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A HISTORY OF SPEECH EDUCATION IN NEW ORLEANS
PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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To

Fannie and Bette
TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION 1

CHAPTER
I. BEGINNINGS TO 1840—CLASSICAL INFLUENCES 5
II. 1841 TO 1861—NEW ENGLAND INFLUENCES 30
III. 1862 TO 1905—ELOCUTIONARY INFLUENCES 111
IV. 1906 TO 1925—TRANSITIONAL INFLUENCES 166
V. TEACHERS OF THE TRANSITION 217
VI. 1926 TO PRESENT—MODERN TRENDS 262

BIBLIOGRAPHY 340
APPENDIX A 353
APPENDIX B 360
BIOGRAPHY 365
Abstract

This investigation has undertaken to discover the extent and nature of speech training in historically significant periods of New Orleans Education since 1841. It logically divides itself into the period before 1841, for social and cultural backgrounds; the formative period from 1841 to 1861; the Civil War-Reconstruction period; the period of transition from 1905 to about 1925 and the modern period. An attempt has been made to answer these questions: How much speech was taught and at what levels? How does the program vary in each period? Who were the teachers and what was their own training? What are the present trends and what are the implications of those trends?

The chief sources of information have been such official documents as the Minutes of the Boards of Directors of the Public Schools of New Orleans, the annual reports of parish and state superintendents, parish and state courses of study, and acts of the city and state governments. Interviews and letters, and material in the public library, the professional library of the school system, the libraries of Tulane and Louisiana State Universities, were other important sources. Examination of textbooks used in each developmental period was useful in evaluating philosophies and trends and in determining content, types and method of speech training.

Before 1841 education was in the hands of religious and private institutions, whose philosophies were largely inherited from French, Spanish and English beginnings. The first teachers were Capuchin monks, Jesuit priests and Ursuline nuns. Two modes of Speech instruction
emerged as dominant, the classical rhetoric of the Jesuits and the Port Royalist training in the vernacular of the Ursulines. Attempts to establish public schools were unsuccessful because there was no motive of common language, common literature or patriotic civic duty to mold a unity of purpose.

The public school system of New Orleans began in 1841 as a result of the desire of leaders of the Second Municipality (one of three autonomous governmental agencies) to give their children an English education and to prepare them for the civic virtues of a democracy. The system was lifted from Massachusetts when the New Orleans leaders sought the assistance of Horace Mann. In the twenty years before the Civil War speech education was in the form of training for declamations, elocution, rhetoric and oral reading. Public examination of the children in the public schools was the device which exhibited skills in articulation, audibility and enunciation, in reading aloud, in declamations, in spelling and in recitations. Pestalozzi's influence was felt in group discussions and criticisms. Considerable attention was paid to language, especially in the older sections of the city where classes were duplicated in English and French.

The Civil War-Reconstruction period in New Orleans brought the unification of the schools under one board of directors. (Separate classes conducted in French were abandoned.) Speech education for Negroes, begun in 1862, was largely in the form of homiletics taught in the private schools established by religious groups. Oral reading, spelling and elocution were taught by white teachers from the North. When Southern control was restored in 1877, speech education became a
part of the new purpose to strengthen regionalism and overcome illiteracy. New immigrations from Germany, Italy and elsewhere forced attention to the improvement of speech. Emphasis was placed upon invention in speaking and thought getting in reading. Itinerant elocution teachers brought with them systems of instruction influenced by Austin's *Chironomia* and later by Delsarte's theories of body control. McGuffey's elocutionary influences on reading were felt for three decades after 1869. A school for deaf-mutes, established in 1881, operated until 1890. By the end of the century, children of the elementary schools were devoting about 110 minutes a week to declamation, 200 minutes to oral reading and over 100 minutes per week to etymology and spelling. A significant innovation was the use of *Memory Gems*, a graded collection of poems, for oral recitation.

The years from 1905 to 1927 are the transitional period in speech education in the New Orleans public schools. During this period academic independence came to speech when a separate Department of Expression with a separate course of study was established by 1909. S. S. Curry's textbooks, *Foundations of Expression* and *Little Classics for Oral English* were used by special teachers in the secondary schools. Instruction of deaf children was revived in 1911 and speech correction was introduced in 1920. High schools in New Orleans were required to enter the annual State Rally in Baton Rouge which featured contests in debate, oral interpretation and declamation. Elementary schools were required to conduct morning exercises and high schools were required to give Friday afternoon literary programs.

A significant phenomenon of the transitional period was the private schools where public school teachers could receive instruction
in speech. Among them were the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution operated by Miss Lily C. Whitaker and the New Orleans School of Speech and Dramatic Art operated by Bernard T. Hanley. Although the instructors held no baccalaureate degrees of their own, they issued normal school certificates and Bachelor of Oratory degrees which were recognized by the school board for appointment and promotion of teachers.

The modern period of speech education stems from a course of study for elementary schools adopted in 1927 and a course of study for high schools adopted in 1928. Under the term, English, emphasis in the 1927 Course is on oral communication. Six frequent occasions for oral communication are listed: conversations, reports and discussions, short talks, the oral story, simple dramatization and memorizing of poems. The Course emphasized correct speech models and a linguistic approach to correction of speech errors. The 1928 Course for high schools shows the influence of A. M. Drummond who edited a Course of Study in Speech Training for the National Association of Teachers of Speech. From 1933 to the present the chief influences on speech education were the courses of study issued by the State Department of Education which were devised under the direction of C. M. Wise and G. W. Gray of Louisiana State University. These stressed Woolbert's Fundamentals: Thought, Language, Voice and Action, and gave prominence to correction of common errors in speech. New Orleans high schools offer training in Fundamentals, Public Speaking, Debate and Dramatics.

A significant trend may be seen in the tendency of new courses of study in English to emphasize oral communication. At least one-third of the work done in English classes must be devoted to activities which come under the heading of speech. This new trend poses a problem for
the certification of teachers. While certification as a teacher of
speech requires eighteen hours of specialized speech training, certifi-
cation in English requires only twenty-four hours in English and none in
speech. A discrepancy obviously exists which should be remedied by a
reappraisal of content and a survey of types and methods in the fields
of speech and English.
INTRODUCTION

For as long as there have been public schools in the City of New Orleans speech has been an important element of the curriculum. It has been called by various names, rhetoric, language, declamation, elocution, extemporaneous discussion, oral communication, literary criticism, expression and others; but the earliest records show that speech was considered to be a necessary aspect of the courses to be followed, and was prescribed for every child in every stage of advancement through primary, intermediate, and secondary school.

Root has defined the scope of speech education to take in "all those activities of oral language of which individuals make use."¹ It includes:

. . . unspecialized activities of spoken language which are the basis for human intercourse; semiformal and social activities such as introductions, joining in discussion, salesmanship; preparation for the clergy and formal speaking---conscious preparation for an audience.²

For the purposes of this study, the chief question to be answered is whether, in the school program of the New Orleans public schools, there has been a conscious and consistent effort to help the child express his thoughts orally. The plan was to review from the beginning the history of speech education in the New Orleans public

¹ Alfred Ronald Root, "Shaping The Curriculum In Speech Education," "Quarterly Journal of Speech, XII (April, 1926), pp. 129-139
² Ibid.
schools with the purpose of finding out what was the relative position of speech in each of the developmental periods. This study has undertaken to show how much speech was taught, and at what levels. An attempt has been made to answer such questions as: How does the program vary in each period? Who were the teachers? What was their training? In addition, the study investigated certain professional skills involved in voice training, reading methods, speech correction, play directing, acting and platform performance. In connection with these investigations, the study sought to answer two other questions: What are the present trends in speech education in the New Orleans public school system, and what are the implications in those trends? It was felt to be important to show the cultural, economic and social backgrounds of the city. The combination of French, Spanish and English heritages along with later influences of German, Irish and other immigrants were considered in relation to agencies, organization, types, contents, aims and methods of speech education in the New Orleans public schools. The attempt was made to find the philosophies, the practices and the essential characteristics of speech education in the New Orleans public schools.

The historical backgrounds, movements and influences related to an understanding of contemporary speech education in the public schools of New Orleans were traced through a review of curricular and extracurricular developments. This study considers courses of study, textbooks, exercises and classroom activities on the one hand, and public exhibitions, contests, reading programs, lyceum and literary society activities, dramatics, special days and graduation programs on the other.
The history of speech education in the New Orleans public schools may be logically divided into five periods: (1) from the founding of New Orleans to 1840, for backgrounds; (2) from 1840 to 1860, for New England influences; (3) the period from 1860 to 1905, for elo­cutionary influences brought in through itinerant performers and private teachers; (4) the period from 1905 to 1925, when transitional influences were felt; and (5) the period from 1925 to the present. In this study these influences are discussed in their relation to the development of speech education in the New Orleans public schools.

Since no major work has been written on the subject of speech education in the public schools of New Orleans, it has been necessary to consult such of the original documents and records as have been found available, and to interview various persons who are informed on the subject. Primary sources of data include: Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools in New Orleans, records of the various municipalities, courses of study, teacher training programs, textbooks in use in each period, personal interviews and correspondence, personal experience, and reports of the state superintendents, as well as reports of the New Orleans superintendents and school principals. In addition there were newspaper accounts, bulletins of the School Board and the State Department of Education which added to an understanding of the subject. Among the studies consulted was the unpublished doctor's dissertation of Sister Mary Joanna of Dominican College of New Orleans, done at the University of Wisconsin under the title "Lily C. Whitaker: Founder of the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution" in 1954. Another study consulted was the unpublished Master's thesis of
Anna Elizabeth Sleeper, done in 1950 at Louisiana State University under the title of "A Developmental Survey of Speech Correction in New Orleans."
CHAPTER I

THE BEGINNINGS TO 1840

Political and Cultural Backgrounds. Six national flags and two state flags have flown over the City of New Orleans since its founding, and each represents an influence upon thought and attitudes with respect to educational agencies, aims, and content. First the flag of Monarchical France was brought to the new world by Marquette, La Salle, Iberville, Bienville and John Law. Next was the flag of Spain, established for more than 30 years by O'Reilly and Galvez. These were followed by the flag of the first French Republic, and the flag of the United States with its fifteen stars, which flew over the city after the purchase from Napoleon.

The state flag was raised in 1861 when Louisiana seceded from the Union. The Confederate flag, technically at least, when it was adopted in 1863, flew over the city, although the city was occupied by the Federal forces on April 25, 1862. The present state flag was adopted in 1912.¹

The cultural heritage of Louisiana is rich and exotic, blended from three Old World cultures of France, Spain and England. In this respect Louisiana is unique among the states of the Union; no other can lay claim to quite so colorful and fascinating a background.²

¹The New Orleans Book, (Published by the Orleans Parish School Board, 1919), frontispiece.

First to arrive, but not to stay were the Spaniards. Then came the French in the first half of the eighteenth century with their permanent settlements. Spain took over Louisiana by treaty in 1762 and held on until early in 1803. To the French and Spanish settlers were added through early immigration, German farmers, Irish and Italian refugees.

There seems to be little point in speculating on education in the French colony in its first years. The first census taken in New Orleans about 1722 recorded 72 civilians, 44 soldiers and 11 officers, 22 ship captains and sailors, 28 European laborers, 177 Negro slaves and 21 Indians. Forty civilians, 14 soldiers, 2 officers and 9 ship captains were family men, with a combined total of 38 children.

Classical Influences - Religious Schools.

Jesuit and Capuchin missionaries were the pioneers of education in the Mississippi Valley. Noble reports that in 1725 the Capuchin Father Raphael of New Orleans addressed a letter to his superior in Paris saying that he had just "made an establishment for a little school at New Orleans." To direct this school Father Raphael found a man who knew Latin, mathematics, drawing and singing and whose handwriting was fairly good. The school here mentioned amounted to little, but its only rival as the first school to be founded in the Mississippi

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3 Ibid., Preface.
4 Ibid., p. 39.
5 Ibid., p. 40
Valley was a Jesuit mission, supposed to have been established at Kaskaskia, Illinois, four years earlier.7

Fitzpatrick also credits the Capuchins with opening the first school for boys. He assigns the first school to a Father Cecil, Capuchin Monk. The curriculum was Latin, mathematics, drawing and singing. The school furnished catechisms, primers, elementary books, grammars and other material for advanced work.8

It appears from this narrow curriculum that the Catechism was used to teach reading, and because of the nature of the Catechism itself, the reading was inevitably concerned with two canons, memoria and pronunciatio. This view of the procedure is supported by Noble, who says the Catechism was used in fact to teach reading (p. 24). He points out that no matter what text was used, "there was no escape from orthodox readings intended for religious indoctrination" (p. 26). He further describes the method of teaching the primer as an oral activity in which the children were made to name the letters, spell the words and by many repetitions pronounce them on sight (p. 27).

There is evidence to show that the monks in time opened other schools, and that the Jesuits did some teaching as well. Capuchin monks, during the period while the Jesuits were expelled in 1763 by the

7 Ibid., p. 127.

Spanish king, took over and established a convent school next to the church in addition to the regular parish school. The *New Orleans Book* records that in 1726 Bienville sold to a company of Jesuits a plantation, which by 1745 "occupied about the area of the present First District, (Orleans, St. Bernard and Plaquemines Parishes). Their plantation became the first agricultural school of Louisiana, for here they introduced the cultivation of the orange, fig, sugar cane and myrtle, from which was obtained myrtle wax" (p. 11).

Jesuit instruction in rhetoric and oral composition has not changed essentially since the days of the Catholic Counter Reformation. The *Ratio Studiorum* of 1599 continued to be the basis for instruction. The Rev. Edward Doyle of the Loyola University in New Orleans and the Rev. Peter Quinn of the Notre Dame Seminary are emphatic on this point.

Instruction in a Jesuit school was largely oral, and all members of the class took part in most of the work. The education of the schools did not rest upon the written word, as is the case at present, but upon the spoken word. There was much individual tutoring. While other members of a class studied or wrote, the master might call pupils to him one by one and go over each boy's work with him. Remedial work was thus individualized, but teaching was mostly by group instruction.

The Jesuit teacher had several methods of procedure, all prescribed and all good. The first was the prelection, which resembled a modern lecture in some respects but differed from it in others. The teacher first read through without interruption the whole passage upon which he based the

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9 *New Orleans Book*, p. 12.
10 Personal interviews, February, 1955.
day's lesson. This passage had to be something from Cicero. Usually the excerpt was not over twenty lines long, and it might be as short as two lines. Next the master went back to the beginning of the passage, explained its meaning, discussed it sentence by sentence, phrase by phrase, and word by word, letting the students take notes. In this analysis the class co-operated as much as possible. The master next gave pertinent illustrations and examples from other passages in Cicero or from other authors, and he might give such further explanations or references to authority as he thought desirable. During the discussion and especially toward the end he was to introduce a few items that might contribute to a historical, geographical, scientific, or literary background. He was not, however, to forget his main objective of teaching pupils to speak and write Latin. He should not, therefore, be so full of facts about the historical background of Cicero's writings that he neglected Cicero's sentence structure. "Erudition" was to be left in the main to the university; the grammar school was to introduce only such tidbits as might serve either to interest the pupils or to explain the text. For what it was designed to do—namely, to analyze Cicero's style—the prelection is an excellent method. Incidentally, it was described by Quintilian, in almost the identical manner of use by the Jesuits.

A second method was called a concertatio. This was a general class discussion in which all members were encouraged to participate. It was somewhat like a modern recitation, but it contained other elements. The rivals could question each other, read each other's papers aloud, and correct each other. The subject matter of the concertatio was usually drawn from the prelections or written work of the previous day. It was a combination of oral review, oral examination, and recitation, with a great deal of pupil participation.

