowledge and habits of industry, to promote independence and originality, to lessen the expense of schools, and to make the children better able to understand one another. Typical activities of a manual training program gave every pupil a chance to try different activities and find what interested him most.

Some boys learned about scientific farming; some helped repair old buildings and build new ones; some made furniture, such as tables, bookcases, benches, bedsteads, pie boards, knife boxes, stools, and clothes frames. Often they would make things to sell. Their work at these jobs was divided into a certain amount every day. The students had exercise and new interests; they gained practical knowledge. The girls were not excluded from this program for they learned about sewing, knitting, darning, and weaving. They also learned more about scientific cooking and house management. These programs all aimed to make the pupil better fitted for choosing his life work.

Although this type of education did not seem at first to fit well into the general idea of modern education, it was an important step in bringing the older apprenticeship training for boys and the home learning for the girls closer to a well-organized curriculum. Ideas from this new training spread throughout the school system to affect the work of younger children. Today there is less of formal exercise and more of practical work in modern trade training.

How well were teachers trained in the 1800's?

Every one looks up to a doctor or a judge or a dentist because each has spent a long time preparing for his profession or work; and every citizen grants that the professional man's place in society is well deserved. It was in the nineteenth century that a few great men looked at the state in which the common-school teacher found himself, and decided that his position must be improved.

Ever since early times, when most instructors were employed by the rich, the position of the teacher in society has been gradually improved. In 1685, a school was founded with the express aim of preparing young people to teach. This school was built in Rheims, and the influence it had on Europe was most favorable. Similar schools were established across most of the European Continent. But America showed slow progress in respect to teacher training. For 200 years, private and common schools were being established in all sections of the Nation, but there was an almost total disregard for the training of men and women who would teach children. The school terms were short, and such persons as poor surveyors, farmers, or college students home for a vacation, taught the pupils.

There were few requirements for teaching; anyone who could discipline a class, or "keep order," and drill the students with the difficult material found in the crude textbooks could accept a position which gave little pay and less prestige. Dr. Knight has said:

> The work was considered too laborious, and it paid too little. It attracted those who could do nothing else, those who had some physical misfortune, and those who could outbid capable teachers.[1]

The man who wrote these lines also described a school teacher of the day in these words:

> In the school house * * * there is often installed a man with a heart of stone and hands of iron; too lazy to work, too ignorant to live by his wits in any other way, whose chief recommendation is his cheapness, and whose chief capacity to instruct is predicated by his incapacity for other employment * * * Many of the teachers were invalids, some were slaves to drunkenness, some too lazy to work, most of them entirely ignorant of the art of teaching, and a terror to their pupils. There were a few * * * who possessed culture, intelligence, morality, ability.[2]

Nearly one and one-half centuries after the French teachers' school had been founded, the need for such institutions was felt in America by far-seeing leaders in education. And so a school, based largely on the European plan, was founded by Rev. Samuel R. Hall. The school was opened in 1823 to persons (usually boys and girls 16 or 17 years old) who desired to make teaching their life work. A few such schools were established in America. The first public normal school was opened in Lexington in 1839.[3] Entering students were usually required to pass a test covering the subject matter taught in common schools.

Upon being accepted by the normal schools, the students began their years of training, the number of which varied considerably in the different schools; 2 years was the average length of training period required. Since these teacher-training institutions at first were little more than extensions of the grade school, the prospective teacher studied little more than the average pupil does in high school today: Mathematics, English, science, reading, geography, composition, and several other subjects, a variety which must seem strange to the student teacher today. But specialization in any one subject, or in two or three subjects, was then unknown; and the student studied almost every subject because he would be expected, after graduation, to teach all of them. A century ago there was little professional training required. Today, there are several professional courses included, such as methods of teaching, history of education, philosophy and principles of education, and student teaching. Emphasis in early days was placed on subject matter or academic courses; evidently miracles were supposed to enable the graduating student to teach his future pupils what he himself had learned in the preparatory school. More often than not, the miracles did not happen. Slowly, courses planned to help future teachers were introduced, and each year gave America more efficient teachers. Teaching became truly a profession.

