DR. BENJAMIN M. SMITH'S REPORT ON THE PRUSSIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL SYSTEM

(THIRD INSTALMENT)

AN OUTLINE OF THE INSTRUCTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I begin with the first class, comprising children under eight years of age. They remain two years in this class. Oral instruction, reading, writing and arithmetic, are the branches. 1. The teacher's object is to teach the children *to think*. He uses no book. They are assembled as privately as possible, and he begins by asking them the most simple questions on the objects around them, the chairs, tables, benches, blackboard, their dress, persons, and the form of the room, the windows, stove, fuel, and such like. They are required to describe these various objects, or answer such questions as he may ask. He thus exercises their powers of perception. He may now tax memory, by questions on what they had seen, or on the knowledge he may have communicated. He next calls up absent objects and requires descriptions of the garden, house or street, with which any one is familiar. Of one, he requires a description of a horse, of another a wagon, of another a cow, and of a fourth, a garden. This latter opens a wide range of conversation. One tells what is found in a garden, another describes a tree, another a flower, another some useful vegetable; on one occasion the potato was mentioned, the great staff of life to the poor of Germany, as of Ireland, and the teacher improved the occasion, by pointing out the writer, as one who came from America, the land, where that plant was discovered, to impress the fact on their minds. In short, all that can be made interesting and awaken thought, quicken observation, strengthen memory, and affect the reasoning faculty, is called into requisition. Now he dwells on the usefulness of some animal, now the relations of the domestic circle, and now the beauty and more obvious relations of the natural world, the sun, moon and stars, warmth of summer and cold of winter. In this way they are exercised for several weeks or months, and then commences,

2. *Reading.*—Instead of a *memoriter* process of teaching the alphabet, and the slow and tedious spelling lesson, the teacher exercises the vocal organs on certain sounds of an elementary character, as vowels and consonants, with their combinations. With each sound, is associated the *form* of the letter or letters which represent it. All the elementary sounds are thus taught, before the *names* of the letters, and thus a distinction drawn between the *power* and the *name*. On a rack, prepared for the purpose, the letters are now placed in combination. This exercise is continued till the practice of associating *sound* and form, has made each familiar with their use. It interests a class, for instance, to take this phrase, "the good boy," and form the several words, till the whole is made out. Their respective names, those of articles about them, and other familiar objects, are used to fix attention. In fact, it is but the process which many an intelligent mother or elder sister adopts in the nursery, in our own country. The books are then taken up and the same phrases and words are presented, which have appeared on the racks, by the letters printed on cards.

3. *Writing.*—The black-board again comes in requisition. The proper position of the person having been shewn, their attention is called to a single mark. As the

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This is the third of four instalments in which an important Virginia document is again made generally available. Dr. Smith's report originally appeared as House Document No. 26, being transmitted to the House of Delegates at Richmond February 1, 1839, by Governor David Campbell. It was, said Governor Campbell in his letter of transmittal, "prepared at my request by the Reverend Benjamin M. Smith, a talented Virginian, who has travelled through Prussia and other European countries, and examined their schools and systems of public instruction."—EDITOR.

teacher makes this on the board, he says *"one!"* Every scholar imitates on a slate. He then adds another mark, saying, *"one, two,"* by which they regulate their own movements. These marks are varied, from the straight and angular forms to a curve. If in the form of a hook, it requires three directions, and *"one, two, three,"* from the teacher, indicates when the simultaneous movement of the pencil by the scholars, must be made. It is easy to see that this plan can be pursued to an indefinite extent, and paper, pen and ink, succeed to the slate and pencil. I never saw a German who did not write well, after enjoying the benefit of this drilling.

4. *Arithmetic.*—The simple elements of this science, are taught by means of the same objects, which are used under the first subject. After the pupils have been taught to count, the simplest processes of addition and subtraction are made perfectly familiar by the illustrations which their own persons or the furniture of the room afford. Multiplication and division succeed on the same plan. Instead of advancing to other arithmetical principles, these are carried out, by increasing the numbers in the various combinations, till they not only learn the multiplication table, but can, with facility, add up any amount which may occur in the ordinary concerns of life, subtract, multiply and divide it, or combine any two, or all these principles, in the modifications of the same example. The improvements in teaching this valuable science already introduced into many of our schools, by the books of Emerson, Colburn, and particularly Smith, are illustrations of the course alluded to, so far as the elementary portions are concerned.