A third technique was the disputation, a heritage of scholasticism. There was a daily public disputation at which all pupils were present, plus private discussions and others on various important occasions. There were also declamations, both private and public.11

Another possible classical influence in speech education from the earliest days of the city's existence may be seen in the coming in 1727 of the Ursuline Sisters, whom Fletcher credits with being the first teachers. He says:

Education began in New Orleans in 1727 with the arrival of a group of Ursuline sisters and the founding there of a convent for the training of the future wives and daughters of the French colonists in Louisiana. They were invited here by the brothers Lemoyen (sic) through the Jesuit fathers to the convent at Rouen.

The Ursuline Convent became the first establishment in the United States for the education of young ladies. In addition, the sisters found time to teach a few Negro and Indian girls and to assist with the care of orphans, the old and the infirm.12

Fitzpatrick gives as the Ursuline curriculum reading, writing, Catechism, history, arithmetic, sewing, French, English, geography and housework.13 The Ursulines also taught Indians and Negresses reading, writing, Catechism, care of silkworms and making of silk fabrics.14

Again, the New Orleans Book records that the Ursuline nuns not only took care of the hospital, but also found time to give religious instruction for two hours a day to Indian and Negro women. The curriculum for daughters of the Colonists included languages, history,

12 Joel L. Fletcher, *Louisiana Education Since Colonial Days.* (Published at Southwestern Louisiana Institute, 1948) p. 1.

13 Fitzpatrick, p. 15.

literature, some science, mathematics and the art of letter-writing. There were eleven nuns in this school. Aims of the school, in addition to religious moralism, were preparation for home duties and gracious living, literacy and preservation of European culture. The Book records that "great emphasis was laid upon instruction in music and sewing, accomplishments required of every girl of the time."

This instruction bore fruit throughout the entire colony. The girls carried from the convent to the home circle, polish, charm, and refinement, the result of education, and seldom found in the rough surroundings of pioneer life. As a result of this training, the women far surpassed the men in culture, for the latter had no means of obtaining higher education without going to Europe (p. 110).

An interesting sidelight on how the Ursulines came to New Orleans may be worth mentioning. McGinty explains that trouble in the colony forced Bienville to go home to France, and while he was there he was instrumental in persuading the Company of the Indies to send "worthy young ladies to become brides of lonesome bachelors."^15

To chaperone these girls, the company contracted with the Ursuline Sisters, who were given a tract of land and Negro slaves. The Sisters accepted responsibility for selecting the young women and for passing on the worthiness of prospective husbands for them. In addition, "the Sisters were to serve in the hospital and teach the future girls of the colony" (p. 41).

Gayarre's description of the coming of the girls is vivid:

In the beginning of 1728, there came a vessel of the company with a considerable number of young girls,
who had not been taken, like their predecessors, from houses of correction. The company had given to each of them a casket containing some articles of dress. From that circumstance, they became known in the colony under the nickname of the "filles a la cassette", or the casket girls. The Ursulines were requested to take care of them until they should be provided with suitable husbands. Subsequently, it became a matter of importance in the colony to derive one's origin from the casket girls rather than from the correction girls. 16

The distinction is here included because a Creole caste system into which it developed seems to bear some relation to the development of educational philosophies and practices in New Orleans for many generations, even including the present.

**Port Royalists Influences.** It is pertinent to this discussion to show the relation of the Ursulines to the famous schools known as the Little Schools of Port Royal. While the Jesuits stemmed from Spanish origins, the Port Royalists were followers of a Dutch bishop named Cornelis Jansen (1585-1638), whose theological doctrines resembled somewhat those of Calvin. Wilds describes the movement in France:

Led by the Abbé De St. Cyran, a number of them settled at Port Royal, near Versailles in France, and there established in 1637 the famous schools known as the Little Schools of Port Royal. There were a number of orders of Catholic sisters devoted primarily to the teaching of girls. Some of the most educationally effective of these were the Order of Ursulines (1535), The Sisters of Notre Dame (1598) and the Sisters of St. Joseph (1650). The development of education for women among the Roman Catholics was greatly stimulated by the efforts of Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambrai, whose treatise The Education of Girls gave him place as the first modern theorist on the education of women, and

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whose work as supervisor of teaching at the Convent of St. Cyr gave evidence of his ability as a practical schoolmaster.17

The Port Royalists had a curriculum somewhat in advance of those of the other Catholic Schools. Instruction was in the vernacular, and classical literature was introduced through the use of French translations.

Latin grammar was studied only in so far as it was necessary for the reading of the classics, and a wide variety of authors were read for their content rather than for their style. Fenelon believed that the content of the school for girls should begin with illustrated stories in the vernacular; should include writing, arithmetic, and grammar; and should provide in addition such subjects as domestic law, ancient and French history, music, art, and embroidery.18

Thus there were two modes of classical influence in New Orleans during the eighteenth century, the rhetoric of the Jesuits, and the Port Royal techniques of the Ursulines. Others of the Jansen influence who came before 1840 added to the force of the Ursuline teaching. Wilds describes their advanced method of teaching reading in the vernacular by "introducing the phonetic method of beginning with the pronunciation of the sound, instead of using the prevailing alphabetic method of beginning by naming the letters."19

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18 Ibid., p. 304.
19 Ibid., p. 30.
They also insisted that nothing be memorized except what was understood, and they compiled new textbooks applying this idea of appealing to the reason instead of to the memory.  

A system or rhetoric by Bernard Lamy which he claimed was based upon a French Port Royal treatise is said to have had considerable influence in the development of American rhetorical theory. The so-called Port Royal Art of Speaking was translated from the French Treatise, The Art of Thinking, in 1696. Guthrie reports the book "opens with a discussion of the formation of the organs of speech. Then, following chapters on grammar and vocabulary, there is detailed consideration of trope and figure . . . the emphasis is clearly on a new concept: although one's style should be ornamental, this is never the end of style. Rather, style is always subservient to the end of speech." 

The Ursuline Nuns had conducted well-patronized schools in France, and as the population grew in New Orleans, and their enrollment increased, they took the lead in introducing a broad curriculum there to meet the needs of the times. They may have been familiar with the French treatise, Art of Thinking, for of the Ursulines school, Roger Baudier Sr., KSG, a leading historian of Catholic institutions in New Orleans, author of The Catholic Church in Louisiana and former editor of Catholic Action, wrote in a personal letter:

\[\text{20Ibid., p. 30.}\]

In New Orleans, the oldest institution of learning is the Ursuline Academy, established in 1727. In 1822, a directory of the city stated that the Ursulines "teach everything excepting dancing." One of their aims was to impart the social graces and turn out young ladies of grace and refinement, as well as good Christians. Declamation was included in the Ursuline curriculum. The Convent also went in for school plays and pageants, besides those special programs at school closing time, referred to as exhibitions. These included invariably recitations, dramatic readings, musical numbers, etc. intended to disclose the development of talent and achievement by the students. 22

Continuing Catholic Influences. It is not pertinent to this study to show the trials and tribulations of the early settlers. There were many setbacks. By 1730 the population in the Louisiana colony had reached 5000 whites and 2000 blacks. The white population, according to the New Orleans Book, consisted of French, Germans and Canadians (p. 12). But it is important to record that the early education, under Catholic teachers, was a continuing and growing social influence upon the people of New Orleans which reached major proportions during the last century and still continues.

As Baudier pointed out in his letter:

The teaching of elocution may be found in the curricula of Catholic schools far back in the last century, just as was the case in other Catholic schools in other parts of Louisiana, such as the Academy of the Sacred Heart and St. Charles College at Grand Coteau—the former established in 1821, and the latter in 1837, at the Academy of the Sacred Heart at Convent, La., 1825; St. Gabriel College, St. Gabriel, La., 1829; Presentation Academy, Cocoville, La., 1853, etc.

22Roger Baudier, Sr., KSG, personal letter, November 12, 1954.
Private schools of the past century operated by Catholic religious orders or congregations (other than parochial schools), include (in New Orleans): URSULINE ACADEMY; MT. CARMEL ACADEMY, 1938; COLLEGE OF THE IMMACULATE CONCEPTION, 1847, now JESUIT HIGH SCHOOL; ST. ALOYSIUS COLLEGE, 1869, now ST. ALOYSIUS HIGH SCHOOL; HOLY CROSS COLLEGE, 1878, now HOLY CROSS HIGH SCHOOL, originally St. Isidore's College; PERPETUAL ADORATION CONVENT, St. Agnes Academy, 1875, now Annunciation High School; ST. JOSEPH ACADEMY, 1861; ST. MARY'S COLLEGE of the Christian Brothers, 1851-1865 and 1880-1883; ST. SIMEON'S SELECT SCHOOL, ST. SIMEON'S ACADEMY, 1860-1912; ST. MARY'S ACADEMY (Colored), 1882; ST. KATHERINE'S ACADEMY of the Sisters of Mercy, New Orleans, after 1870; ACADEMY OF THE SACRED HEART, Dumaine Street, 1867 (closed around 1917).

The private Catholic schools or academies for girls flourished tremendously during the past century. So did Catholic boys' colleges when they were started—they came later, except for Jesuit High School, formerly College of the Immaculate Conception. Besides the religious view, one reason was the Creole caste system, which required training in a select environment, but also in social graces and cultural subjects. There was also the strong aversion against public schools, regarded as charity schools because they were free, but above all, they had a hodge-podge of all classes of people attending. Creoles and the elite among uptown Americans wanted their children to "shine" socially and to be superior in attainments, and they felt they could best achieve this through attendance at schools of the Sisters, Brothers or the Jesuits. That is why too they were heavily patronized by Protestants and Jews. These schools all taught declamation and rhetoric, also music--voice and instruments. Exhibitions gave parents an opportunity to see their children performing publicly, and at the same time students and their achievements as developed by the school, were "displayed". There is no questioning the fact that the Catholic schools, academies, boys' colleges, etc., were a tremendous cultural influence in Louisiana during the past century.

Parochial schools in New Orleans began in 1848, with a small school in Redemptorist Parish, then St. Patrick's Free School was opened in 1850. Other
parishes in the city from then onward, opened parochial schools. Until the early 1890's, Sisters taught girls only, and boys' schools were usually directed by the pastor, and staffed by laymen. However, Sisters taught catechism to both boys and girls. Such "priest schools" for boys were those of Father Cornelius Moynihan of Sts. Peters and Paul, St. John the Baptist under Father Jeremiah Moynihan, Father Kenny's at St. Theresa's, Holy Trinity for German boys, St. Boniface for German boys, Father Durier's at Annunciation—there were others. These originated before the War of Secession, except St. Boniface, which started just after it.

Elocution or declamation was taught in these schools. Some form of exhibition was used also in every parochial school, including especially recitations, dramatic readings, "memory gems" and short plays, but the plays were not as elaborate as in the academies, colleges and other private Catholic schools.

The formal normal school for teacher training for Catholic schools was not established in New Orleans until 1908. This was at St. Mary's Dominical Convent, St. Charles Ave. and Broadway. A decade later, the Sisters of Mt. Carmel started a normal school at Mt. Carmel Academy. However, from the time that the various teaching Sisterhoods established themselves in New Orleans in the past century, they had their teacher training programs for their own teaching Sisters. This included study of the various subjects to be taught. Besides preparation of young Sisters being prepared to be "missioned", those already teaching had training periods during vacation, as their records reveal.

Private Instruction. There were few secular schools in New Orleans before the nineteenth century. These were private, tutorial or governmental, as in the case of the school established by the Spanish government in 1772. 23 Gayarre's explanation of the conditions when the Spanish took over in 1769 gives an insight into the situation. When O'Reilly became governor, he ordered a census and found the population

23 Fitzpatrick, p. 16.
of New Orleans was 3190. Included in this count were officials and soldiers who were interested in getting rich or being promoted and returning to France with increased honors and ampler means of enjoyment. Of the other inhabitants Gayarre says:

A good many had been transported to Louisiana by force and detested a country which they looked on as a prison. Others whose coming had been the result of their own volition, had been deceived by wild hopes and promises. If they labored at all, it was to acquire the means to go back... to their birthplace in Europe, and they had even impregnated their offspring with these notions. Unfortunately, Louisiana was a mere place of transient and temporary sojourn, but no home for anyone.

In spite of this, Gayarre's accounts of the "artificially graceful deportment" in the manner of living is interesting:

There were but humble dwellings in Louisiana in 1769, and he who had drawn inferences from their outward appearance would have thought that they were occupied by mere peasants; but had he passed their thresholds, he would have been amazed at being welcomed with such manners as were habitual in the most polished court of Europe, and entertained by men and women wearing with the utmost ease and grace the elegant and rich costume of the reign of Louis XV. (p. 354)

Gayarre's account suggests that there was higher private instruction among the influential French. Economic and social conditions in New Orleans in the eighteenth century were ripe for an aristocratic philosophy. Slaves were plentiful, of course, and their education was in terms of their labor. The merchants and mechanics were required to have a certain amount of elementary training in reading, counting, and

25 Ibid., p. 358.
letters. Among the higher classes training was for the clergy, or for management, politics and law. One common interest was in language, entertainment and display.

Of the Spanish public school, Fortier quotes a dispatch from Governor Miro, dated April 1, 1788. It records that "Don Andres Lopez de Armesto arrived from Spain as director of the school that was ordered to be established in New Orleans; Don Pedro Aragon as teacher of syntax; Don Manuel Diaz de Lara as teacher of the rudiments of Latin, and Don Francisco de la Colins as teacher of the elementary branches." Textbooks and library books were supplied, yet the school was never well-attended.

A private school was opened by Don Louis Francisco LeFort, a naturalized "vassal" of Spain, with consent of the Spanish government in 1800. He proposed to teach "the first letters" and universal and particular grammar, the Latin, French and English languages, arithmetic, algebra, elementary astronomy, geography and history.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century and the first part of the nineteenth century the population of Louisiana grew enormously. When Louisiana came into the American sphere of influence in 1803, the population was about 60,000, of whom more than half were slaves. About 30,000 people lived in New Orleans. "Most of the whites were of French blood; there were a few hundred Spaniards, and a scattering of Germans,


27 Fitzpatrick, p. 17.
Italians, Greeks and other Europeans."  

The *New Orleans Book* suggests the cosmopolitan flavor of the city by listing the inhabitants as "French, Spanish, English, Americans from the States, Germans, Italians, refugees from San Domingo and Martinique, emigrants from the Canaries, Gipsies, Negroes and Indians" (p. 20). Kentucky flatboatmen often came down the river with raw produce and Canadian trappers and hunters were frequent visitors. Irishmen joined the English and Americans in the city's commercial life.  

McGinty points out that Americans began to flock in about 1800, mostly from Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, the Carolinas, Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee. After 1830, Irish and German immigrants swelled the ranks of New Orleans population. Now their influence began to be felt in New Orleans. By 1850 only half the population was native born. The rest came from other states or from foreign countries (p. 163).  

At the time of the Louisiana Purchase, the Roman Catholic church was the only legally recognized church, and it continued to grow and prosper. Most of the Irish and many of the German immigrants were Catholics. The Catholic church maintained schools and orphanages, and by 1868 its total property had a greater value than any other denomination.  

Harris points out that the early church schools were at first confined to the Catholic church, but as the other peoples came in,  

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28 McGinty, p. 162.  

29 *New Orleans Book*, p. 20.  