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[1] Knight, Edgar Wallace. Education in the United States. New York, Ginn & Co., 1934. P. 352.
[2] Ibid.
[3] Elsbree, Willard S. The American Teacher. New York, American Book Co., 1939. P. 146.

Schools for teachers, or normal schools, increased in number and size. In 1899–1900, there were in America 154 public and 134 private normal schools. They had a total enrollment of more than 30,000, the public normal schools having by far the larger number. Each year over 20,000 teachers entered the field. One remarkable development was the entrance of women into the profession. Prior to 1830 men controlled the field; after the War between the States, however, more women became teachers. Today, the number of women exceeds the number of men. Most of the normal schools have now become teachers colleges. Instead of a grade-school education, a typical teacher now has 3 years of college work.

And so within one century, the meaning of "teacher" changed more radically than during any other period in history. Teaching became a an honored profession; it is no longer employment used to fill those months of the years when other work is scarce. During the last half of the century, emphasis has been placed on new phases of teaching—specialization, professional training, and broad general culture. Colleges of education were established in old and new universities, both private and State. In this way the children of the United States have again been fortunate; since 1823, the teachers under whose direction they develop have been better trained year after year for the great undertaking which faces the profession.

III. THE MODERN PERIOD: EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRACY

What does the modern American school system include?

The American public school system of today is indeed a great institution. This institution includes educational activities carried on at all levels, preschool, kindergarten, elementary, secondary, college, and postgraduate. In addition to the general classes of educational levels mentioned, there are such specialized types of education as the vocational, the work in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps, National Youth Administration, Work Projects Administration, adult education, and certain kinds of higher education. The American people have become education-conscious. They provide at public expense educational opportunities at all age levels. The people of the United States should be a literate people.

There are today (1941) 20,707,000 children in grades 1 through 8; 7,334,000 students in high schools.[1] In these schools, the curricula are broad and interesting, covering such activities as book study and appreciation, speech training, dramatics and art, music, social studies, sciences, languages, physical education, health, radio, assembly programs, in addition to the formal subjects which have always been included. Subjects are now presented with regard to individual needs. Children have opportunities for developing such talents as they have. On the high school level, students may have both general education and specialized education. Students in high school today may follow lines of general and vocational training. While in the high school the individual may learn a trade and be fitted for making his living. Instead of serving an apprenticeship as the boy of colonial days did in preparing himself to earn a living, the boy of today may get such education in high school. Girls have similar advantages.

Special schools have been provided for handicapped children—the hard-of-hearing, the crippled, the blind or nearly blind, and others.

But the American people have not stopped at providing education for elementary and secondary levels; they have provided for educational activities at the college and university levels. Both public and private colleges serve the people of the United States.

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[1] Jones, Olga, *and others*. Education in the United States of America. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1939. (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1939, Misc. No. 3.)

Of recent years it has seemed advisable to provide special types of education for boys in Civilian Conservation Corps camps, for young people who wish to go to high school and college on the National Youth Administration plan, and for adults having leisure time on their hands as a result of the economic depression. There are, then, special kinds of educational programs for both young and old who wish to learn.

The public programs of education are supported and administered by the Federal Government, State governments, and local groups working in cooperation. Schools are supported by various kinds of taxes. The administration of all the schools is so extensive a program that it amounts to what is often called the "biggest business enterprise in America." The total expenditure for public schools in the United States in 1937–38 was $2,529,544,496.

There is in the United States a Federal Office of Education which gives guidance and assistance in educational matters.[2]

What is the work of the U. S. Office of Education?