I have been thus minute on the branches of the first class, because such modes of teaching are somewhat novel in many parts of this country. It may not be necessary to be as circumstantial in what follows, though I shall proceed on a similar plan to describe the mode of teaching other branches.

I am well aware that some are prepared to regard such details beneath the notice of the grave politician. But "if we would teach children, we must become children in feeling;" and if we would understand and appreciate modes of teaching, we must tax our manliness in a similar manner. Examples, I apprehend, if not clearer than abstract propositions, in the illustration of principles at least serve a most important part in ensuring perspicuity. Besides reading, writing and arithmetic, the branches taught are geometry, ornamental writing, drawing, grammar, religion, singing, science of music, physics, or the elements of the sciences and arts of life, geography and history, elements of political economy, with the application of mathematics to the simpler processes of surveying and civil engineering.

1. Arithmetic is continued through the second and third classes, and by the solution of questions gradually increasing in difficulty, its various principles are evolved, then embodied in rules laid down in books, and the pupils are required to apply these in practice, till perfectly familiar with both the principles and applications. The science is used in the fourth class for instruction in the simpler portions of mathematical science which then demand attention.

2. Geometry is commenced in the second class. The first lessons are mere explanations of geometrical forms and terms, for which a full supply of cards, painted and lithographed figures of squares, parallelograms, triangles, &c. is required, together with wooden models of solids. In the third class, the science of magnitude and measures is taught by the aid of books presenting the most familiar views of these subjects, which have been given. The use of visible illustrations is still pursued. Thus, for instance, the pupil is taught to calculate the measure of superfices and solids, by means of sections. Twelve cards, each an inch square, may be used to illustrate what

is meant by four square inches, or two inches square, or three inches square; and by increasing the number, he can be easily made to understand the principle on which all calculations of superfices are based, and diagrams on the black board are then introduced, and his information extended. By means of several solids representing cubes of an inch, a similar course of instruction can be pursued in that branch of the subject. The pupils are thus prepared for the application of arithmetic and geometry to the simpler processes of surveying and civil engineering in the fourth class.

3. *Singing.*—The cultivation of the science of music is a feature of national character too well known to need remark. I am not sufficiently acquainted with the science to do justice to the method used in imparting a knowledge of its elements. My impressions not being incorrect, the following is the usual plan: The first step is to teach the variations of the octave. *Time* is gradually introduced, the teacher elevating his hand as the voices of the pupils prolong the note, till his dropping it suddenly, denotes a pause. The power of the various characters thus explained, and the *form* and *power* familiarly associated and immediately recognized by figure and sound, the names are given, and the pupils gradually exercised on simple tunes, which are completely mastered before they attempt the more complex. The custom of relieving the tedium of other exercises by singing some lively tune for four or five minutes, and of opening the school every morning by singing and prayer, and the practice of this art in the domestic and social circle, as well as two or three times for ten or fifteen minutes together on every occasion of public worship on the sabbath, together tend to render this one of the most easily acquired, and at the same time most pleasant branches of school instruction. Instrumental music is rarely taught in the village schools, but in some of the towns pupils may be found taking lessons on the piano, whose parents are obliged to restrict themselves and families to the use of meat only three times a week! The black board, ruled for the purpose, is used in all the schools.

4. The exercises in *reading,* having been brought to that stage in the first class, that the pupils can give some short account of the contents of a lesson, the teacher proceeds in the second to instruct them in pronunciation, punctuation, emphasis and tone; not that these subjects have been entirely omitted, for from the beginning, they are taught to pay attention to them in some degree. Their lessons hitherto, however, consisting mostly of short sentences, have afforded but little scope for scientific instruction. The class begin by pursuing a course already alluded to, spelling each word in the sentences as they occur in the lesson. Each word is then distinctly pronounced, without spelling. A third process is to pronounce each word with the punctuation points, as they occur. The lesson is then read, regarding each point without mentioning it. A fifth time they read over the sentences, with reference to emphasis and intonation, "one thing at a time, and each completed before the next is undertaken." As they progress in the art of reading, some of the elementary processes are omitted. It may be remarked, that the orthographical and orthoepical structure of the German language require less attention to spelling than is necessary in learning the English. It is at the same time obvious that this department may be pursued to as full an extent as is desirable on this plan. Reading lessons are made the basis for much other instruction. Geography, biography, as connected with history, moral and religious truths, are thus often united with a lesson, and the numerous questions of the teacher on the sentiment of the piece read, tend at once to excite attention and interest, in what is too often a most irksome and vexatious process.