30 McGinty, p. 163.
Protestant schools, especially colleges, were established. The church schools were supported by tuition fees and donations. \(^{31}\) Methodist, Baptist, Presbyterian and Episcopalian missionaries began to arrive soon after 1800. McGinty writes that some of them attempted to care for orphan children. \(^{32}\)

In addition, there were many private schools, which later shared in public funds for schools because this was an economical way to reach the children. Nearly all families of means employed private tutors. \(^{33}\) Fortier speaks of private schools being advertised in the *Moniteur de la Louisiane* in 1803. In one, the Sieur D'Hebecourt announces that he has just opened a school "where will be taught Latin, French, English, geography, history and mathematics; also if requested the agreeable talents of music, drawing and dancing." \(^{34}\)

Others testify to the rapid strides of private education in the early nineteenth century. Harris records that many private schools sprang up that were in no way connected with the churches. "They were founded and operated by private teachers who were for the most part well educated. Most of them were men, many of them ministers, -- college bred, -- of broad scholarship and powerful personality." \(^{35}\) Harris adds that "many of the private schools later became beneficiaries of the

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\(^{31}\) Harris, p. 2.

\(^{32}\) McGinty, p. 167.

\(^{33}\) Harris, p. 2.

\(^{34}\) Fortier, p. 219.

\(^{35}\) Harris, p. 2.
public school funds." (p. 3)

Scroggs confirms this in the following statement:

Soon after Louisiana was admitted to the Union, a number of academies were founded and supported by the state. In fact, the Legislature at first authorized more academies than it was able to provide for properly... Some of these academies called themselves colleges, but today few of them would rank even as high schools.36

Scroggs makes the significant observation that most of the Americans who came settled in the suburban area known as Sainte Marie. It was here that the public school idea took hold.

Referring to private schools of the time, the New Orleans Book points out that these schools were taught by men who were exponents of the doctrine of formal discipline and followed a rigidly narrow program. Subjects included English, French, and other languages, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, chronology. Girls also were taught sewing, fancy work, dancing and music:

Special teachers who went from house to house gave lessons in deportment, that is, the correct manner of entering a parlor, of standing, of sitting, of addressing persons (p. 111).

These apparently correspond to private elocution teachers from whom it was considered fashionable to "take," and from the description may have included the teachings of an Irishman, the Rev. Gilbert Austin, whose Chironomia was published in 1806, and who devised an elaborate system of gesture and bodily action.

Noble sums up the period by emphasizing that the private schools of New Orleans had practically the whole field of education to themselves during the first quarter of the nineteenth century. He takes due note of the College of New Orleans, a state supported school which operated from 1812 to 1826, but emphasizes that the instruction was hardly comparable to that of a good secondary school today.\textsuperscript{37}

Parents in the first quarter century were forced to employ private tutors or to send their children to private schools to learn to read and write their own language or one of the others.\textsuperscript{38}

In 1826, Karl Postl published in London his book, "Americans as They Are." He described in New Orleans the College of New Orleans, a Catholic secondary school, and a school conducted by Mr. Shute, an Episcopalian clergyman, as the only institution in the city, except the private primary schools and a few boarding schools for girls.\textsuperscript{39}

**Beginnings of Public Education.** While early attempts to establish public schools in New Orleans were generally unsuccessful before 1840, it is significant that the seed was planted by Governor W. C. C. Claiborne in 1803 in his message to the Territorial Legislature of the Orleans Territory. Harris quotes him as calling attention "in forceful language to the importance of public schools open and free to all the children."\textsuperscript{40}

\textsuperscript{37}Stuart Grayson Noble, "Schools of New Orleans During the First Quarter of the Nineteenth Century", Louisiana Historical Quarterly, Vol. XIV, 1931, pp. 65-78.

\textsuperscript{38}\textit{Ibid}.

\textsuperscript{39}\textit{Ibid}., p. 70.

\textsuperscript{40}Harris, p. 4.
Governor Claiborne wrote to the Mayor of New Orleans on August 3, 1805: "I am aware that the building now occupied by Col. Freeman was formerly used as a Public School House, and I should be pleased to see it again appropriated to the same laudable object." It is possible that the schoolhouse referred to could have been the Spanish school, which Fortier reports was still in operation in 1803.

The Legislature authorized establishment of a college in New Orleans, and in 1805 authorized support of the Orleans College through a lottery. Nothing was done until 1811, when the Legislature appropriated $15,000. On February 16, 1821, the Legislature passed a general school act directing police juries of each parish to appoint five-man school boards. However, Noble makes the comment that with the exception of certain official letters, "there is no evidence that any public institution, either of primary or secondary grade, other than the College of New Orleans, was established between 1805 and 1826."

The 1821 General Act did not include the City of New Orleans, but in 1826 the Legislature abolished the College of Orleans and used some of the funds to establish two elementary schools and one high school. Harris believes that one of the elementary schools was for boys and one for girls. "The high school appears to have been for

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41 Noble, "Schools of New Orleans"
42 Fortier, p. 227.
43 Harris, p. 6.
44 Noble.
boys only.\textsuperscript{45} Nothing permanent was developed, and another General School Act was passed April 1, 1833. This act provided for the secretary of state to become the superintendent of public education. Four dollars per month was allotted for each child in schools of 10 pupils or under; $3 for schools enrolling 10 to 20 and $2.50 when the enrollment exceeded 20. The school boards were required to furnish textbooks free.\textsuperscript{46}

When this plan also failed because of lack of support, the Legislature acted again. Again quoting from Harris:

\begin{quote}
In 1841 the Legislature prescribed a school tax for the City of New Orleans of two and five-eighths dollars for each taxable inhabitant of the city, the maximum not to exceed $10,000 for the entire city, and with the provision that each of the several municipalities into which the city was divided should support at least one school (p. 9).
\end{quote}

So far as the rest of the state is concerned, it took another general school act on May 3, 1847, to set up the public school system. Under this act a state superintendent was named and funds were provided. Orleans and Jefferson Parishes operated under separate acts.\textsuperscript{47}

\textbf{The College of New Orleans.} One of the best accounts of the operation of the College of New Orleans is given by Noble. He records that the college actually opened early in 1812. It was authorized to issue degrees, but there is no evidence of its ever having done so.\textsuperscript{48}

\begin{footnotes}
\item[45] Harris, p. 6.
\item[46] Ibid., p. 9.
\item[47] Ibid., p. 10.
\item[48] Noble
\end{footnotes}
The College of New Orleans opened its door as a grammar school of the type then familiar in Europe and in the Atlantic States. As such it entered into active competition with private schools of the same rank (p. 74).

Examinations were public. In 1819 the public was invited to witness examinations in arithmetic, geometry, algebra, mechanics, Latin, French, and Spanish.

By the act of 1805, the curriculum of the New Orleans College appears to be modeled after the academies of the Atlantic States, rather than the more narrow classical programs of the old Latin grammar schools. But Noble comments that while the college seemed to owe its origin to Anglo-American influences, there is reason to believe that the Creoles dominated the plans for its operation. They were generous contributors and chief supporters (p. 75). There was some speech activity in the form of literary exercises in which poetic as well as prose composition was encouraged. The attendance numbered about 100; discipline was very severe (p. 76).

Many of the Anglo-Americans objected to the minor place English seems to have had in the study course. There were other objections. Some wanted religion included and some found fault with the management. The Legislature abolished the college March 3, 1826, after a 15-year struggle for public education. 49

There seems to have been little need in the city for secondary instruction, but considerable demand for primary instruction (p. 77).

49 Ibid., p. 77.
Lakanal, the French revolutionary, was appointed to the principalship in 1826 and the college was closed shortly afterward. Lakanal and Daunou had instituted the French *écoles centrales* in 1795. Noble finds a striking resemblance in the New Orleans College to these schools (p. 75). He points out that the next move in New Orleans was to establish a central school and two primary schools—also seemingly patterned after Lakanal's schools in France (p. 78).

Commenting on the failure of the College of New Orleans, McGinty calls attention to the lack of financial support, and the need to maintain the school through lotteries. But the biggest point he makes is that of the inadequacy of the students to do college work.

Practically all of the instruction of the College of New Orleans was on the secondary level; only a few students were ready for college work. Charles Gayarre, the historian, was the most noted graduate of the college. As was then the vogue, the curriculum was top-heavy with languages---Latin, French, Spanish, and English, and there was literature and some mathematics.

Dissension developed within the college between the French and English factions; during the last years instruction was conducted entirely in French. Financial support was withdrawn in 1825 and the school closed the next year. 50

It is obvious that the "literature" in the curriculum must have been used in the humanistic sense to include grammar and rhetoric.

While it is not part of the purpose of this paper to review the history of the other colleges in Louisiana, it may be worth mentioning for background that there were a good many before 1860 which were

50 McGinty, pp. 170-171.
state-supported. To list a few, there were the College of Louisiana at
Jackson, 1825 to 1844; the College of Franklin, 1837 to 1845; the College
of Jefferson, 1831 to 1845; the University of Louisiana, destined to
become Tulane University; St. Charles College at Grand Coteau, established
by the Jesuits in 1837—and others. The census of 1860 showed 15
colleges in the state having 1530 students and 86 professors.⁵¹ Liberal
arts education generally was sought as a foundation for the study of
medicine, law and the ministry.

Summary. A summarizing judgment of speech education in Louisiana
would indicate that rhetoric, except for the Port Royalist influences on
the Ursulines, clearly dealt with form and style of oral discourse.
Grammar and composition were taught separately. It is also clear that
memory was a most important part of the teaching of rhetoric. If there
was invention, it was probably the finding of suitable examples, rather
than a systematic analysis. Dispositio could have been little more than
the arrangement of material for delivery. Style was imitative and
delivery was elocutionary and artificial.

Whereas education in other parts of the country by the 19th
century showed signs of strong nationalistic tendencies, there was no
parallel situation in Louisiana to induce a movement toward nationalism
and its resulting tendency toward public support of education.

Whereas the tendency in other parts of the nation was toward
universal and free education, there was no motive of common language,

⁵¹Ibid., p. 172.
common literature or patriotic civic duty to give emphasis to public education in Louisiana and in New Orleans. The agencies of instruction was the home, private teachers and the church. Even in the few church schools there was no overall organization or gradation of administration. Methods varied, depending on the instructor, from severe discipline to close companionship.

Contributing causes for the indifference to public education in Louisiana before 1840 may be found in:

1. The sparse population and the agrarian philosophy of the early settlers.

2. The lack of nationalism of the early colonists—who wanted for the most part only to go back to France.

3. The strong hold of Catholic counter-Reformation attitudes of the Frenchmen (that is the subjection of the individual to institutional control).

4. The early immigration of German peasants, who were themselves strongly nationalistic and in many cases products of the Protestant Reformation.

5. The fact that Louisiana was only a sympathetic bystander rather than an active participant in the American Revolution.

6. The excellence of the religious and private schools.
CHAPTER II

1841 to 1861 - NEW ENGLAND INFLUENCES

The Beginnings of Public Education. Despite the several earlier attempts to establish public schools in New Orleans, no permanent organization was developed until 1841, when the Second Municipality set up a school program on May 15. The fifteen-year trial of the old College of New Orleans, plus the establishment of a central school and two primary schools, after the French fashion had been important forerunners. The few early attempts to found public schools by the French and Spanish provincial governments had been practically complete failures, and the attempts immediately following the Louisiana Purchase had been equally impermanent.

This chapter will undertake to show how the political and economic history of New Orleans, added to social and cultural backgrounds, influenced the development of general education and tended to give speech education a prominent place in the curriculum. It will also attempt to show how when the public school system was established it came under New England influences in terms of organization, aims, and content as a result of the desire of the people of the Second Municipality to give their children an English education, and to prepare them for the civic virtues of a democracy. Since the early influences which were most permanent and most pertinent to this research are to be found in the Second Municipality, later the First District, the records of this organization contain more significant information than do the others. However, for the formative period, for complete background, records of the various municipalities have been consulted where they were found available.
For detailed accounts of the early school programs in each district, recourse has been made here to the minutes of the boards of directors, which were found available at the office of the present school board in New Orleans.

To understand the conditions which led up to the establishment of a permanent system of public education, it will be necessary to explain the remarkable autonomy of the old city government from 1836 to 1852 and to show that the governmental plan had an important bearing upon the establishment of public schools. Under a charter of 1836, the city was divided into three autonomous municipalities, each with a council of its own, but subject overall to one mayor and a General Council which met once a year. Each municipality, by an act of the State Legislature in 1841, was "authorized and required to establish within its limits one or more public schools for the free instruction of the children residing therein." The act instructed the municipalities to set up boards of directors to organize the new school systems, and "to make such regulations as they judge proper for the organization, administration, and discipline of the said schools, and to levy a tax for the maintenance of the same. Every white child residing in a municipality shall be admitted to and receive instruction therein."¹

Municipality One extended from Canal Street in the downriver direction to Esplanade Avenue. Municipality Two extended from Canal

An Act Authorizing the Municipalities of the City of New Orleans to Establish Public Schools Therein: 1841
Street in the upriver direction to the Jefferson Parish line at Felicity Road (then called Lafayette), and Municipality Three took in the area below Esplanade and Bayou St. John. Each had its own set of municipal officers, its own municipal obligations, its own fire department, and its own school system.

Even after the City of New Orleans was consolidated on February 23, 1852, through a legislative act, and the town of Lafayette was taken in, the public schools remained separated into four school districts with autonomous boards for each. The First Municipality became the Second School District; the Second Municipality became the First School District; the Third Municipality became the Third School District, and the town of Lafayette became the Fourth School District.²

It was this political division of the city which made it possible for the development of a permanent school system. Under the new city charter, the Second Municipality was the first to act. Records of proceedings of the Board of Directors of the Public Schools of Municipality Two of the City of New Orleans are found in the minutes of the board dated May 15, 1841. The board met "in the Council Chamber of this Municipality" at 5 P. M. Edward Yorke was elected president of the board with eleven of the thirteen votes cast. Rules of the Council were adopted to govern proceedings of the board. The president and a member from each ward, John A. Maybin, W. L. Hodge, and P. K. Wood, were appointed to prepare and submit a plan for the organization of the

schools. They were instructed to procure from other parts of the United States "all the information that experience may have furnished them with, on the subject." 3

In a speech delivered at the dedication of the Fisk Free Library, reported in the Picayune on January 17, 1897, Milton C. Randall, an old citizen, gave such a vivid account of the motives involved in setting up public education that a good portion of the speech is recorded here. Randall points out that the French and Spanish and earlier settlers lived in the First and Third Municipalities and the Anglo-Saxon element largely prevailed in the Second Municipality between Canal and Felicity. The German element was settled largely in the Town of Lafayette.

Randall credits W. P. Converse and Samuel J. Peters with bringing about the consolidation in 1852. The vote was difficult to manage. Lafayette was the field of battle.

The sturdy Teutons of that thriving little city battled between themselves, with the Saxon branch holding the balance of power. Peters the old political veteran, was converted over to annexation. For this Peters was mobbed, but annexation prevailed, by modes, it is said, best known to politicians, and modes by which conversions were made easy though of doubtful ethics. 4

Randall stresses the importance of the American newcomers in the establishment of public schools:

3 Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools of Municipality Two. Found in a bound volume at the School Board Office marked Vol. 1, p. 1.

4 Milton C. Randall in the New Orleans Picayune, January 17, 1897.
The commercial advantage of our city for men of capital, nerve and brains from more northern climes caused many to brace all the terrors of Yellow Jack, and gradually was added to this city a dominant Anglo-Saxon element which gave an impetus to its Anglo-Norman old-fashioned people, whose ideas of peace and comfort did not comport with the steady but somewhat im­pulsive progress contemplated. With the Teutonic element above Felicity Road and other various nationalities below Canal Street, New Orleans was properly classed as commopoli­tan. This combination with its intermarriages, no doubt is the foundation of our well-known hospitality.

It soon became apparent that the newcomers meant progress, and the great pioneer was the man of deeds--Samuel J. Peters.... New England was well represented. Fresh blood, brain, and capital soon aroused the lethargic spirit of our people, and the people of the Second Municipality soon presented rapid improvements.