The U. S. Office of Education, which represents the Federal Government in educational matters throughout the Nation, was established by an act of Congress in 1867, the need for such an agency having been felt by the people even earlier in the country's history. Its purpose, as stated, has been to collect facts and statistics showing the condition and progress of education in the Nation and to send out such information about the management and organization of the various schools as would aid the people in establishing and maintaining efficient school systems. Administered by a Commissioner of Education it became, in 1869, an office in the United States Department of the Interior, but was changed in 1939 to the status of an organization in the Federal Security Agency. In 1929 the position of Assistant Commissioner was established by law, and appointment was made in the same year. The Director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education became Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education after the merger of the functions of that Board with the Office of Education in 1933.

The U. S. Office of Education serves the people and the cause of education in the United States in a multitude of ways. It keeps in touch with the latest trends in education and makes it possible for the public and the schools to use this knowledge for the improvement and extension of education throughout the country.

Among the great number of valuable contributions of the Office are: The promotion of health and safety of school children and teachers through research and consultation; guidance for pupils in the selection of vocations, courses, and school programs; research in tests and measurements; surveys of colleges and universities for the use of the public; studies of the various school systems and reports concerning these; information about education in foreign countries and assistance for foreign students or Americans studying abroad; aid in the education of exceptional children, Negroes, and other minority groups; statistical information about schools and advice concerning school records and reports; radio publications and exhibits for the promotion of education by radio; distribution of publications growing out of the research and activities of the Office; publication of SCHOOL LIFE, official journal of the U. S. Office of Education, which presents information and reports on developments in the field of education; the Office of Education Library and the Library Service Division which serve persons desiring information, answer reference questions, provide interlibrary loans, and aid in the extension and development of library service.

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[2] Ibid., p. 55.

In the field of vocational education, aid and consultative service is given on employee-employer relations; public service training; curriculum problems; and vocational training programs in agriculture, homee conomics, trade, industrial, and business education. The Office offers guidance and information about occupations, carries on research and compiles reports in the field of vocational education, helps the several States in planning programs for aiding disabled persons to prepare for employment, gives information and aid to those who want to organize public forums and discussion groups, and serves in an advisory capacity to the Secretary of War on all matters affecting education in the Civilian Conservation Corps, not only in formal academic subjects, but in vocational as well.

From this partial list of activities the vital and important part the U. S. Office of Education is playing in the development of education in the United States can readily be seen.

Certain of the educational opportunities to be found in the American system of education will be described in the sections of this bulletin which follow.

What schools are there today for children under the age of 6?

Pre-school education has been said to be a fad for mothers who want to simplify their jobs. Pre-school education, however, is as old as the human race. There used to be large families and many things to do at home which helped to train children; but now there are so many "only children" and so many living in cities that if they are brought up in the home alone, they haven't playmates or a good place to play. It was once believed that a child's education began at 6, but now psychologists have proved that training during the first 6 years is the most important.

The first requirements for a modern nursery school are a trained teacher and enough play space. The teacher keeps important records

Narcissus bulbs must be planted 6 inches deep.

Primary children in a 1941 classroom.

Courtesy, Los Angeles Pub

of how each child grows, and works with parents as well as with children.

Outside, the children should have a large yard with a garden and a fish pond for nature study, apparatus for climbing, balancing, swinging, pushing, and pulling. Inside, the atmosphere should be like the home; but the equipment should be child-size. There should be draperies and curtains at the windows, a piano, small tables and chairs, and an individual locker for each child. There should be supplies and play clothes; and folded cots in the corner which the children could take down during their rest period. Small equipment should include toys, building-blocks, and furnished doll house, a toy store, and dolls. For nature study, birds, fish, and animals may be kept. For art work, crayons, paint, wood, nails, hammers, paper, and yarn should be on hand.