5. *Writing and Drawing.*—Proceeding, as already mentioned, the pupils soon ac-

quire a neat hand, and in the third class their skill is exercised in making ornamental letters. This is preparatory to *drawing*. Their acquaintance with geometry is now in daily requisition, and by the use of models, they soon acquire a facility of sketching and drawing plans, which is truly astonishing. Those who manifest any remarkable talent in this department, are often selected, and if poor, aided to pursue a more extensive course in schools established for teaching the arts. Very few fail to acquire sufficient knowledge to draw doors, windows, columns, facades, horses, cows, flowers, trees and small landscapes.

6. *Physics.*—Under this general head is included whatever relates to the external world. It is not pretended that the pupils are made chemists, botanists, natural historians or philosophers. The rudiments of these sciences, especially as applicable to arts and manufactures, and the daily business and intercourse of life, are meant. The subjects are divested as much as possible of technicalities, and when they must occur, the *thing* is explained before the word is used. Instruction in these sciences is given on a plan somewhat as follows:

The teacher mentions some simple machinery, by which he illustrates the mechanical powers. He will perhaps present specimens of each. The pupils are then taught the names by which these powers are designated. Or he will mention some of the more common phenomena of nature, and explain the principles on which they are solved. The influence of heat and cold, elective affinity, the conducting and inflammable powers of different bodies, with regard to heat, the process of combustion and decomposition, the fusibility of metals and similar facts, connected with natural science, are first presented by experiment, and the curiosity and interest in whatever is marvellous, natural to children, are strongly excited, and they are prepared to receive instruction with more attention, and retain truth with more permanence. The first principles of botany, the names, properties and cultivation of the most useful plants; the outlines of agricultural science, are taught by directing the attention of the children to the world around them. It is thus they are prepared for short and comprehensive text books provided for their use. These studies are pursued chiefly in the third and fourth classes, to which also belong the next branch.

7. *Geography and History* form a branch of physics.—We here observe the same predilection for beginning with simple illustrations. Perhaps the teacher teaches the points of the compass, by the position of different parts of the room. Or selecting the play-ground and school house, with any buildings, stream and hill in the vicinity, the miniature province thus laid out, is made the theme for the first study in geography. The pupil now hears the word explained. He describes this place, familiar by daily observation, and is then told such a description is its *geography*. A plot of the whole is now laid before him, and he learns this is a *map*. Real lines are traced across the room or play ground, and as he measures distances and locates objects by these, he learns what are latitude and longitude, meridian lines, the equator, tropics, large and small circles, &c. An apple or naked globe of wood is traced by such lines, and the globular form of the earth explained. From such lessons the transition to the book is easy. The map of Prussia or some portion of it, with descriptions of the productions, manufactures, remarkable places and so on, now engages his attention.

By somewhat similar methods, history is taught. The transactions of a week are recounted—then those of a year, and as the teacher extends the time, he enlarges the sphere of these transactions, beginning with those of one day in school, and ending by a synoptical history of the country for the past year. With historical accounts, anecdotes, biographies, &c. are interspersed, to interest and amuse, as well as instruct. The

history of Prussia, and the geography of that and the neighbouring German states, form the limits of thorough instruction in these departments. The common people are generally profoundly ignorant of other nations, and the United States in particular.

8. *Language.*—Under this head, I include all relating to the correct speaking and writing of German. The parts of speech are taught, somewhat as in this example: The teacher writes or pronounces the word *"read."* He asks the children, "what can you say with this word?" A variety of answers are given—"I read," "the boy reads," "I read to day," and so on. He then gives out another word, *"love,"* and similar answers are returned. Proceeding for some time in this way, he then directs their attention to the fact, that these words express some *action.* In like manner, he selects passive verbs. He now tells them, when a word means to *do* or *suffer,* it is a *verb.* A strictly neuter verb is then explained. The modifications of verbs, by mood, tense, number and person, are gone through. Nouns, adjectives and adverbs, and other parts of speech, are taught on a similar plan. Whenever the teacher discovers that his pupils understand the subjects, he furnishes them with the technical terms. They thus learn to use *"predicate,"* and *"subject"* and *"object"* with logical precision.

Connected with this branch, is composition. An interesting relation is made, or read, and the pupils required to give it in their own words, when they meet again. As they advance in information, they are furnished the outlines and required to fill up by imagination, and then subjects are given out. Receipts, bonds, indentures, letters of friendship or business, petitions and similar compositions are prepared, in all which, the strictest attention to grammatical accuracy is required. This branch belongs to the second, third, and fourth classes.