Randall describes rivalry of Creole boys from below Canal Street with German boys of the Second Municipality, but he points out that when public schools were formed in 1841, a rivalry of higher order was soon engendered. He gives credit to Dr. C. F. Snowden for originating the public schools. The private schools then were numerous and of a high order, he comments. He adds that on February 14, 1841, under zealous work of Snowden and Peters, the Legislature authorized the organization of public schools in the whole city, and:

On May 15, 1841 under this authority, the Second Municipality school authorities met, having at much trouble and expense engaged the services of the distinguished educator Jno. A. Shaw, of Amherst, Massachusetts, (School Board minutes of the time give Bridgewater, Mass.) to organize the schools. So great were the prejudices of our citizens against these so-called "charity schools", that there were but 13 pupils entered on May 15, 1841. So determined, however, were the efforts of Mr. Shaw, Mr. Peters, Mr. Snowden and others, that the standard of excellence and even superiority was so manifest that in December, 1843, the number of pupils was 1571 and in December, 1845, increased to 3401. The aristocratic element soon became converts, especially as of December 15, 1843, high schools were established and of an advanced order. In December 1849, night schools were established with an average attendance of 1000 pupils.
Books and materials were furnished free. Randall tells how Superintendent Shaw visited classes and took over instruction. He examined the class orally, while all the other classes were "made to take an interest in this class examination." It consumed most of the day and was popular with teachers and scholars. "The result was that the improvement was perfect with all. Teachers and scholars gradually became accustomed to this novel, but thorough system."

Educational advancement was developed by our improved public school system, and soon the old first and third municipalities began, with Lafayette to travel the same road. A generous spirit of rivalry commenced of a high order. The standard of admission to the high schools was very high. The interchange of courtesies between the several directors of each municipality extended to the pupils. The Spartans and Lacedmonians gave up their war spirit and joined in harmony, and the effort to eclipse each other intellectually was manifest and even above Felicity Road a more felicitous spirit was encouraged.  

Although the Second Municipality led the way in adopting the curriculum of the New England States, by 1859 all four districts were offering relatively the same curriculum. However, Fitzpatrick observes that "the period preceding the Civil War shows the schools of all parts of New Orleans to have advanced much more slowly than those of the Eastern cities." The division into four separate school districts continued in operation until the Federal occupancy in 1862, when the entire system was under control of a bureau set up by the Northern forces under General Butler.

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5 Randall.

6 Fitzpatrick, p. 38.
The early history of schools in Municipality Number One is interesting primarily because of the attention paid to languages. All courses in all departments were offered in duplicate—French and English. A narrow curriculum, inherited from earlier classical influences, prevailed.

The Third Municipality was small and of little consequence in this study. Professor Alexander Dimitry in his first report as state superintendent of education in 1848 said that the Third Municipality had not carried its public schools beyond the grade of sound primary instruction, but that the First Municipality "had maintained a course of instruction in French and English languages, demanding respective teachers and duplicate textbooks for its schools." High and intermediate schools for both sexes had been established.7

The story of Lafayette will be only briefly told because there are few records and because the records are available only from 1847 to 1854, when Lafayette reorganized as the Fourth District on June 5.

**Municipality One**

Several attempts were made to open public schools in the First Municipality under the Act of 1841. The first was made when the Council adopted a resolution on May 5, 1841, providing that a standing committee be nominated by the president of the Council to prepare a plan for public education. A board of directors was actually created on June 7, 1841, but this board was abolished on May 9, 1842. Meanwhile one school was

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opened at 151 Orleans Street with a Council committee in charge. The principal's report on July 18, 1842 showed 107 enrolled. Another effort was made when the Council passed a new ordinance on October 3, 1843, to provide for the organization, government and discipline of the public schools. The Board of Directors included a Council committee and one citizen from each of the five wards in the municipality. This attempt also failed, but in January, 1844, a new start was made with a boys' school and a girls' school to be opened in each of three districts. Two schools were actually opened, on January 9 and on January 22, with six teachers in each. Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools of Municipality No. One dated June 11, 1847, show that permanent organization was completed that year when the board voted to establish two new primary schools, one for boys and one for girls in the Seventh and Second Wards. The record shows seven schoolhouses in all. Schools were divided into lower primary, upper primary and intermediate, and high school.⁸

In the lower primary department the first and simplest elements of reading and thinking were taught. The method used was a radical departure in that it undertook to use play and child interest as a motivating device to make the child love school. The child interest and reference to sense was expanded in the later primary grades when the pupils were taught reading, writing on slates, spelling, mental arithmetic

and elements of geography and grammar.

The minutes of the Board of Directors of Municipality No. One record on May 3, 1848, pp 79-81, that the curriculum included reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar, bookkeeping, history, composition and declamation. Instruction was expected to fix prominently in mind the idea of true education and to see that mental and moral development kept pace with the acquisition of knowledge, so that the child might be prepared on leaving school "to enter with conscientious self reliance upon the various duties of life." Music was taught as a beautiful exercise and as a means of discipline.

On June 17, 1847, the board adopted a list of 33 books to be used in the French department. These included various grammars and rhetorics, dictionaries and exercises for memorization. Some of these books, at least, came from France, for on November 4, 1847, the superintendent was authorized to accept the bill of exchange for 679 francs drawn by L. Hachette and Co. of Paris for an invoice of books. Again on December 11, 1847, a resolution was adopted to allow the treasurer of the police department to pay to the superintendent $175 to pay the duty on the books, imported for the use of the public schools.9

Here is the complete list of French books adopted on June 17, 1847, as nearly as can be made out from the indistinct script:

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9Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools of Municipality One. (Found in Volume 2 on page 30).
1. Alphabet et première livre de Lecture, à l'usage des Écoles Primaire.
2. Alphabet Mural en Caractères romains
3. Tableaux de Lecture, avec ou sans épilation pour l'enseignement simultané Ve par M. M. Lamothe Perrier, Meillas V. Michelot
4. Chiffres Arabes Destins e Eche Colles surle Mur
5. Premières Connaissances, par M. M. Cortambert Sae Prune, Delfasse et Sonnet
6. Premiers exercices de Mémoire par A. Amitte
7. Exercices de Mémoire et de Lecture par Thery Dezobry
8. Choix de Fables de Lafontaine Florian
9. Fables de Fenelon
10. Morale en Action
11. Livre de Lecture Courante par T. Sebrun
12. L'Ouvrage des Six Jours Expliqué par Duguet
13. Petit Dictionnaire de la Langue Française par T. Soulew
14. Petite Arithmétique raisonée à l'usage des Écoles Primaire
15. Boileau Despreame
16. Caractères de Labruyere
17. Discours de l'histoire Universelle de Bossuet
18. Eléments de Rhetorique Française par A. Filon
19. Morceaux Choisis de Buffon
20. Narrations Françaises par A. Filon
21. Illustrations poétiques et Litteraires de la France par Pachevin
22. Aventures de Telemaque
23. Leçons d'histoire Ancienne par M. Bouchetti
24. Leçons d'histoire Romaine
25. Leçons de Mythologie par M. Geruzy
26. Premières Notions de géographie et d'histoire à l'usage des Écoles Primaires par Letrouni
27. Poitevin, Grammaire de Premier Age
28. Exercices sur la Grammaire du Premier Age
29. Poitevin, Grammaire élémentaire avec Exercices
30. Recueil de Lettres par Gemie
31. Orthographe d'usage par Fellens
32. Histoire Moderne
33. Histoire de France par Sebas

Ibid., p. 16.
Checking this list of books, it is seen that Port Royalist and reformer influences were continuing in the educational philosophy of the older section of the city. How much was put into practice, or how broad the curriculum actually was may be surmised from several sources of evidence. From such sources as are available, it appears there were opposing forces. On the one hand, it appears that the narrow curriculum of mental discipline and rationalism (in spite of the strong pull of religion) was thought proper for the boys, while on the other hand the more liberal approach of Fenelon was accepted for the girls.

Fenelon believed that the content of the school for girls should begin with illustrated stories in the vernacular; should include writing, arithmetic, and grammar; and should provide in addition such subjects as domestic law, ancient and French history, music, art, and embroidery.  

There are many reports of Creole aristocracy and their moral and social codes; their private tutors, their artificial manners and their penchant for display and exhibition; but the public schools of the old French Quarter soon were meeting a different and most practical need. The schools, first regarded with suspicion as "charity schools," were beginning to have wide acceptance.

This acceptance is reflected in a report dated November 8, 1852, by George H. Bissell, who had taken over temporarily as superintendent. Bissell recommended a change to a strictly progressive system and pointed to the need for arranging the studies with reference to the mental

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faculties of the children and the dependence of one branch of study upon another:

I may here state that even in our intermediate schools, studies are pursued which properly belong to the university. Ancient geography, ancient history and mythology should be studied in connection with the Greek and Roman classics, but with us they are introduced into the most elementary classes, taking precedence of, and superseding, in some measure the fundamental principles of grammar and arithmetic. The fables of Lafontaine, ancient history and mythology require no inconsiderable portion of the time allotted to the French department. Even the grammar of the French language seems illy adapted to the wants of our schools. It is confidently believed that, were the system of Ollendorff introduced, at least in our intermediate department, the structure of the French and English languages, their points of difference and resemblance, would more readily be perceived by the pupils, and that the desideratum of an immediate application of the otherwise dry principles of grammar would render the task to the pupil easy and delightful.\(^\text{12}\)

Rules and regulations adopted by the Board of the First Municipality in September, 1847, for the government of the public schools reflect the double set of influences even more strongly. On the other hand they were enlightened and modern, while on the other hand they were a reflection of early concepts of the strict conduct of a school. A few selected rules will demonstrate:

Rule 3. No corporal or other degrading punishment is to be inflicted, under any circumstances. It has been proved by experience, that there is no necessity for resorting to personal violence for the purpose of preserving good order, and a proper discipline in public schools. The moral feelings of children instead of being blunted or even in many instances paralyzed by harsh treatment, ought on the contrary, to be cultivated and directed with the utmost solicitude. This may

\(^{12}\)Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools, Vol. 3, p. 79.
be done by exciting a proper degree of emulation in the pupils, and by a kind and affectionate intercourse between the teachers and scholars calculated to instil a conviction on the minds of the latter and every exertion required of them is for their own advantage.

Rule 11. They must not study loud, nor make any improper gesture or unnecessary noise.

Rule 12. They must not talk or whisper to each other during school hours.

Rule 13. They must not leave their seats without permission, nor remain at play longer than the time prescribed for them.

Rule 14. They must in all cases speak the truth.¹³

The schools were divided into primary, intermediate and high school. In the high school the department of the French and Latin languages, together with penmanship, was assigned to the French teacher; and the English language, together with all the other branches appertaining to the high school, were taught by the English teacher. Only male teachers were employed in the schools for boys and only female teachers for the girls.

Special reference was made to the curriculum of the girls high school in Article 28 of the Rules. "In the high school for the girls the higher branches of a female education shall be taught viz: English and French rhetoric and composition, penmanship, history, geography, music, drawing and embroidery."

The course prescribed in the high school for boys was to include English and French Rhetoric, the rudiments of Latin, the rudiments of natural and moral philosophy, the higher branches of mathematics,

¹³Board Minutes, Vol. 2, p. 43.
mensuration, bookkeeping, penmanship and the other branches of a classical education.

Article 30 prescribed that to be admitted to the high school the pupil must be at least 12 if a boy and 10 if a girl. They were required to have written testimonials from their principals, and to pass satisfactory examinations in history, geography, arithmetic and the English and French languages. These were public examinations taken in the presence of the board of directors and the parents.\(^\text{14}\)

In the primary schools were taught orthography, spelling and reading in English and in French, writing on slates and mental arithmetic.

In the intermediate schools the branches taught were French and English reading, French and English grammar, writing, arithmetic, geography, composition, translations from French into English and from English into French, elocution, history, and especially the history of the United States. For an interesting first hand account of elocution lesson of 1850 see the excerpt taken from Lyle Saxon--appendix A. The French teachers were to teach the French language and all its branches, penmanship, and history, and cause translations to be made from English into French every day. The English teachers, besides teaching the English language in all its branches, taught arithmetic, geography and history, and none but English textbooks were to be used.

An indication of the attention paid to diction may be seen in a report of the committee on teachers, dated September 23, 1847, when

\(^{14}\)Minutes, pp. 44-47.
the Board rejected the application of Mr. I. Pitra, "who is incompetent in the opinion of your committee to fill the situation of English teacher, on account of a strong accent and an imperfect utterance of his words." There are two other examples, dated March 2, 1848, of rejecting teachers because of their peculiar accent and improper knowledge of the English language.

A New Spirit Affects Education. That a new spirit was beginning to take hold in New Orleans, and that this spirit, more democratic, and more enthusiastic for free, universal education than could have been possible ten years before in this area of the city, was a real influence for progress, and had an effect on speech education, can be seen in the address of G. B. Duncan when he took over as president of the board on May 17, 1852. Duncan said:

I think too, that some plan should be devised for the occasional and regular meeting together of the teacher themselves, that they may take counsel together, and thus by an interchange of thoughts, adopt some uniform system of teaching and managing children. The teacher who has met his fellow teacher in a public assembly, enlightening his and her mind by the result of the experience of others, freely imparted, will, as it has been emphatically observed by one having large experience in these matters, go back to the school room with the light of a hundred minds in his or her head, and with the zeal of a hundred bosoms burning in his or her heart.

Duncan seems to echo Quintilian, Comenius and a long tradition of rhetoricians in the following taken from the same speech.

15Ibid., p. 39.
In the element of competency we should never overlook character. No truth is more mighty than this, that the greatest moral instruction which you can place in a school room is a moral man. Gentlemen, the importance of public education is becoming daily more vital to us as Americans, citizens of the Republic. The crushing influences of European institutions upon the masses of mankind, treading them down in the very depths of ignorance, has at length had its effect, and multitudes are leaving the shores of the Old for the New World. They are arriving amongst us by our own invitation, at the rate of about ten thousand per day. The manifest destiny of things has brought about a fixed purpose, that in all of the departments of state government there shall be universal suffrage. Be it so! But how are we to meet these two great factors? My answer is—-with the school house; with universal education you may give us as much freedom, and as wide an access to the ballot box as you please. They cannot be separated. They are wedded together with education, the ballot box is the palladium of liberty; without education it is Pandora's box. What a proud sight it would be if it could be truly said, that in this City of New Orleans, there exists not a child between the ages of six and sixteen, who is not at school—-or has not been at the latter age, a time sufficiently long to enable him to have learned to read and write well and to keep with exactness his own books of account. If I had the power so to decree it, the only qualification I would annex to a free citizen's right to vote, would be that he should write his own ballot. The work is before us let us embrace it.\textsuperscript{17}

In this address, the philosophy of educating the masses for civic virtue has begun to take hold. Here was recognition of a new need. Here were the beginnings of the break in the old quarter with the colonial and territorial plantation system as a mode of life.

There are many accounts to describe what was happening in New Orleans at this time. Lyle Saxon emphasizes that Louisiana reached its most prosperous period in the twenty years prior to the Civil War. Said Saxon:

\textsuperscript{17}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 3.
The full force of the westward movement was sweeping across the continent. Trade was booming. The levee at New Orleans was piled high with merchandise. Scores of up-river steamboats were moored along the bank. Blunt-bowed trading brigs from the ports of Europe, coasting craft from New England, New York, Baltimore, and Philadelphia lined the river-front. The levee was astir. Negroes sang as they rolled hogsheads of sugar and bales of cotton. The old Creole city was beginning to recognize the American invasion for what it was—a commercial struggle to the death. A new city was growing up outside the Vieux Carre, and it was an American city.  

Walt Whitman also wrote of the times. He had been a reporter on the Crescent newspaper for four months in 1848. Writing later for the Picayune in January, 1887, he discussed extreme activity of the time. The Mexican War had just ended.