From the nursery school, the child goes to the kindergarten. The day begins, as in the nursery school, with no bell, but on the arrival of the small children with their parents or with older children any time from 8:30 to 9:00 A. M. The parent may be a little disappointed in the school and teacher at first when she sees the great amount of informality. When the child comes in, he is greeted by the teacher and she expects no certain answer. Some days, a child may come in and may not greet anyone; and other days he may spend 5 minutes talking to the teacher. The modern teacher thinks the important thing is for the child to get busy at something in which he is interested. He may look at a book or pictures; may learn new words; may make things out of wood, clay, paper; help with the care of plants and animals; play in a different way than at home; or try out the new toys. The main thing is to have him happy before the day really starts.

In the kindergarten the children learn how to get along with other children. They have creative periods; work periods; play periods; music, dancing, and literature classes. After the work period they have a group meeting in which to criticize their work. While they are still in this group, the teacher may tell a story or the children may sing. Often the teacher will take the children on excursions to parks, farms, zoos, the beach, or other places of community interest.

The chief value of the kindergarten to the child lies in the experiences that make him ready for learning in the later grades. A study of grades and ratings of 88 first-grade children showed that those who had had kindergarten training were decidedly superior to children who had not had such training, both in regard to their progress in school work and in ability to get along with others. About one child in every four children of kindergarten age attends a public-school kindergarten.

What is the modern elementary school like?

The elementary school of 1940 carries on the work of the nursery school and kindergarten in developing the growth of children physically, socially, and mentally. A child has been learning ever since birth, but upon school entrance he is able to organize his knowledge with the aid of other children and the teacher. In this way he is able to use the material gathered in his home and community life. Starting his school life well is important.

The elementary school has great responsibility at present with 84 percent of the children 5 to 14 years of age attending. The school systems of America have many variant forms. The following are a few examples of the various types: The one-room school, the larger village or small-town school, and the great city school. First to be considered is the 1-room school. The poorest school of this type is often located in an ugly, box-shaped building, standing in the middle of a treeless lot which no one else wanted. The water may be supplied from a well. The outside door opens into the one room and the children's hats and coats are hung on pegs around the room; there is one stove to heat the room, and the equipment is poor. Of course there are good rural schools, too. Rural schools, however, are slowly being turned into consolidated schools which resemble our town or small city schools.

Some of our town schools are offering an excellent type of education. Their elementary schools provide a broad curriculum consisting of reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, civics, art, music, language, science, hygiene, and physical education. Sometimes several of these are combined as in the social studies (history, geography, civics) or the language arts (reading, language, spelling, handwriting). The curriculum of the modern school is usually worked out on the unit plan. Most of the equipment and materials are supplied from taxes. The building is planned to meet the needs of the climate.

Some of the great city schools of today are very modern. Most classes in the city are actively engaged in many lines of play and work. The schoolyard of the big school is often large and has adequate equipment, while the building itself is a modern brick structure with a cafeteria, nature rooms, gymnasium, library, music room, auditorium, and offices. The books and other supplies are distributed by the school. Today, the elementary teacher in several States must have a 4-year college education.

There are four main purposes in modern elementary education: (1) To teach the child to get along with other people; (2) to see that the child's health is good; (3) to see that the child appreciates and uses his leisure time wisely; (4) to teach the child the skills, abilities, and attitudes he will need in meeting the problems of home and community. The 1-room country school, the town school, and the city school—all try to realize these objectives with the children.

What is the modern high school like?

From many points of view, the best high-school systems of today seem to approach the ideal. The following description of one of the finest schools will help us to realize what the program extends to every boy and girl by way of varied opportunity in a high school education.

An example is that of a great high-school building recently completed in one of our large cities. This school, in the opinion of many experts, is the finest public school building ever erected. It is an 8-story structure that occupies half a city block and will serve 5,000 students and 228 instructors. Every modern fixture needed has been obtained for this school. Some of the interesting new features are:

Seven-room apartment for study of domestic science.
Conservatory on the roof for the study of botany.
Cages for animals to be borrowed from the zoological park.
Fully equipped laundry.
Bookbinding plant.
Banking department fully equipped with furniture, books, and adding machines.
Basketball courts on the roof.
Four gymnasiums with shower baths.
Seven large rooms for 200 sewing machines.
Typewriting classrooms with 200 typewriting machines.
Classroom with department store features. (These are used for the study of salesmanship.)
Luncheon room for 700 students.
Auditorium with large stage where 1,500 persons can be seated.
A large library—the heart of the school.