9. *Political Economy.*—I designate by this term, a series of elementary instructions on society, law, government, arts, and manufactures, which, with *Physics,* are generally comprehended by the Germans under one term, for which we have no word. They call it "real instruction;" i. e. what relates to the realities or materials of things. Polytechnic schools in France are "real schools" in Germany. The teacher begins with man in his natural condition, states his wants, food, clothing, shelter and protection, and how supplies are obtained. Then he speaks of man in the family; the pupil tells what is needed for a family, and how obtained. This leads to discussions of various trades, of their importance, their history, present state and advantages; then agriculture and manufactures are introduced, by speaking of food and clothing. Now the social condition of man, the organization of society, the necessity for various professions, the division of labour, the utility of some trades and professions, and the uselessness of others, are brought into the conversation. A wider range is taken in speaking of the government, protection of laws, establishment and necessity of schools, importance of religion, the rights of property. Family, social, civil, religious and patriotic duties and privileges, all enter into the subject matter of the instruction under this head. There are appropriate books for these studies, though a great deal depends on the teacher. They fall under the studies of the third and fourth classes.

10. *Religion.*—I never asked an urchin what he learned at school, that he did not first reply "religion." The great leading features of bible truth, are taught orally in the first class. Instruction is continued by means of the plain bible, hymn book and Luther's catechism through the whole course.

A selected portion of the bible is read by the teacher or one of the scholars. Then follows a conversation on it. The portion is generally narrative, or biographical. The

pupils are encouraged to ask questions freely; and the teacher makes explanations. Taking the history of the Saviour's early life, he explains the nature of his intercourse, and enforces obedience to parents, and diligence in acquiring wisdom, by his example. Or the teacher states some principles of good conduct, as fidelity and conscientiousness, and illustrates them by the history of Joseph: that God rewards the good and punishes the evil, and illustrates this by the history of Daniel. The history contained in the bible, is now attended to. With relations in their own words, of some of the most important events recorded, the pupils are required to unite biographical notices of such men as Noah, Abraham, Pharoah, Moses, David, and so on. Many of the most striking passages are committed to memory. The teacher furnishes a connecting history of the period, between the termination of the old and the commencement of the new testament, and then the latter is made the subject of study, as was the former. The life of Christ is most particularly presented. Connected with this, is a synoptical church history, in which the most important eras are noted, and dates accurately fixed. On the history of the reformation, and the biographies of its distinguished actors, as much minuteness is required, as we connect with our revolutionary war. For on this subject, there is awakened a national feeling. A still higher grade of religious instruction is that respecting the various books of the bible. I heard a class once examined on one of the epistles, in the new testament. Its author, date, subject, and analysis, both of the whole, and each chapter, the history of the people to whom it was addressed, and repetitions of select portions, formed the recitation. The repetition of Paul's eloquent and touching description of charity, by the whole class, was beautiful and affecting.

Although there are several sects of christians in Prussia, they all cordially approve the plan of religious instruction, which is the best evidence that the means used to avoid sectarian influences in its operation, are successful. Nothing could be more guarded than this subject. Every parent has the religious education of his children under his control. The jew has the same privilege. But as the instruction is historical, geographical, chronological and preceptive, rather than doctrinal, it often happens that children of different denominations receive instruction from the same teacher. Otherwise, parents are permitted to provide their own, or when the funds of the school admit it, the school authorities provide teachers for the several sects.

As already intimated, this outline applies generally. It presents less than is taught in towns, and more than the *poor* villages can afford.

But I have already exceeded my proposed limits in giving this outline, and close it with one or two general remarks, more appropriately following, than preceding it.

1. The *practical* character of the instruction given, is obvious to a superficial observer. If it be true, as some one has said, that, "education must be a preparation for life," we have in this system, one of the most complete kind. There is no superfluity, no mere theory in this. Technicalities are not thrown by, as some rash reformers desire. They are useful in their place: they are the circulating medium of thought, the exponents of known quantities. It is wise to impress first their value, to give their meaning, then their use is intelligible and convenient.

2. Education is more than instruction. It is the drawing out of the mind, and that in the due proportion of its several faculties. Neither is cultivated exclusively. Memory, judgment, imagination, conception, abstraction, as well as simple perception, are called forth into vigorous exercise. While useful matter is placed before the mind, that mind is taught to appropriate it and use it.