From the situation of the country, the City of New Orleans had been our channel and entrepot for everything, going and returning. It had the best news and war correspondents; it had the most to say through its leading papers, the Picayune and Delta especially, and its voice was readiest listened to; from it Chapparal had gone out, and his army and battle letters were copied everywhere, not only in the United States, but in Europe. Then the social cast and results; (sic) no one who has never seen the society of a city under similar circumstances can understand what a strange vivacity and rattle were given throughout by such a situation. I remember the crowds of soldiers, the gay young officers, going or coming, the receipt of important news, the many discussions, the returning wounded, and so on.

I remember very well seeing Gen. Taylor with his staff and other officers at the St. Charles Theatre one evening (after talking with them during the day). There was a short play on the stage, but the principal performance was of Dr. Colyer's troupe of "Model Artists," then in the full tide of their popularity. They gave many fine groups and solo shows. The house was crowded with uniforms and shoulder-straps. Gen. Taylor himself, if I remember right, was almost the only officer in civilian clothes; he was a jovial, old, rather stout, plain

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man, with a wrinkled and dark-yellow face, and, in ways and manners, show'd the least of conventional ceremony or etiquette I ever saw; he laugh'd unrestrainedly at everything comical. (He had a great personal resumblance to Fenimore Cooper, the novelist, of New York.) I remember Gen. Pillow and quite a cluster of other militaires also present.\footnote{Walt Whitman, \textit{Prose Works}, (Philadelphia: David McKay, Publisher, N. D.) pp. 436-437.}

Evidence of the need for speech education in the First Municipality in the middle of the nineteenth century may be seen in a "birthplace" report on the pupils in attendance, recorded in the School Board Minutes when the area was designated as the Second District in 1852.

Of 2479 boys and girls there were 1408 from Louisiana.

There were: 370 from other states
232 from France
184 from Germany
162 from Ireland
49 from Spain
44 from Italy
11 from Great Britain
7 from Mexico
4 from West Indies
3 from South America
1 from Australia
5 from Poland

In the same report it is recorded that the mother tongue of 1288 pupils was French; 968 English; 141 German; 42 Spanish; 40 Italian.\footnote{Minutes, Vol. 3, p. 6.}

It is interesting to note in passing, that of the 75 teachers, one was a product of the Boys High School and 24 had attended the Girls High School.\footnote{Ibid., p. 6.}
The status of the educational program in the Second School District was reported to the Board by Superintendent Fabre on December 8, 1853.

From the elements of reading and of oral arithmetic, the pupils advanced to the study of geography, history, grammar, arithmetic and penmanship. In the two highest divisions of the Intermediate Department, they are daily required to write dialogues in French and in English and to apply the knowledge of words and phrases thus acquired to translations from both languages.

The books used in this department are Mandeville's series of Readers, Guernsay's History of the United States, Smith's Geography, Tower's English Grammar, Perkins' Arithmetic, Poitevin's French Grammar, Ladreyt's Chrestomatie Française, Cortambert's Premières Connaissance, Bouchitte's Histoire Ancienne and Bolmar's Phrases.

In the primary classes, the Tableaux de l'enseignement mutuel, the Morale in Action, Fénélon's Fables and Goodrich's Primer.

In addition to the French, English and Latin Languages, the course of studies in the high schools of this district embraces the elements of algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, natural history, rhetoric, composition and elocution.

As has already been pointed out, and from the reference to elocution lessons described by Saxon,* it is reasonable to assume that elocution as was taught in the Second District may have been descendant from The Rev. Gilbert Austin's Chironomia, first published in 1806 in Dublin, or from the mechanical school of John Walker. Varnado describes the Chironomia as a work on rhetorical delivery which encompasses a discussion of the voice, the countenance, and gesture. "A novel feature of this book is the system by which the various positions of the parts of

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* See Appendix.
the body can be symbolically represented."^{23}

It does not seem likely that this form of elocution was derived locally from more ancient sources. However, John Walker's so-called mechanical system did have a large following in America. His *Elements of Elocution* was published in 1781 and at least one series of readers adopted by the Second District School Board seem to have been based upon Walker. These are the Mandeville Readers, prepared by Henry Mandeville and published in 1851, ten years after he took over at Hamilton College and organized the Department of Elocution and Rhetoric. Mandeville's readers are listed in the card catalogue of the Public Library as "a course of reading for common schools and the lower classes of academies, on the plan of the author's *Elements of Reading and Oratory*."^{24} Donald K. Smith makes a brief reference to Mandeville in his chapter in the *History of Speech Education in America*. He quotes President Fisher of Hamilton College in 1862:

(Mandeville) . . . "at once impressed himself on me as no common man . . . He came to this institution in 1841, and for eight years filled the chair of Elocution and Rhetoric. He wrote here his system of Elocution, basing it on the principles enunciated by Walker, that the structure of the sentence controls its delivery--the only true philosophical idea of a sound elocution . . . ."^{24}

In terms of speech education there are several interesting observations to make regarding the text books prescribed. Bolmar's *Phrases*


is described in the card catalogue of the New Orleans Public Library in the following manner: "Bolmar, Antione: A collection of colloquial phrases, on every topic necessary to maintain conversation: arranged under different heads....the whole so disposed as considerably to facilitate the correct pronunciation of the French, New York: Sheldon, 1830."

Bolmar also is credited with editing a selection of one hundred of Perrin's fables with literal and free translations arranged to show the difference in French and English idiom. This book contains a phonetic comparison of French and English sounds. A third work by Bolmar in use at the middle of the nineteenth century was a key to the first eight books of the *Adventures of Telemachus*, the son of Ulysses. This also was designed to teach the translation of French into English. The 222-page book was published in Philadelphia by Lea and Blanchard in 1847. The *Chrestomatie* of Ladreyt used in the Intermediate Department points up again the emphasis on diction and the importance of the Vernacular, and the lesser importance of grammar.

From the books mentioned and from what has been shown of early Port Royalist influences, as well as from lists of books acquired for the school lyceum and library in 1852, it appears that the Port Royalist philosophy was still strong in New Orleans. It may be possible, of course, that Comenius the Moravian was an influence. He believed in the use of the vernacular. He was an extremely mild disciplinarian, and he believed in manners and morals as part of the content of the school program.

As Watson points out, Comenius's method of instilling piety through teaching manners and morals seems to be the general view of the
best educationists in different countries throughout Europe. The
emphasis was on truth and on keeping busy, avoiding bad conversation, bad
books, bad society. There should be rules of conversation practiced daily.
Moral maxims were always included.

The Lyceum and Library. The public school system of the Second
District opened a separate library on June 7, 1852, in a room formerly
used by the Board of Aldermen at City Hall. The books for this library
had been accumulating for nearly four years, since July 26, 1848, when the
Board established a lyceum and library. Children paid subscriptions of
25 cents a month to attend the lectures and use the books and the board and
city council added additional funds. Citizens also were allowed to
contribute to this lyceum and library as regular subscribers. The mayor,
the aldermen, the recorder, and the directors of the public schools were
honorary members, and every teacher with five years of service was an
honorary member for life.

The library received a donation of books from the Young Men's
Free Library Association and the library committee was authorized to ex­
amine them, select what could be put into the hands of the scholars, sell
the rest and use the proceeds for more books. By March, 1851, the
library committee was able to report that more than $3000 had been ex­
pended for books. There is a record of two library purchases by the

25 Foster Watson, The English Grammar Schools to 1660, (Cam­
bridge: at the University Press, 1908), p. 117-121.


27 Ibid., p. 152.
school board in that year. Both lists of books are contained in the minutes.

The first purchase included a number of books which have special implications in connection with a study of speech education:

- Calhoun's Life and Speeches
- Boswell's Johnson
- Life of Alexander Hamilton
- Talfour's Miscellanies
- Chefs d'oeuvre Oratoires de Bossuet 4 vol.
- Chefs d'oeuvre Oratoires de Bourdaloue
- Chefs d'oeuvre Oratoire de Masselon
- Lafontaine, Labruyere, Descartes, Pascal 4 vol.
- Carlyle's Miscellanies
- Ferdu Poesie des Hebreux
- Memoires de Goete
- Synonymes Francais 2 vol. (p. 108)

In the second library purchase there were 64 books, most of them in French. This list included:

1. Oeuvres Completes de Montesquieu
2. Theatre Espagnol (Calderon)
3. Theatre Espagnol (Lope de Vega)
4. Oeuvres Completes de Condorcet
5. Oeuvres Completes de Lenniere
6. Horatiue Flaceus
7. Herodotus et Atiaeiae Fragmenta
8. Aeschylus et Sophocles
9. Memoires de Comines
10. Malherbe, Poésies
11. Cormenin, Libelles Politiques
12. C. De Villers, Influence de la Reforme
13. Addison Spectator
14. Grammaire de Port Royal
15. A. De Musset Confession
16. A. De Musset Comedies et Proverbes
17. Chateaubriand Memoires
18. Bastiat Sophisms
19. Legends and Stories of Ireland
20. A New Spirit of the Age
21. Ecrivains de la France
22. Gilfeillon's Literary Portraits
23. Lemaire Bibliothèque Classifications
24. Southey's Commonplace Book
25. Celebrated Trials
26. Dictionnaire Paragraphique Universel
27. Barbier Sambes et Poèmes
28. 108 Select novels approximately 25¢ each (pp. 156-158)
These lists of books are sufficient to show how the Second District school system continued to cling to European influences and to keep in the humanistic-liberal arts tradition. Jesuit influences as well as Port Royal influences are represented. As can be seen, there are volumes which may have been useful in preparation for public exhibitions and examinations.

Public Exhibitions and Examinations. One of the most interesting activities sponsored by each of the four school boards of New Orleans before the Civil War was their custom of holding public exhibitions and examinations at least once a year. Oral, public examinations were standard procedure for all schools. Article 72 of the Second District School Board rules reads:

There shall be every year, a general examination to begin the 16th of December and to be continued under the management of the superintendent and a committee until the 24th of the same month, when the whole will be closed with a public exhibition of all schools. The governor of the state and the other state and municipal authorities, together with the parents and relatives of the scholars and such other citizens as feel an interest in public education will be invited to attend.\[28\]

From time to time there were changes in the date of the examinations—for example to April and to the beginning of the summer vacation, but the procedure was much the same. Teachers were reappointed after the examinations.

The old love of display, and the new urge to nationalism were combined in still another activity prescribed by Rule 73:

\[28\]Ibid., p. 52.
On each succeeding anniversary of the birthday of Washington, a general procession of all the schools shall take place, at the close of which all pupils shall be assembled in a convenient place to hear an address commemorative of the day, and on topics connected with public education. Washington's farewell address shall likewise be read by one or more of the scholars (p. 52).

Since these activities are best treated in the more detailed records of the Second Municipality (First District) there will be more lengthy discussions of them in connection with the recitation of the historical development of the public schools in the Second Municipality.

It is necessary now, to cite from the record a final word concerning the gradual acceptance of a more modern philosophy by the Second District and the beginnings of the break from the traditional disciplinarianism. On September 12, 1855, Superintendent Alphonse Canonge advocated abolishing Latin for the boys and algebra and geometry for the girls. He explained to the board:

The advantages for which the study of dead languages is advocated in European and American universities is two-fold.

1. It furnishes the student text for that more useful exercise, translation from one into another language.

2. It polishes the mind, gives it a more refined taste by initiating it to the appreciation of that artistic beauty of form so prominent in all the works of antiquity.

The French-English Exercises satisfy No. 1, and the lack of time renders the other useless. 29

Municipality No. Three

School District No. Three had an almost identical background as School District No. Two. Establishment of "a public school for the

29 Minutes, Vol. 3, p. 482.
education of children of both sexes within the most central section" of the Third Municipality was authorized by an ordinance passed in July 19, 1841.\textsuperscript{30} White children from age seven were admitted, but the curriculum included elements of the English and French languages, arithmetic, writing, geography and history. Boys and girls were taught in separate rooms and had separate playgrounds.

The Board of Directors was composed of one Council member from each ward and one citizen from the body of tax-paying residents elected by the Council. George W. Harby was appointed first president of the public schools of the Third Municipality on November 8, 1841. There were three classes, first, second and third. The first or highest class, was taught orthography, penmanship, reading, arithmetic, history, geography and grammar. In the intermediate class history and grammar were omitted. The third class of beginners was taught orthography; penmanship, reading and arithmetic.\textsuperscript{31}

\textbf{Lafayette}

The uptown suburb Lafayette had only a short existence--from 1847 to 1854--when it was reorganized on June 5, as District Four of the New Orleans system. It had its influences in the newcomers to the community. By the time Lafayette became part of New Orleans it had a high school for boys and for girls, the Live Oak School for boys and for girls, the

\textsuperscript{30}Journal of Third Municipality, New Orleans (July 19, 1841 p.152).

\textsuperscript{31}Fitzpatrick, p. 32.
Magnolia School for boys and for girls, and the Chestnut School for boys and girls.

In 1847 Lafayette Schools were divided into four classes. The minutes of the board of directors show this arrangement:

1st. The first or principal class in the male department shall be taught orthography, reading, English, grammar, composition and declamation, rhetoric, logic, history of the United States and elements of universal history, ancient and modern, ancient geography, modern geography reviewed, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, surveying, elements of drawing of practical chemistry, of natural history, natural philosophy and elements of astronomy. Pupils will be allowed to remain until the time of their leaving the schools.

2nd. In the second class shall be taught orthography, reading and penmanship, the elements of English grammar, and the analysis of English words, the outline of American history, and modern geography complete, also composition and declamation. In this class pupils remain two years.

3rd. In the third class shall be taught orthography, reading, elementary arithmetic, and elementary geography, orthography and the analysis of words. In this class pupils will not be expected to remain more than two years.

4th. In the fourth class will be taught orthography and primer reading, the reading and writing of figures and children tables and the sound of letters. The children remain in this class two years.

Trigonometry, surveying and declamation were omitted from the girls' classes. 32

Books in Use. When Lafayette became the Fourth District, an inventory showed that more than half the books in use were concerned with materials implying attention to oral communication:

32 Minutes of the Board of Directors of Lafayette (Found in Volume 4 of the set of Minutes now in the school board office) p. 18.
### New Books

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From the inventory just cited, no Latin books appear to have been on hand. The grammar used was Noble Butler's *A Practical Grammar of the English Language*, published by Morton of Louisville, Kentucky, in 1846. Worcester's dictionaries were Joseph Worcester's, who influenced somewhat William Tilly in his elaborate system of phonetics and intonation patterns. Of Worcester, Emsley, Thomas and Sifritt write:

> In the nineteenth century American dictionaries, largely under the influence of Walker, became prominent. A few British dictionaries are listed with them because of their influence on Worcester, especially with reference to the intermediate *a* of such words as ask, which, says the *Dictionary of American Biography*, was Worcester's one permanent contribution to lexicography and the English language in America.  

The date of Worcester's intermediate (*a*) is given at 1830. Here the New England influence is clearly shown. It may also be pointed out here that the idea of graded dictionaries is traceable to Comenius, who believed in adapting the textbooks for use of the children and who had written dictionaries to put his beliefs into practice. Now the stress was on purity of pronunciation and sharpness of enunciation.

As has already been noted, Mandeville was a follower of the English John Walker, who formulated rules for the pause, inflection, modulation, accent and emphasis. Thus, the dictionaries of Worcester and the readers of Mandeville reflect a somewhat mechanical approach and an emphasis upon voice and pronunciation in the teaching of reading.

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Elocutio, memoria, and pronunciatio seem to be fused into pronunciation.

It is obvious here that the transfer of learning theory of the so-called mechanical school had dominance.