Such a building will cost about one and one-quarter million dollars.

In modern high schools the choice of subjects is wide. The usual subjects are: English; social studies; languages; all the natural sciences; mathematics; practical arts, such as business; agriculture, household arts, and manual arts; also the fine arts, such as music, literature, drawing, dancing, and drama; health and physical education. An attempt is made to give individualized education along lines of the personal interests of the students through curriculum subjects as indicated above, as well as through a broad program of extra-curricular activities. These extend not only into athletics, but include bands and orchestras, glee clubs, school papers and annuals, dramatics, debating, student councils, and clubs of various kinds.

What about modern education in the "backwoods"?

All over our United States there are "backwoods" sections— in the East, in the West, in the North, and in the South. These little communities, often cut off from the progress of the outside world, represent the worst of backward conditions. Fortunately, to combat such conditions, mission schools have been set up. Slowly these mission schools are raising the standards of education until soon the schools in the "backwoods" may equal rural schools. Out of these religious schools have come not a few leaders for our people.

How does the progress of education in the South compare with that in the North?

After the War Between the States, a new situation faced the South—free public education had to be provided for all citizens of school age; the problem was serious. There was tremendous expense involved in setting up separate schools for the white children, and for the colored, especially when all 16 of the former slave States were overburdened with debt and struggling to recover from 4 years of devastating war. A large number of the people were of school age; since the South was agricultural, its prospective students were scattered far and wide. Many of the new students were the heretofore uneducated Negroes. When the time arrived for reconstruction of the school system in the South, conditions were deplorable. Most of the public schools were made of logs; because the South was poor and desperately in need of laborers, teachers quite often received less pay than the State permitted for the hire of convicts.

For more than half a century, however, progress in the South has been amazing; but in spite of the progress made in education the South still ranks below the average for other parts of the Nation. The South has many improvements to make—even as the North has. In many Southern States less money is spent per year per child than in other sections of the country. Teachers' salaries there are still lower than the average in the United States; the school term is shorter; the attendance is more irregular; and library equipment is often meager. Illiteracy, poor economic conditions, and poor health conditions in the South are factors which indicate the need for equal educational opportunity throughout the country.

Can Negroes get a good education in this country?

The education of Negroes was in general forbidden in the South before the War between the States. Several millions of illiterate men, women, and children were waiting for the opportunity to attend school. As mentioned previously, separate schools for Negroes were established in the South. The Freedman's Bureau of the United States Government, between 1865 and 1870, established 4,239 schools for Negroes, these being among the first for Negro people. In proportion to their ability to pay, the Negroes themselves gave generously. Other substantial donations were made by the Federal Government and from private funds. Among the agencies assisting in the early development of schools for Negroes are the Peabody, Jeannes, Slater, and the Rosenwald funds. Since that time States have contributed funds and all agencies together have invested hundreds of millions of dollars in Negro education. Colleges and normal schools for Negroes have been established over wide areas in the South, although much still remains to be accomplished; however, sentiment is growing for providing equal educational opportunities for Negroes.

What has the United States done to educate the Indians?

America has yet another race problem to consider in the development of its educational system. The desire to convert and educate the Indians was in the hearts of the earliest colonists. During the religious revival which swept the country in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, the activity was intensified in this direction; denominational societies founded missionary schools in the Indian areas, many of which are still in existence. From 1819, however, when the Federal Government made its first appropriation of $10,000 for Indian education, control passed almost entirely into the hands of the Government. It operated four types of schools: Vocational schools not located on the reservation; reservation boarding schools; day schools in villages and camps, each taught by one teacher with the aid of the housekeeper; and contract schools, or schools for white children in which Indian pupils also were placed to be educated.[3]

Today the Office of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior, is the agency directing work for the Indians in our country. In 1929 the school policies of the Indian Office were changed so that the curriculum from school to school was varied to meet the needs of the community. This change resulted in many more Indian children attending school, especially the community day schools. Here boys and girls are taught to make use of their own resources, to respect their own culture, and to practice conservation.