3. The religious features of the system are not the least valuable. A strong religious influence is ever at work. It is not sectarian bigotry nor licentious liberality, but the happy medium of toleration, a medium purchased by oceans of blood, and revolutions, whose volcanic eruptions shook christendom to the centre. The apostles' creed being the lesson in a school one morning, I observed, that the teacher omitted the phrase, "he descended into hell," and his explanation on inquiry, was, "that is a controverted point." This illustrates the remark already made, that sectarian views are avoided. These are left for the clergyman of the parents' choice. But the government insists on a religious influence in schools. A happy instance of the mode in which it is sometimes used, is furnished by the inscriptions of texts of scripture over the doors of school rooms, and in other conspicuous places. I remember seeing the words, "Go to the ant thou sluggard," on the wall of a small room, used to confine the idle and lazy.

4. I am not prepared fully to approve some things in this mode of instruction. Such is the custom of requiring the scholars to read together aloud. This may do for small children or for occasional use.

The use of oral instruction is perhaps carried too far: and the teacher often labours to make that plain, which is obvious already, and sometimes confuses the mind with too much illustration. This, however, is rather the fault of individuals, than of the mode.

On the system which has now been exposed, I would offer some remarks, but I feel that they are unnecessary. It is by no means supposed that such a system of establishing schools can be transplanted to every place. But some of its leading features might. It is by no means faultless, nor are its provisions always effectual. But its success has been unexampled, and now it is difficult to find the youth of 20, or under that age, and over 14, who cannot read and write. And in 10 or 15 years more, the full benefit of the law of 1819, will be conspicuous.

There is one defect unconnected with the system, yet incident to the national character, which acts unfavourably on the results of the system. I allude to the great want of books and periodicals adapted to the popular mind. The Germans possess an unusually literary taste. Their scholars are erudite; vast learning, original investigation and thought distinguish them. But there is little done for *the people*. Even romances and tales, are not adapted to popular comprehension. If we may consider as an exception from this remark, those which deal in the marvellous and foster superstition, we do not consider the exception honourable to national character. Newspapers are literally retailers of news; news of the exits and entrances of titled dignitaries, items from foreign nations, and synopses of the most general domestic intelligence. Prussia needs some More, and Edgeworth, and Sherwood, some Parley or Goldsmith, and in a word, a *popular literature*.

There are yet some points of inquiry suggested by you, to which I now proceed to attend. They relate to the statistics of primary schools, and the seminaries for teachers.

STATISTICS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS

This interesting topic deserves a more extended notice, than the synoptical plan I have proposed to myself in this report, allows.

Figures, based on facts, speak more directly to our understanding than general assertions. The information now presented, on the actual results of the Prussian school system, is as much entitled to credibility as the returns of a decennial census, the post-office department, or any other official documents of like character. For these returns are not averages or deductions. Every school committee reports to the county

inspector the number of children at school, the number who ought to go, and the number whose education is otherwise provided for. The tabular views based on these returns by the inspector, pass through the councillors of the regencies and provincial boards to the minister, by whom they are digested and compared with the documentary evidence.

From the last reports to which I have had access, I compile these general results:

According to the census of Prussia, there were in 1831, 4,767,072 children under 14 years of age. The reports give an attendance on the schools of 2,021,421. A general rule of statistics, based on the relative mortality of the several ages, gives three sevenths of those under 14, between 7 and 14, that is about 43 in 100. Of the whole number then, 2,043,030 ought to be at school. The deficiency is then 21,609. But it must be observed—1. There are returns from *public* schools, and the *private,* though not numerous, contain a considerable number of pupils. 2. Many more, especially females, (and males also among the higher classes,) are educated at home, and not included in these returns. 3. Many boys under 14 are so far advanced, as to belong to the gymnasia. Of these alone, there were in 1832, 17,000. Making the proper allowance for these, it might appear that nearly, if not the whole juvenile population of the proper age, is at school. It may be also remarked, that in some districts 55 out of 100 are at school. But even leaving the deficiency at its maximum, it appears that one ninety-fourth of the whole is the amount of that deficiency; while in Virginia, according to the second auditor's report, 19,000 poor children are without the means of instruction—which is about one tenth of the whole number in the state, who, according to your last message, ought to attend school. In these returns, moreover, we discover that the proportion of boys to girls, is as 43½ to 41. The difference, in the two sexes in favour of the boys, is chiefly ascribable to the fact, that more girls than boys are educated at home, and that the latter sometimes begin school under seven years of age. We may add here, that in the middle schools, there are 103,487 children of both sexes. The proportion of boys to girls is 56 to 46, (fractions not reckoned). My own impressions, corresponding with those of others, lead me to say that female education is more neglected, than that of males. In a city of 25,000 inhabitants, there was but one female school, of higher rank than a primary school, while the same city contained ten flourishing gymnasia for boys. True, females share with males the full advantage of that instruction, which is absolutely necessary.