As in the other communities, Lafayette also had its semi-annual public examinations of pupils. A report of the examining committee on May 10, 1848, shows clearly the attention paid to oral performance:

In the lower division the spelling books and the first primer are in use. The pupils using these pronounce very well. In the higher division the pupils spell and read correctly. They understand the rules for spelling and in reading they observe the points and exercise the cadence, of voice correctly.

In the composition of many pupils there was a purity of language and an elegance of style that are seldom found in school compositions, and which older writers might to their advantage imitate. But it is in declamation that they cannot be passed. They cannot be surpassed in pronunciation—in natural and graceful gesture—and in their conceptions of the feelings and sentiments of the authors.

The committee pointed out that it tried to spot special training for the examination, but found that in each division and "in each class, the pupils sustain themselves, in a general view of all embraced in their range of studies." 35

It may be noted here that the use of the term elocution did not often appear in any of the areas of the city where the American influence was strong. The preferred term in the area above Canal Street was declamation.

35 Minutes, Vol. 4, p. 51.
Of the portion of New Orleans known as Carrollton, there are two thin volumes of minutes marked 101 and 102 in the school board office. These show that a public school in the Town of Carrollton was established by an ordinance adopted by the mayor and council on August 27, 1845. The ordinance provided for gratuitous education of all white children over five years old of both sexes. Control and management was by the mayor and a board of five administrators, who were given the power to hire and fire teachers; to direct the system and course of education; and to have constant superintendence of the school. Another ordinance adopted March 24, 1847, fixed the minimum age for school children at six.

In this school only English was used. The term public speaking appeared for the first time. The branches taught were English language, history of the United States, penmanship, arithmetic, elements of universal history, chronology and public speaking. On August 4, 1846, C. C. Porter, principal, reported he had distributed two dozen Webster's Spellers, one dozen Smith's Grammars, one dozen Walker's Dictionaries, two dozen Goodrich's Primers, two dozen First Readers, a half dozen Boyd's Rhetoric, one and a half dozen History of the United States, one dozen slates. In 1848 Porter's Readers also was used (p. 56). Although the term public speaking was used, the text was Lovell's United States Speaker, which is really only a collection of readings.

36 Carrollton School Board Minutes, Vols. 101-102.
A lyceum and library for use by the pupils was established in January, 1847. Each pupil contributed twenty-five cents a month, and at the end of three years became a life member. The administrators of the school were the administrators of the society and library. It was established that the lecture room of the lyceum must never be used for any religious or political discussion.

As in the other sections of New Orleans there were public examinations in May and the children were awarded books as prizes. The board paid for refreshments for a party. It is recorded that prizes were given for reading, spelling, elocution, geography, composition and general improvement.38

The appearance of Boyd's Rhetoric is worth noting, for James R. Boyd is credited by Hoshor with being the first to devote a rhetoric exclusively to writing rather than speaking.39 Published in 1844, by 1848 the book had gone through six editions. Boyd believed that training in writing was an aid to speaking the language. He was concerned with grammar, style, composition, the history of the English language and a brief review of modern British and American literature.

The public examinations will be treated in larger detail in the discussion of the school system of the Second Municipality which became the First School District of New Orleans.

38 Minutes, Vol. 102, p. 51

The Second Municipality

Background: As was indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the present school system of New Orleans probably owes more to the Second Municipality system than to any of the others. The Second Municipality owes its school system to the influence of Horace Mann and his choice of the first superintendent of public education in New Orleans, John A. Shaw, of Bridgewater, Massachusetts. For the background, it is necessary to review quickly the conditions of the country as a whole and particularly of New England in 1841. Noble summarizes the spirit of the time as a spirit of romanticism.

Men broke with the past; they rebelled against rule and formula; they forgot themselves in enthusiasm for moral issues; they relied more and more upon emotional promptings. This was true in literature, music and art, as well as in government, and it brought about a renewal of faith in religion as an emotional experience.40

This was a time when the westward movement brought to New Orleans the offspring of Scotch-Irish settlers of New England and of slave-owning planters from the South Atlantic states--immigrants--a moving population. New Orleans was easily accessible, and opportunities beckoned. This was a time of growing national spirit. There were many newspapers, and American writers were finding a market for their materials. Boston and Charleston were recognized as centers of culture. Interest in manufacture, science, invention and industry was beginning to show, but perhaps the most significant aspect of the times was the Jacksonian democracy, which

influenced the nationalistic philosophy of public education for all the children of all the people, and emphasized the individual. In the South, of course, the several millions of slaves were to remain illiterate for many years.

Popular education, of course, was not new in New England. A few New York and New Jersey towns of New England origin had free schools before the Revolution. It may be recalled here that the old College of New Orleans had drawn its curriculum from New York. Andrews points out that in popular education New England "let not only the continent but the world, there being a school-house, often several, in each town. Every native adult in Massachusetts and Connecticut was able to read and write." 41

By the time the Second Municipality of the City of New Orleans set up its school system on May 15, 1841, the educational ideas of such European thinkers as Rousseau, Kant, Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, and Goethe, and in education, Pestalozzi, Herbart and Froebel, had come to America.

Camp meetings, public gatherings, missionary activities, the lyceum, exhibitions—all had their greatest vogue during this period of American history. Everywhere, attempts were being made to break away from private support of schools to public support. The greatest period of activity was at the beginning of the second quarter of the nineteenth century. There were educational conventions, resolutions of workingmen's

associations and numerous other influences working toward general acceptance of public education.

For purposes of this study the reforms in Massachusetts were particularly significant. James G. Carter and Horace Mann stand out. Carter was instrumental in the consolidation of school districts in Massachusetts, as well as in establishing a teacher training program.

As a member of the legislature Carter, with the assistance of Horace Mann, secured the passage (1837) of the law creating the state board of education: In the meantime he was instrumental in establishing a state school fund to assist the towns in the maintenance of more competent instruction. He later instigated the founding of the first normal schools in Massachusetts, which were also the first in the United States.42

In much the same way, a state educational system was established in Louisiana in 1845 and the first normal school was founded in New Orleans in 1858.

The Influence of Horace Mann. Perhaps the greatest single influence upon public education in New Orleans was Horace Mann, the Puritan lawyer who quit his profession to become the secretary to the Massachusetts state board of education in 1837. Mann's philosophy of indefinite perfectibility was his guiding force. As Noble points out, "public schools were to provide uniform instruction with the expectation that all who accepted the advantages of the offering would profit alike" (p. 141). Noble says, "Horace Mann's name is remembered as that of the foremost educational statesman that America has produced" (p.156).

42 Noble, p. 153.
Under the circumstances, it is not surprising that when the Second Municipality of New Orleans was ready to establish its permanent system of public education, it turned to Horace Mann for advice and for assistance in selecting its first superintendent of public education, John A. Shaw, of Bridgewater, Massachusetts. In view of the strong anti-slavery feelings of the industrial North, it is remarkable that New Orleans was so readily able to accept the aims of education of Massachusetts educational leaders. It may be remarked that New Orleans was becoming an industrial city; that it was cosmopolitan in population—and that the newcomers who settled largely in the Second Municipality, were not saddled with the philosophy of the plantation. It must be noted, however, that slaves simply were not considered as partaking of the benefits of the new freedom.

Early Speech Activities. Speech activities began at once. The Board adopted a resolution that a celebration should be held on February 22, 1842, in which all the public school children would go in a procession to a proper place. The Council was invited to take part in the proceedings.

On June 27, 1842, a special committee of the board of directors supervised examinations of the scholars. This was attended by a respectable number of spectators, principally parents. This activity was expanded, and for the close of examinations in January, 1843, the board appointed a committed to "select a gentleman to deliver a public address." Judge Theo. H. McCaleb consented to speak. The public procession of the children on February 22 was also expanded and books and medals were awarded at that time.
Public Exhibitions and Examinations. Among a new set of rules adopted by the board on May 5, 1843, for the government of the pupils, the superintendent and the teachers, those set up for the examinations and public exhibitions are interesting:

1. A public examination shall be held on the last Monday of January of each year, and close with an exhibition of all the schools. The mayor, recorder and members of the Council and others are invited.

2. Another examination shall be held on the last Monday of June of each year, and continued as many days as the board may determine.

3. On each succeeding anniversary of the birthday of Washington, a general procession of all the schools shall take place, at the close of which all the pupils shall be assembled in a convenient place, to hear an address on some topic connected with education, or engage in such other exercises as the board may direct.43

There were several other rules which are important to this discussion. Rule Number Four for the superintendent read:

No teacher shall advance or transfer his or her class from one book or study to another without the approbation of the superintendent and visiting committee.

A set of 20 rules governed the teachers. Rule Seven and rule Fifteen should be noted:

Rule 7. The teachers shall afford their pupils constant employment, during the hours of tuition, endeavoring to render their studies at once, pleasant and profitable, by combining oral instruction with the use of books and providing a judicious variety in the tasks assigned them.

Rule 15. The principal teacher, at the opening of each school, every morning shall read a portion of the Holy Scripture, without note or comment, and follow the same by an appropriate prayer, according to the form prescribed by the Board of Directors, and which is prefixed to these rules.

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43 Minutes of the Board of Directors of Public Schools of Municipality Two. Found in a bound volume at the school board office marked Vol.1, p. 42.
Rule 19 required that music teachers give at least half hour in each school three time a week and use the blackboards to instruct in the rudiments of music.\(^44\)

The public examinations, which actually ended as an extra-curricular program attended by large crowds was a common practice in the east. As Borchers and Wagner point out, exhibitions, often now interspersed with musical exercises, were prominent in the secondary school program of Massachusetts. The program varied but there seems to have been much emphasis upon declamation of all types.\(^45\)

A description of semi-annual examinations as contained in a report to the Council dated June 30, 1843, explains the procedure:

These examinations were not, as is too frequent, merely nominal or preparal (sic) for the occasion. The principle has been impressed on the minds of the pupils that their efforts on these occasions should be fair and honest, so that the public should not be deceived. To examine publicly the pupils on pieces or subjects expressly adapted and prepared is sapping their principle of integrity at the starting point: they are taught to deceive. In the various department of reading, grammar, arithmetic and other subjects, they were therefore examined at random and without selection.

On the 29th of June they were all assembled in the church opposite Lafayette Square and devoted from 10 to 2 o'clock to declamation, composition, and appropriate music. (sic)

The exhibition was gratifying to a numerous audience composed of the parents of the children and others of the community whose repeated applause demonstrated their delight, and their high estimate of the progress of the pupils.

These public examinations and exhibitions seem to have had their origins in the first quarter of the century. Sometimes they were held at

\(^{44}\) Minutes, Vol. 1, p. 64.

individual schools and sometimes at general assemblies of all the schools. There is evidence that both practices were employed in New Orleans. That there had been criticism of these exhibitions is obvious from the defense of them given by the school board report. In other parts of the country the same thing apparently had taken place. Borchers and Wagner write of the exhibitions and quote from John Neal's *Recollections*, 1854:

Some critics felt that these exhibitions were excellent because they 'kept up interest all winter and stimulated both teachers and scholars to do their best in the way of preparation' while others felt that the students were 'encouraged to most vehement and obstreperous manifestations. Many persons objected when the schools put on dialogues and dramas because their 'theatrical cast' was considered immoral in several sections of the country. Often the program included a variety of events—original and non-original declamations, dialogues and plays. We found some records which indicated that a complete day was used for such an extensive program.  

The practice of holding public examinations continued for many years. There are numerous references to them in the school board minutes. Examination and exhibition exercises were held in the classrooms for the lower grades on January 29, 1844, but public examinations were held for the first classes of the intermediate schools and the high school at the church opposite Lafayette Square. This was a week-long activity which culminated at the end of the examination week on Friday with a day-long public exhibition. All the children of all the schools were organized at their classrooms and then taken to the church for the exhibition. Twelve hundred pupils occupied the entire lower floor of the church, while the galleries were open to the public. A description by Edward Macpherson, chairman, is recorded in the minutes. He reported, "A multitude of

\[46\] Ibid., p. 284.
spectators anxious to witness the interesting scene." The performances assigned for the day were declamation, reading of original composition and music.

Members of the state legislature were special guests at noon that day and they were addressed by J. A. Maybin on behalf of the directors. Macpherson explained that these exercises were performed to "let the public judge fully of the condition of the invaluable institution entrusted to their care." 47

Another description of the public exercises on the last day of the examination period was contained in a report of Dr. Picton on February 1, 1845. Dr. Picton said:

On Thursday the 30th of January all the schools were assembled at their respective rooms, and at ten o'clock commenced the march to the Presbyterian Church on Lafayette Square (which had been kindly opened for the occasion by the Board of Trustees) when they arrived and were taken at about ½ before 11, when the exercises of the day were opened according to the program issued by the committee. Invitations had been sent to the two branches of the Legislature, the members of the Convention, and the Councils, judges and other distinguished citizens, including the Catholic and Protestant clergys (sic) and citizens of note in our city.

Long before the children could be seated the church was crowded with ladies and gentlemen and before the close of the exercises hundreds of our fellow citizens who came to the door were compelled to return not finding any room to accommodate them.

The program opened with the children singing the national air "Hail Columbia." After some declamations by the pupils of the high school and vocal music by the pupils of the different schools, Mr. J. W. Maybin rose and addressed the members of the Legislature in behalf of the Board, giving a succinct history and progress of our schools. The program continued by the

pupils till 2:30 and closed with the singing of "My Country 'Tis of Thee." 48

It is apparent that the semi-annual examinations were for the most part oral, for in a report dated February 7, 1846, on the second examination at the Girls High School, the board's committee said: "The Examination was conducted in the presence of the committee and the president of the board. The exercises were highly interesting and the performance of the pupils were, in general very satisfactory and creditable to them." The report describes the large audience and mentions that the "Honorable Henry Clay visited the school on Wednesday and after expressing his great pleasure at their progress, addressed to them a few interesting remarks." 49

There are several explanations for the interest in public exhibitions by the school children which may be suggested. In the first place, the procedure was borrowed, along with the course of study and techniques of classroom operation, from New England sources as has been pointed out. This practice was common as early as the first quarter of the century. Religious and private schools used the same device.

The Kantian imperative--the new political freedom and the new values for the individual, had their influence on these public exhibitions as well. However, it is suggested here that a major reason for the exhibitions may have been that the public school system was new and looked on

48 Ibid., p. 120.
49 Ibid., p. 189.
with suspicion. Oral examinations and public exhibitions became the means of reaching out for group support. The point need not be labored that a voluntary crowd has a unifying element which can be turned into crowd action or mob spirit for action.

How successful the idea was may be suggested also from the fact that after the members of the state legislature viewed the work in New Orleans, the state school system was organized in 1845.

Before discussing the course of instruction of the mid-century period before the Civil War, a few more remarks on the rules laid down in the beginning may be valuable here. The prohibition against advancing a child too quickly seems to stem from a similar rule found in a Boston course of study for primary grades in 1821. This is cited by Borchers and Wagner from the *American Journal of Education of 1869*.

The fourth or youngest class shall stand up with due ceremony at as great a distance from the instructor as possible, and read with a distinct and audible tone of voice in words of one syllable. No one of this class shall be advanced to the third or higher class who cannot read deliberately and correctly in words of one or two syllables.

No one in the third class shall be advanced to the second who cannot spell with ease and propriety words of three, four, and five syllables, and read all the reading lessons in Kelly's Spelling-book.

No one of the second class shall be advanced to the first class who has not learned perfectly by heart, and recited, as far as practical, all the reading lessons in Kelly's Spelling-book, the Commandments, and the Lord's Prayer; all the stops and marks, and their uses in reading; and in Bingham's Spelling-book the use of common abbreviations...the use of numbers and letters used for numbers in reading; the catalogue of words of similar sound, but different in spelling and signification; the catalogue of vulgarisms, such as chimney, not chimbley--vinegar, not winegar, etc.
Not one of the first class shall be recommended by the examining committee to be received into the English grammar schools, unless he or she can spell correctly, read fluently in the New Testament, and has learned the several branches taught in the second class; and also the use and nature of pauses, and is of good behavior. And each of the scholars, before being recommended, shall be able to read deliberately and audibly, so as to be heard in any part of the grammar schools.  