What have been the advancements in general education in the West?

Advancement in general education in the West has been equal to that in other parts of the Nation. The early history of the West influenced its forms of education just as the culture of the South directed the development of its system. The Mormons, who were permanent settlers, early realized the necessity of setting up a sound foundation for the education of future citizens. The miners, on the other hand, brought to the West by the discovery of gold, had no reason to establish schools at first because there were no children to be taught. After they had brought wives to their new homes, and families had come to the West, schools sprang up everywhere. Colleges and universities soon followed. In this new territory where gold was plentiful, the people did not hesitate to spend vast sums in founding educational institutions. Today citizens in the West pay as much per capita for school taxes as do citizens in other sections of the Nation.

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[3] Dexter, Edwin Grant. History of Education in the United States. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1904. P. 462-67.

What special education is given to exceptional children?[4]

Early in the nineteenth century it was realized that schools were needed for handicapped children. There were special residential schools opened for the deaf and blind; these were followed toward the end of the century by day schools. The type of education at first tended to be too formal. Today, the schools try to get the same results in less formal ways. Materials are given to the children and they create what their ability makes possible. In doing so they gradually overcome feelings of inferiority.

Children who have trouble in hearing may be helped by being given seats near the front of the class. If the defect is a little worse, lip reading instruction may help. In the most severe cases, lip reading instruction, earphones, and amplifying equipment may be necessary. Special teachers need to be trained for work with this latter group.

To the blind child, the fingers and the sense of touch are most important. The Braille system for reading, which presents material with raised dots, is one of the first things to be learned. Maps with the surfaces raised to indicate mountains and valleys are of use in the work, too. As the child progresses, the typewriter is given him to aid him in writing. All these devices are really just aids toward making the exceptional child better able to get along in every-day life. Every State now recognizes the need for supplying this aid. Other types of physically handicapped children which some States provide for are the crippled and the speech handicapped.

Previously, only special residential schools in which children lived all the year round were organized for the mentally handicapped. Today the ideal is to try also to have the training for handicapped children a phase of work in the public day schools. There, teachers try to give them as many opportunities as possible to work and play with normal children. Children who are retarded in learning ability may be given unskilled or semiskilled occupations which will satisfy them. They should have guidance in choosing their work. Each should have special attention paid to work that is done to be sure it is of a kind that seems best suited to the child's needs. But in group planning and in many classroom activities, retarded children will follow others without the need of being singled out for special help.

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[4] Both handicapped and gifted children are called *exceptional*.

Gifted children present another problem. They are given the regular school work rapidly and spend their extra time in special activities and projects. This keeps them from losing interest in school sometimes. Special opportunity classes are organized for this extra work; and selection for these classes must be made carefully in order to keep the children on the right track. Children who are gifted in certain lines are often given advanced training in making the most of their talents. Some become musicians, others writers, others scientists.

Can adults go to school?

The main purpose of adult education during 1900–20 was to reduce illiteracy and to Americanize both the foreign-born and native population here in our country. The classes in English and Americanization were sometimes held in the homes of the women. While they were in classes, their children were cared for by some capable woman so that the mothers would have no worries. The men often got their education in the factories where special classes were held. Chautauquas, which were conducted by traveling lecturers, musicians, and others, were the main sources of culture for the small-town adults at this time. The years following 1920 marked a decrease in the Americanization and English classes. Since then, it has been necessary for all children to go to school so that when they grow up they may know how to read and write. Radios, newspapers, movies, and magazines are other helpful sources of learning.