Let us now turn to the number of schools and teachers. To show the improvement under the present system, I present the numbers for three periods, the first, that of the year 1819, in which it went into operation:

In 1819, there were 20,085 primary schools, and 21,895 teachers.

In 1825, there were 21,623 primary schools, and 22,965 teachers.

In 1831, there were 22,612 primary schools, and 27,749 teachers.

I include the middle schools, of which in 1831, there were 823. The excess of teachers above the number of schools, is owing to two facts—1. A double set of head teachers at least, is required for the middle schools, by their division of the sexes. 2. In many large schools, there are one or more assistants.

As the liberal or finished education of females is neglected, so we discover comparatively few females are employed as teachers. There are 981 who occupy the place of head teachers. Supposing that two thirds or three fourths, (either, an ample allowance,) of all the assistant teachers are females, there are then in all only 4329 (at most) employed. Of those who are head teachers, only eleven occupy that station

alone, the rest being colleagues, mostly of husbands or brothers. Indeed it is not considered proper for females to occupy a station so conspicuous, and even in girls' schools, "the sight of a woman, chief and manager, and a man her subordinate," says M. Cousin, *"is a bad sort of lesson."* Whether there be more propriety than gallantry in this remark, it is not for me to say.

Another important inquiry on this topic, relates to the cost of the whole system, to the people.

It is, as already observed, the duty of every parish to support its own schools, and if the levies for this purpose are insufficient, aid is afforded by the government. Estimates, based on official returns for 1819-21, shew that,

1. In 1825, the whole sum expended for primary schools in Prussia was $1,687,000, (in round numbers,) of which the government paid $108,000.

2. In 1831, the grant from the general budget for this purpose was $170,000, shewing an increase by more than one half. Now, if the people increased their contributions in the same proportion, the whole amount expended for 1831 by the people, was about $2,400,000, giving a total of $2,570,000.

3. The population at the time, here referred to, was estimated at 7,770,000, excluding children under 14 years of age. Deducting from this 25,000, students in the gymnasia, and 10,000 students of the universities and teachers' seminaries, we have 7,735,000 inhabitants to bear this expense. This gives an average tax of 31 cents and a fraction, on each person over 14 years of age, not a student. Basing our calculations on the number of families, and allowing eight members to a family, which for Prussia is a fair average, we have 1,500,000 heads of households paying about $1.60 each for primary schools. It will be remembered, that this covers the town levy and tuition. This is the *average.* Those who have children of an age to be at school, and those who have not, bear parts of the levy proportioned to their property. Those who furnish children pay a tuition fee additional, which varying from 6¼ to 25 cents monthly per scholar, is no great burden. I have not included the state appropriation, which does not come directly from the people. But were it included, it would vary but little the average to each householder. If, now, we base our calculations on the number of children educated, we obtain still more interesting results. The average price of tuition for each pupil is $1.28 cents, (omitting fractions.) This includes levies, fees and contingent expenses. But when we base our calculations on the number of pupils, we include those of both grades. Having no means of knowing the proportions of the whole amount paid for town schools, I am unable to present this more accurately. Yet knowing that tuition fees and levies must be both higher for them than for country schools, we may well make considerable deduction from the above average for the latter. Allowing even $150 per annum to each town schoolmaster, including assistants, which was the average in 1821, 3000 such will require $450,000. This makes no allowance for the contingent expenses of these schools. We have then left $2,120,000 for elementary schools, containing 1,917,934 children, giving the average for these $1.14 cents *per scholar, which includes every expense* for the whole year. This gives a fairer view of the subject. The town schools being supported on a different plan, that is, requiring double sets of teachers, at least of head teachers, located in more expensive places, and also affording more extensive opportunities of study, necessarily cost more. The expense to each scholar, of the 103,000 frequenting them, is something less than $4.50 cents per annum. This is the average, and includes all items.

(TO BE CONCLUDED)