The rule requiring the reading from scripture by the principals persisted for about a seven-year period. It came under fire when a parent, Richard D. Barry, complained to the board that he had instructed his daughter not to attend the morning exercise in which the Scripture was read. He explained that the child was being reared as a Roman Catholic. The teacher punished the child by suspending her, although she had explained the reason for declining to be present.

The board first discussed the matter on November 22, 1850, and on February 20, 1851, finally voted to abandon the reading of the Scripture. The teacher was almost dismissed.

The incident is significant for two reasons. It marked the first time the school board clashed with the Council of the Municipality. The Council had been contacted by Barry and undertook to advise the board to abandon the practice. This was met with resentment, and probably delayed final action. It also points up the complete separation of the school system from old church influences in New Orleans, where Catholic education was strong.

The minutes do not contain any specific reference to text books or to courses of study for the first two years.

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50 Borchers and Wagner, p. 280.
Among the books prescribed on May 6, 1843, were Goodrich's *Primer*, *First Reader*, *Second Reader*, *Third Reader*, *Fourth Reader*; *Young Ladies Class Book*; Goodrich's *United States History*; *Emmerson's Arithmetic*; *Mitchell's Geography*; *Parker's and Fox's Grammar*; *Robinson's Bookkeeping*; *Worcester's Dictionary*; *Bailey's Algebra*; *Tillinghurst's Geometry*; Comstock's *Natural Philosophy*; *Fowle's Common School Speller*; *Peter Parley's Geography for Children*; *Lovell's United States Speaker*; *Alcott's Slate and Blackboard Exercises*; *Mitchell's Skeleton maps*.

Here again Worcester's *Dictionary* and Lovell's *United States Speaker* appeared as they did in the other uptown sections of the city. The appearance of Goodrich's readers, Fowle's Speller, the *Dictionary* and the *Speaker* together provides the opportunity for comment.

Borchers and Wagner give a description of reading of the time. They show the two influences of stress on voice and pronunciation on the one hand the elocutionists' emphasis on roal presentation in delivery on the other. Reading was taught in unison with a set of guide posts for pause and intonation. The children were taught to pay careful attention to pronunciation and enunciation and to read fast enough to cover a sizeable amount of material.

Such were the guide posts to good oral reading in the early part of the nineteenth century. Samuel G. Goodrich in his memoirs of this period notes that such reading generally was performed with a hint from the master and that repetition, drilling, line upon line, precept upon precept, with here and there a little touch of the birch---constituted the entire system.51

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Fowle was influenced by Noah Webster, and Lovell seems to have been influenced by the Rev. Gilbert Austin. The United States Speaker has no instruction concerning reading, but it does appear to be a book of models from which to pattern orations, speeches and compositions of various sorts. Its illustrations show many of the bodily positions of the Chironomia.

On the title page of the United States Speaker appears the following information:

A copious selection of exercises in elocution; consisting of prose, poetry, and dialogue: drawn chiefly from the most approved writers of Great Britain and America: Including a variety of pieces suitable for very young speakers: designed for the use of colleges and schools.

John E. Lovell is cited as formerly instructor of elocution in the Mount Pleasant Classical Institution; Amherst, Massachusetts. The design of the book is clearly indicated by a quotation on the title page from Cicero: "Delivery, I say, bears absolute sway in Oratory." A quotation from Quintilian also appears as inspiration for the volume: "Let them enjoy their persuasion, who think, that to be born is sufficient to make a man an Orator: they will pardon our labor, who think, that nothing can arrive at perfection, unless when nature is assisted by careful cultivation."

As has been said, the book is a compilation of recitations. In his preface to the first edition, Lovell explains that the selections were an accumulation of material used as exercises by his own elocution pupils. The book, he adds, has as its object to bring together a full collection of short, eloquent, and pertinent extracts, with studious solicitude for the advancement of the art.
The following selections have been accumulating upon the Compiler's hands for several years, and are these, chiefly, which from time to time, in the course of his practice as a teacher of elocution, have elicited his preference, as exercises for his own pupils. The eloquent and classical writers of the day have afforded abundant and beautiful materials, and some specimens have been drawn from "the golden sources of antiquity." It is, perhaps, unnecessary to add, that the paramount interests of morality have not been lost sight of.

Great pains have been taken to distribute through the book, numerous pieces, suitable for the recitations of very young students. This, the Compiler conceives, is an addition of no trifling importance. The school-books on this point are altogether at fault; the idea, indeed, seems to have been entirely misunderstood or overlooked. The culture of delivery, however, can hardly be commenced too early. It is while the taste is yet unvitiated, that the first lessons of elocution should be imparted;---it is then (if the expression may be allowed) that her beautiful incantations should begin; it is then the seeds, intended to produce the garland of the orator, should be sown. The ancients understood this fact well. "They began their toils with the very first rudiments of education, and with the first spark of reason."

What was the result?--To this one circumstance, possibly, more than to any other--not excepting even their extreme and incessant labor--is to be imputed the existence and diffusion of that wonderful oratory, which will be considered throughout all time, the highest glory of Greece and Rome.

The plates are designed not merely as embellishments. It is believed they may be studied with advantage. The Poetical Gestures are selected from Austin's Chironomia; the Frontispiece from Henry Siddons, on Gesture.

The orthography will be found, generally, to agree with the improvements of that illustrious American Lexicographer, Doctor Webster.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that Lovell gives credit to the Chironomia of Austin, to Siddons and to Noah Webster. A most interesting phenomenon is the way in which Lovell encloses certain phrases in quotation marks without giving the source of the quotation.

John H. Siddons had been an instructor in elocution at Columbia as late as 1861. Webster, of course, a contemporary of Worcester, is known for his influence on the diction of America. His broad (a) set a pattern of pronunciation which was interpreted and misinterpreted by elocutionists for years.

From the Table of Contents, it will be seen that Lovell's book is divided into three parts. In the first part are contained selections to represent specimens of American eloquence, specimens of European eloquence, and specimens of ancient eloquence. Headings of the second part are didactic and hretorical, pathetic and entertaining, comic and amusing. The third part deals with dramatic and sentimental, humorous and diverting recitations. A few of the authros represented are Webster, Hayne, Paine, Mason, Burke, Knowles, Sheridan, Rousseau, Phillips, Campbell, Byron, Shakespeare, Montgomery, Spencer, Everett, Gilman, Krilov, Franklin, Colton, Walker, Coleridge and many others.

The passages are short and obviously meant for pupils to memorize. Except for the plates from Chironomia, there are no explanations or diacritics employed in the students' edition. The didactic and rhetorical portion suggests the manners and morals; the mysticism of Comenius's Great Didactic of 1632.

The Secondary Schools. High schools, as has been shown, were an early development in New Orleans. The Old College of New Orleans,

which closed in 1826 is one example. It is safe to say that the high school came earlier to New Orleans than to many other sections of the country. On November 5, 1842, the board of the Second Municipality School District appointed a committee to consider establishment of a high school for boys and girls. They conferred with Superintendent Shaw and on February 4, 1843, the board instructed the superintendent to set up a plan for establishing a high school and to define courses of study and books. Shaw was also told to select meritorious boys for the first class. The high school was organized and opened with Robert H. McMain, Jr., at the head of the boys' department and Miss A. E. Livingston at the head of the girls' department. The school for boys opened on the corner of Magazine and Basin Streets on April 4, 1843, was called the Washington School.

On November 23, 1843, twenty-two candidates applied for admission to the high school. They were examined over a five-day period in geography, grammar, history, arithmetic, reading, writing and spelling. A note in the minutes of the time is interesting:

At the close of the examination on Friday, an opportunity was afforded to hear those pupils who attended to declamation, and although this branch is not required as one of the prerequisites by the rules of the high schools, for admission still as it had been required in the primary department, it was deemed proper to attend to it.54

The school was opened on Monday, December 4, 1843, with 17 boys enrolled. Ages of the boys ranged from 12 to 15. A separate school for girls begun March 1, 1845, was established in a room on Bartholomew Street.

54 Minutes, Vol. 1, p. 81.
Two courses were prescribed for the boys, a full course and a special course. The full term was for five years, while the special term was for three years.

The girls high school offered a three-year program of study.

The required courses of study for the full term was as follows:


Third year: Natural philosophy, continued, Logic, History of England and France, Gil Blas in French, Anthon's Virgil, Greek Grammar, Portions of Greek Testament, Declamation, analytical and descriptive geometry, projections of maps, chemistry commenced, Trigonometry with its application to surveying and navigation, Alexander on the evidences of Christianity.


Fifth year: Constitution of United States and Louisiana, Natural Theology, Botany, Calculus, physiology, Human anatomy, Hygiene, First and Second Books of Homer, Cicero's Orations, Spanish, Extemporaneous discussions continued, Introduction to legal science, Civil Engineering, Principles of Science applied to domestic and mechanical arts, manufacture and agriculture, Law of Nations (p. 55).

There was plenty of knowledge from which to draw for speaking purposes. In the first year, Latin elocution, English composition, and reading were related subjects. In the second year the term rhetoric was used in place of English composition. In the third year logic took
the place of rhetoric and declamations were introduced. Logic really was conversation. In the fourth and fifth years extemporaneous discussions seem to be substituted for rhetoric and declamations.

The special course was a speeded-up version of the full course. In the first year both English composition and elocution was taught. In the second year Rhetoric and declamation were offered. In the third year extemporaneous discussions were offered. Vocal music was offered from time to time.

The boy was admitted to either course at age 12 if he showed by examination that he could read, write and spell correctly and had competent knowledge of grammar, geography, arithmetic, prominent events, dates and persons. There were two terms—a winter and a summer term. Examinations for admission were on the first Monday in February and August. Textbooks connected with speech included Goodrich's Fourth Reader, Parker's and Fox's English Composition, Lovell's United States Speaker, Blair's Rhetoric. There were others like the Latin lexicon, dictionary and orations of Cicero, Horace, etc., Sullivan's Political Class Book, Abercrombie's Mental and Moral Philosophy, Pane's Introduction to Legal Science and others upon which the boys could draw for their extemporaneous discussions.

The girls' curriculum was similar to that of the boys. Rhetoric was offered in the second year along with a continuation of English grammar and composition. Literary criticism was a subject for girls in the second year and extemporaneous discussions were offered in the third year. The criticism text was Kames, Elements of Criticism, revised by the Rev. James R. Boyd. It was decided, however, after a year to omit in
the third year the course in extemporaneous discussion and criticism because it was now considered as "an incident to that of composition which is presented in the first year."55

The textbook in rhetoric used by boys and girls was Blair's *Rhetoric*. Blair's work is credited by Guthrie with influencing criticism and literary taste. Blair treats not only of public speaking, but also of the writing of history, philosophy, poetry and comedy. "The lectures of Blair begin, in fact, with a discussion of taste, genius, sublimity, all subjects leading to an increased critical interest.

Further contribution, although probably in a negative sense, is made by Blair's treatment of delivery. His failure to offer any practical advice on delivery left the field open to the elocutionist's offer of the easy way to elocutionary elegance.

Blair gave to the American colleges a doctrine resting on firm classical foundations, emphasizing style to the comparative exclusion of invention and arrangement, and presented interestingly if not brilliantly."56

The Need for Training in Declamation. It is evident, from the brief history of public education in New Orleans thus far advanced, that there was considerable interest in each school district in declamation, oral reading, and various speech activities in general. This interest seems to have followed the attitude in most of the country at the midpoint in the nineteenth century. Borchers and Wagner indicate that teaching declamation was a common practice in the public schools of the nineteenth century. They explain:


throughout the period students in the upper grades, especially in secondary schools, participated in varying degrees in speech activities. The program varied but there seems to have been much emphasis upon declamation of all types. At times declamation exercises were held as regular classes. At other times the entire school met for the performance; occasionally the public was invited. Usually the selections were memorized, with original pieces growing in prominence during the latter part of the period. The Latin grammar schools were apt to have translations from and into French, Latin and Greek languages. Wednesdays, Fridays or Saturdays seem to have been the preferred days for declamation classes. 57

It is suggested here that the insistence upon declamation for every child from the intermediate level through the high school seems to be an inheritance from rhetorical studies of the late seventeenth century in English Grammar Schools. As Watson points out:

The study of Rhetoric drew attention in many ways to the value of literary form and to effective statement. The wealth of imagery in authors read must have been when teaching was thorough, a valuable possession, and a sense of alertness in discovering the various tropes and figures could not but be an excellent school discipline... With phrases and expressions of a rhetorical nature, introduced from Latin and Greek, also from French, Italian, Spanish authors and particularly from the English Bible, the 17th century pupils awoke to the consciousness of the value of the power of varied expression. It is almost impossible to estimate the high usefulness of this now obsolete school discipline in enlarging the vocabulary and in directing the expression of the more educated English people of the 17th century. 58

It is also suggested that declamations were so popular in colleges everywhere in America because of a felt need and an almost overwhelming desire for culture and refinement among an emerging pioneer people. As Guthrie points out in a citation from the South Carolina

57 Borchers and Wagner, p. 290.

State Gazette, 1790:

Exhibitions were to display the proficiency of the youth in the useful ornamental and sublime art of eloquence, so essentially important in a republic.59

A similar thought is expressed by Wiksell. In this point of view the need for speech training was heightened by the fact that many lawyers and clergymen were entering their profession without adequate instruction in speech and that political speaking by the mid-century had become of major importance. Wiksell says:

Almost every stump in the frontier had its bellowing, indignant orator on one side or the other of the political fence.60

Wiksell explains that the common man was now playing a new role:

Both American and foreign observers have noted the persuasive speaking performances of congressmen in the chambers of the Senate and the House of Representatives. Since membership of these bodies reflected the ideas, the culture, and general level of the voting population it was to be expected that a host of varied types of rugged individuals formed an imposing proportion of the state and national legislatures. (p.70)

The lyceum was another contributing factor to the realization of a need for speech training:

A favorite pastime of Americans, particularly during the second quarter of the nineteenth century, was to attend the innumerable lectures and readings of the day. The most important agency in which these speaking events occurred was the lyceum, a movement originated in Millbury, Massachusetts in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook. This organization was, without doubt, one of the most popular educational and cultural influences of the period. On the platform appeared clergymen, lawyers, physicians, farmers, mechanics, women suffragists and readers (pp. 74-75).

59 Guthrie, p. 68.

Finally Wiksell emphasizes that:

While almost everyone in the country was engaged in speaking his views on sundry subjects or participating in entertainment by means of reading from a written page or book, it was becoming increasing evident by the more discriminating individuals that training for oral expression was important (p. 78).

There is another thought that possibly should be suggested. The minutes of the school board of New Orleans repeatedly stressed the need for instruction in the "branches of a good English education." On January 2, 1847, when board member James W. Breedlove introduced a resolution to abandon Spanish and French, Greek and Latin and close the two high schools, he insisted that an adequate English education could still be given.61

The committee to which the resolution was referred stressed in reply the need for a liberal English education and mentioned the state's failure to establish a university in spite of spending more than all the New England states combined. From the committee's statement it is obvious that it was concerned with the new republicanism.