The economic depression stimulated the formation of new classes in every subject, from crafts to politics. Due to the increased amount of leisure time which people now have, these classes are held to show people how to use their time to the best advantage. Many of the large cities are leaders in adult education. The night classes which are held in the high schools provide a curriculum almost as full as the daily schedule. Other classes are held at the Y. W. C. A., Y. M. C. A., Knights of Columbus buildings, and in churches. Another source of adult education is through extension courses given by the universities. Some universities hold classes in other towns, and they offer some courses by correspondence. They provide radio programs and movies for adult groups also. Of recent years—since the economic depression—the Work Projects Administration has sponsored many types of useful adult education programs which provide all types of educational opportunities demanded by local groups: Knitting, sewing, cooking, care of children, and other home courses for women; building, metal work, and mechanical trades for men; music, art, and literature courses for all.

Rural adult education is a little behind that of the city for several reasons. One of the main reasons is that about 74 percent of the rural population is without local public library service. Another reason is that many of the rural teachers do not have great interest in adult education. In the past 10 years, however, there have been a number of improvements as the rural people have been given more practical courses, such as those in agriculture and home economics. Such courses are proving very helpful.

Where does the money for our public schools come from?

The United States Constitution does not name education as a function of the National Government. Education, therefore, was one of the powers reserved to the individual States by the Tenth Amendment, but our Federal Government has aided the States in many ways in their efforts to provide good schools. In the early period of our country's life the first tax-supported schools were established almost entirely by local communities. Later on the people were convinced that education of children was of such great importance to the general welfare that it must be of great importance to the State; and as each commonwealth had agreed upon the establishment of a State system of public schools, local communities continued to solve their own problems of school management and support under the direction, and with the assistance, of the State. They were, then, enabled to tax themselves for school purposes.

The laws of practically every State today authorize local tax levies for school purposes. The minimum rate which must be levied is specified in a number of States; however, voters and school authorities are permitted in many instances to levy more than the required amount. Funds from State-wide sources are distributed to local schools, but these usually are provided to add to funds raised by local communities, rather than to relieve the locality of all responsibility. In the United States, the State and local communities continue to work hand in hand; and as changes take place in educational programs, so must changes in the plans for financing education be made.

For many years the Federal Government has provided funds for distribution among the States to help them with certain educational problems. Recognition of the value of vocational education, together with an increase in high-school enrollments by boys and girls who had previously left school to go to work, created a demand for this practical type of education. The first Federal aid bill for vocational education on the secondary school level was the Smith-Hughes bill of 1917, which has been supplemented or added to since that time. In cooperation with the Federal Government, States make available to public schools funds based upon use of 50 percent of the school program for vocational subjects. These include agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial education, and business education.

Civilian vocational rehabilitation programs are provided for on a similar basis.

Each State provides funds from State-wide sources for its public schools. In some States the county is the most important unit for school management and revenue. In a majority of the States the local school district is the most important for the raising of school revenue. If in those States where the county and the locality constitute units for school revenue, the funds of the State and county are not great enough for the needs of schools in a given locality, that locality raises the balance which it needs. For this purpose, the localities must depend upon general property taxes, whereas the States have many sources of revenue.

Today, a big question about financing public elementary and secondary schools is this: Should the Federal Government be giving more to education than it has given in the past in order to make educational opportunities more nearly equal in all the States, poor and rich?

What aid is being given for education today by the Federal Government?

Federal aid means the financial support given for education by the National Government. For many years there has been Federal aid in the form of land grants and gifts of money for specialized kinds of education. During our present financial crisis, the aid has been even greater than in ordinary times. Large sums have been given for libraries, forums, radio work, health work, construction of buildings, adult education, rural work, and vocational guidance and training.

From 1933 to 1937 the Emergency Relief Fund included nearly $2,000,000 for the public schools to be used in six projects which had never before been given much attention in our country. These included: (1) A survey of employment possibilities for the deaf and hard of hearing; (2) public forums; (3) research in universities; (4) investigation of problems related to units of administration in local school systems; (5) a survey of vocational guidance for Negroes; and (6) the educational radio project.

Not only public schools, but adult education projects have received Federal aid. From May 23, 1933, through October 31, 1935, the Federal Government spent a total of $48,725,266 for adult education in this country and for aid to students by paying them for part-time work so that they could attend college. Since 1933, there have been many other agencies set up to further the education of the people of our country.

The National Youth Administration, better known as the NYA, is one of the plans set up by the Government to assist needy students in continuing their education. It receives large amounts each year for its program of student aid on both high-school and college levels.

Besides the part-time work it gives to students, it aids in vocational guidance work, runs camps for unemployed girls and women, and sponsors a program of apprentice training.

The CCC, or Civilian Conservation Corps, established in 1934, is for the young men of our country from 17 to 23 who are unemployed and need employment. Its objectives are to develop pride and self-expression in each man; to develop in him an understanding of the social and economic conditions in order that he may face them intelligently; to assist him in getting a job; to develop an appreciation of nature; and to develop good habits of mental and physical health. This organization does provide actual work experience and specific vocational training. The Corps maximum authorized at present is 300,000. This, as for the other projects listed, is an emergency plan; but many hope it can be made a permanent part of our country's educational program.

The great changes in American life in the twentieth century have brought about accompanying changes in the American educational system from the primary through the university levels. Bigger and better educational opportunities are opening every year at all age levels.

What does the future hold for education?

We are now in a period of change in lower schools and in universities as well as in the everyday life around us, and what the final result will be we cannot tell. The elementary and secondary schools, and colleges and universities are alive to the changes and needs of modern life; they are working to do their share in bettering conditions; they are becoming better adapted to meet the needs of the large numbers of students who flock to their doors; they are fighting courageously to preserve their freedom of thought, speech, and inquiry; and they are making every effort to teach each student to think and discuss for himself, to seek the truth in an unbiased way, and to live a rich, meaningful life, as is fitting for every citizen in a *democracy*.

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APPENDIX

Chronological table of significant events in American public education

1621.—Earliest attempt to establish a school in the Colonies.

1635.—First Latin grammar school in America established in Boston.

1636.—Harvard College founded in Massachusetts.

1642.—Massachusetts Law of 1642, first law requiring education of children.

1647.—Massachusetts Law of 1647, requiring that schools be supported by every community of 50 families or more.

1719.—*Hodder's Arithmetick*, the first separate English textbook of arithmetic published in the New World.

1783.—Noah Webster's blue-backed speller for children published.

1785.—Continental Congress passed the Ordinance of 1785 for the Northwest Territories to set aside the sixteenth lot in every township for schools.

1789.—Constitution of the United States adopted.

1791.—Tenth Amendment to the Constitution allowing the States to provide their own education.

1806.—Lancastrian monitorial system introduced in a school in New York City.

1813.—Gideon Hawley became the first State superintendent of schools.

1818.—*The Academician*, the earliest known educational journal published in this country, started.

1821.—First free public high school in America established.

1821.—Troy Seminary, a school for the higher education of women, founded by Emma Willard.

1823.—First teacher-training school in America founded by Rev. Samuel R. Hall.

1827.—Massachusetts Act of 1827 requiring the establishment of high schools in all towns having 500 families or more, passed.

1837.—First State board of education in the United States created in Massachusetts. Horace Mann became its first secretary.

1839.—First public normal school opened at Lexington, Mass.

1855.—Henry Barnard began editing his famous *American Journal of Education*.

1862.—President Lincoln signed the first Morrill Act.

1867.—United States Department of Education (now called the U. S. Office of Education) established by Congress.

1890.—Second Morrill Act passed.

1917.—Congress passed the Smith-Hughes Vocational Act.

1936.—George-Dean Act for vocational education passed by Congress.

1939.—U. S. Office of Education transferred from the U. S. Department of the Interior to the Federal Security Agency.