The board's policy is summed up thus:

There are but three sources (setting aside natural inequalities) from which any worldly superiority of one man over another can possibly be derived: and these are political power, intelligence and wealth. Grant an equal share of these to every person in the community and (so far as human policy can effect it) all would be on a footing of perfect equality--the highest possible end of all good government would be attained, viz; the greatest good of the greatest number, and in proportion as men are possessed of, or deprived of these desirable attributes, do we estimate their relative rank in the community. The liberal

and enlightened policy of the state has declared that an equality of political right shall be the birthright of all her citizens: thus all disparities springing from the unequal distribution of political power are done away with: and he has not observed or has observed to little purpose the indications of public opinion, who does not see that the disparities in life which inevitably spring from a monopoly of education will be in a great measure equalized by throwing wide open to the unpurchased entrance of all, the doors of the halls of learning which have hitherto resolved to the exclusion and costly admission of a few.62

This policy may also account for the good position held by declamation, elocution, and rhetoric.

Rhetoric as Written Composition. By 1855 a clear distinction was being made between rhetoric as written composition, and declamation and elocution as oral activities. The First District School Board in its report to the members of the Common Council of the City of New Orleans listed the textbooks and courses of instruction in the following manner:

The high schools are composed of such pupils of the intermediate grade as have after a rigid examination, (in the month of December) proved their proficiency in all the branches taught in the intermediate schools. Any resident pupil of a private school may be admitted on the same terms.

The term of instruction is for three years at the close of which, all pupils who pass a satisfactory examination are entitled to diplomas.

In the boys' high school, the branches taught and the textbooks used were:

First Year--Rhetoric, Boyd's; Universal History, Willard's; Grammar, Analytical, (Butler's); Algebra, Davies; Composition and Declamation weekly; French, Ferrin's Fables and Bolmar's Livizac's Grammar and Telemaque; Latin, Anthon's Caesar; Bookkeeping, Palmer's.

62Ibid., p. 261.
Second Year—Rhetoric, Boyd's; Composition and Declamation; Geometry and Trigonometry, Davies's Legendre; Chemistry, Draper's; French, Perrin, Bolmar's Levizac's Grammar and Telemaque; (sic) Latin, Anthon's Caesar; Bookkeeping, Palmer's.

Third Year—Surveying and Navigation, Davies's; Natural Philosophy, Olmsted's; Intellectual Philosophy, Abercrombie's; French, Bolmar's Levizac's Grammar and deFivas' Classical Reader; Latin, Anthon's Virgil; Composition and Declamation; Bookkeeping; General Review.

In the girls' high school the branches taught and the textbooks used were as follows:

First Year—Grammar Analytical, Butler's Rhetoric, Boyd's; Arithmetic, Perkins; Algebra, Davies's; French, Perrin's Fables and Bolmar's Levizac's Grammar; Geography, Mitchell's and Globes; History of the United States, Willard's; and composition weekly.

Second Year—Grammar Analytical, Butler's Rhetoric, Boyd's; Algebra, Davies's; Botany, Phelps; Chemistry, Draper's; Physiology, Cutler's; French, Perrin's and Bolmar's Levizac's Telemaque; Composition weekly.

Third Year—Geometry, Davies's; Natural Philosophy, Olmsted's Astronomy, Olmsted's with Globes; Botany, Phelps's; Universal History, (modern and ancient) Willard's; French, Bolmar's Levizac's Grammar and Ladreyet's Chrestomathie Francaise; General Review.

The report gives the names of the high school graduates and points out that his "Excellency the Governor of the State" suggested in a message to the Legislature that the "high schools of New Orleans are really and truly the nurseries of teachers, not only for New Orleans and Louisiana, but for the entire south." This statement is significant because two years later the first normal school was provided for. The report continues:

The district schools--are divided into intermediate and primary grades composed, each, of two or more separate departments. All resident children of the First District, over six years of age, are allowed to attend these schools within the respective school district of their residence, and are assigned to the appropriate grade by the principal of the school.
In the intermediate grade, in which pupils usually remain at least two years before entering the high schools, the following are the branches taught and the textbooks used, namely: Spelling, Emerson's; Reading and Definitions, Mandeville's Third and Fourth, and Tower's Fourth, Fifth and Sixth; Writing; Grammar, Butler's Primary and Practical; Geography, Mitchell's Arithmetic, Perkins's Elementary and Practical; History of the United States; Willard's; Dictation, Composition and Declamation weekly.

In the primary grade, pupils are instructed in the Alphabet, Webb's cards; Spelling, Mandeville's and Tower's Reading, Mandeville's First, Second and Third and Tower's First, Second and Third; Writing, on slates and paper; Elements of Geography, Smith's Elements of Arithmetic, Perkin's; General oral instruction suited to the age of the pupil.63

The complete course of study has been reproduced here to show the shift in emphasis from the classical rhetoric to an interpretation of rhetoric as written composition. Boyd's Rhetoric was a rhetoric of written composition. Most Readers of the period contained instruction in elocution. Guthrie has an explanation for this shift in his Development of Rhetorical Theory in America. He summarized the period up to 1850 in the following manner:

1. American rhetoric from 1785 to 1850 was dominated by the great English rhetorics of Blair, Campbell, and Whately. Those works in the classical tradition were the most popular and influential texts in the American colleges.

2. American rhetoric at the opening of the period was closely allied with oratory, but gradually moved more and more into the realm of composition and criticism---belle lettres. Blair, Jamieson, Gregory, Rippingham and Irving contributed to this in English works.

63 A Report of The Board of Directors of the Public Schools, First District, New Orleans, May 7, 1855 to the members of the Common Council of the City of New Orleans. Found in Reports of Special Committees, dated 1854 and 1855, p. 261.
3. As rhetoric became more and more engrossed with written composition, delivery claimed for itself a separate and distinct field, elocution.

4. The period was characterized by continued emphasis on rhetorical studies in the American schools and colleges. This is shown in courses of study and rhetorical theses, both of which reflect the developments seen in the rhetorical works of that period.64

**Declamation in The Schools.** The place of Declamation in the school public speaking program was explained by Parrish as late as 1925:

One standard method of acquiring proficiency in Public Speaking, a method as old as Public Speaking itself, is the practice of delivering memorized declamations. Its chief value, perhaps, is in the opportunity it offers for training students in the technique of delivery.65

Parrish says after a student understands the nature of Public Speaking and begins to feel the need for a better technique in its practice he should profit greatly by intelligent drill in declamation (p. 146).

In theory at least, it may be assumed that from the statement of policy of the First District School system in New Orleans, the director had this same thing in mind, even if some of the selections in Lovell's *United States Speaker* and possibly others used may appear now stilted and grandiloquent. Parrish does admit that speaking declamations should be more lively than conversation commonly is, but he emphasizes that if a student is to be encouraged to speak with reality, he should have for drill a selection that is for him real, one that he can himself speak in

64Guthrie, op. cit., p. 61.
a "real" situation, one suited for such an audience as he can really have (p. 149).

An earlier explanation, and one perhaps a little closer to the implications of the nineteenth century is voiced by Kleiser in the preface to his book, *How to Read and Declaim*.

A course of instruction in reading and declamation should have as its prime object the cultivation of taste and refinement in the student. The mechanical aspects will serve to develop a graceful carriage, correct standing and sitting positions, proper management of the breath, accurate enunciation and pronunciation, and the essential qualities of a good speaking voice. The mental aspects will give the student ample practice in intelligent and sympathetic reading and recitation, both of prose and poetry."66

Speaking of the popularity of declamation in the mid-nineteenth century, Wiksell points out that:

The declamation was one of the great basic mediums of speech instruction. The process involved chiefly memorizing a famous oration . . . , a dialogue or a poem and transmitting its meaning to others. In so doing habits of speech and manner were factors to be considered in the attempt to accomplish a convincing interpretation.

Like their predecessors Enfield, Scott and others, a number of nineteenth century teachers compiled numerous books containing selections from a variety of celebrated authors. Elocution in its formative stage consisted primarily of the use of these rudimentary textbooks in the home, the Sunday school, the school and the literary society. In a large number of instances no rules of elocution were evident.67

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67 Wiksell, p. 165.
There is no need here to race declamation to its original sources, but a citation to show a shift in emphasis even as early as Quintilian's time, 68 A.D., may serve to add insight into its use in the nineteenth century and even in our time. Parrish's remarks, just cited, are interesting in the light of what Quintilian was trying to do 1800 years earlier. Luella Cole writes:

Quintilian wanted school work to reflect as closely as possible the realities of life outside school. Thus, when a pupil wrote a theme he should write on some subject from his daily life.... When a student practiced a speech, he should take as his topic some issue of current public interest. The artificialities of his day he heartily deplored, and he fought manfully against the type of eloquence currently prevalent and popular. Three brief quotations from writers a little before, during, or a little after Quintilian's lifetime reveal the decadence that had already overtaken Roman culture, Roman eloquence and Roman education.

Here Cole cites Seneca the Elder, Controversiae, Vol. IX, Preface:

A man who composes a declamation does not write to convince but to please. That is why he seeks out tricks of style and leaves the arguments alone, because it is troublesome and gives little scope for rhetoric. He is content to beguile his audience with his sententiae and digressions; and he wants to be applauded, not to win his case.

And then from Seneca the Younger, Letters to Lucilius, No. 106, 1. 12:

We educate ourselves for the schoolroom, not for life; hence the extravagances with which we are troubled, in literature as everywhere else.

Here I know that I am talking nonsense; but I say many things to please my audience, not to please myself.

Citing now from Quintilian's Institutes, Vol. II, Chapter 10, Cole says:

In contrast to these apologies for a defense of bad taste, Quintilian's excellent sense stands out, as when he wrote in criticism of the artificial materials used for training pupils in declamation:
What is the use of conciliating a judge when there is no judge, of narrating what is plainly false, of proving a case that will never come up for decision.

Cole made the added point that to Quintilian, an oration was a practical means to a practical end—the proper guidance of the state—and not an exercise in verbal ingenuity.68

It seems likely that declamation was stressed in the New Orleans public schools, not only because it was a subject inherited as part of the liberal education of Renaissance and Reformation periods, but also because of a strong desire to cultivate taste and to prepare for the civic virtues.

**Establishment of The Normal School.** To complete the picture of public education in New Orleans before the Civil War and the particular place of speech education in it, attention must now be turned to the establishment of the normal school. The relation of speech subjects to the rest of the curriculum, and the importance given to them, can be easily demonstrated by a review of the origin and the plan of study of the first public normal school. Bauer reports:

As early as 1852, Superintendent Nicholas had recommended the establishment of a normal school, declaring that there was none in the United States and only one in Canada. Finally in 1858, largely through the exertions of Hon. William O. Rogers, then superintendent of the First District Schools, a normal school, the first in Louisiana, was opened in New Orleans. It continued to be an important element in our educational development until the War Between the States put an end to its usefulness.69

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While Bauer's report is essentially correct, there are a few things that need clarifying. (Nicholas did make the statement ascribed to him by Bauer.) But he advocated meetings of teachers, open to the public, where lectures by teachers and distinguished persons could be heard. He said, "Of all the agencies for the advancement of Free Schools, the various reports on education from other States seem to ascribe as much or more utility to the formation of teachers' Institutes, than any other."70

A state seminary was established in Alexandria in 1853.71 Presumably this was partially patterned after Pestalozzi and the Germans who had already pointed the way with their seminaries for teachers.72

Additionally, it must be noted that a normal school had been established at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1838, and that New York supplied a subsidy to private academies in 1844.73

An examination of the course of studies at Lexington shows it to be an almost purely professional school. Norton reports that the studies at Lexington included:

1. A thorough review of the "common branches"—spelling, reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic—required by law to be taught in the "common schools".

2. Advanced studies (except ancient languages) so far as time permits.


72 Noble, p. 172.

73 Ibid., p. 172.
3. The physical, mental, and moral development of children.

4. The science and art (i.e., principles and methods) of teaching each of the "common branches."

5. The art of school government; i.e., the organization of the day's work; rewards, punishments, and discipline in general.

6. Practice in teaching and governing a "model or experimental school."/4

The need for a normal school for Louisiana was specifically mentioned by Carrigan in the report already cited. He said:

In some states, Normal Schools are established, having for their sole object the education of teachers, while in other States Normal departments are erected. A class or department might be organized with good effect in our State Seminary of Learning, so soon as it commences operations.75

The subject came up again in 1857 when Samuel Bard, the superintendent, suggested it again. In his report to the Legislature, he wrote:

In recommending the immediate establishment of a Normal School, I am not proposing an untried scheme, but one the success of which has been fully proved in other countries and States of our Republic. Massachusetts was the pioneer in this noble cause in America. In 1839 she established three, which have been in successful operation, with increasing benefits ever since. In 1845, New York followed and established one; then Pennsylvania in 1848, Connecticut in '49 and Michigan in 1850, since which time the advantages have been so clearly demonstrated that other states are rapidly following in their footsteps; and it is full time we should avail ourselves of the experience of others in this matter, or in future we shall justly be accused of having been neglectful of our duty.76


Bard's arguments and his insistence had the desired result, and the law authorizing the State Normal School to be established in New Orleans was passed in 1857.

The following year, Superintendent W. I. Harrison in his report takes note of the action. He mentions that the Legislature provided for the New Orleans Normal School by an act of 1857. He adds that if the school is duplicated in other districts of the state, "in less than three years we will have a corps of teachers of whom the State will be proud."77

What actually was established was a secondary school or a normal training department of the Girls' High School of the First District of New Orleans. This is clearly shown in the third annual report of the Board of Directors of the Public Schools of the First District of the City of New Orleans, ex-officio Directors of the Normal School. This report was embodied in the Annual Report of the Hon. H. Avery, State Superintendent for the year closing with December, 1860.78

In this report it was pointed out that the Common Council of the city had matched a $10,000 appropriation of the State Legislature for the normal department. The school was designated "The State Normal School for the instruction and practical training of female teachers for the Free Public Schools, and other educational institutions of Louisiana." The permanent faculty was listed as:


1. A principal (Mrs. A. L. Pagaud,) who exercises general supervision over all the classes, and gives instruction especially to the seniors.

2. An assistant teacher (Mrs. K. Shaw) to whose care is entrusted the junior class.

3. A Tutor (Miss J. Benedict, an alumnus of the school,) who has charge of the Preparatory Department).

4. A teacher of Vocal Music, (Mrs. C. Fisher) who has charge of the entire school in this department.

The report mentions that of 116 admitted, 12 graduated and 37 left, leaving 67 in the school, who were teachers in the First, Second, Fourth Districts and in Jefferson and Carrollton.

A list of the first graduates of the State Normal School, March 24, 1860, includes Miss C. A. Beck, Miss M. McAuley, Mrs. R. A. Crane, Miss L. Suter, Miss E. A. Paddon, Mrs. J. W. Chamard, Miss M. E. Myers, Miss L. Ridgeley, Miss E. Neely, Miss C. Nichol.

Speech Implications of Education. The report says in describing the graduation, that in spite of the inclemency of the weather a good crowd attended.

The manifest enjoyment of the exercises on the part of those who were present, the happy union of literature and philosophy which distinguished the compositions and the theses of the graduates, the entertaining vocal and instrumental exercises, all combined to render the occasion one of unusual interest.79

During the two months preceding graduation the pupils were subjected to a rigid examination upon all prescribed branches of study---grammar, rhetoric, geography, history of the United States, and practical

79 Ibid., p. 107.
They were also required to present theses upon subjects embraced in the study of moral and mental philosophy, and essays on matters pertinent to the science of education and the art of teaching and to engage in literary and vocal exercises.

For purposes of this study, the interesting thing about the 1860 report is the complete course of study listed for seniors, juniors and the preparatory class. It shows that a significant amount of attention was being given to subjects listed under English and Literary Exercises.

**Senior Course**

**English Department:**
- *Exercises in Rhetoric and Prosody,* (Quackenbos')
- Howe's Ladies' Reader
- *Analysis of English Language* (Greene's)
- Etymology of same; prefixes, roots, etc., (Scholar's Companion)

**Scientific Department:**
- Physical Geography, (Warren's)
- General History and Descriptive Geography, incidentally Arithmetic, Algebra, (Davies')
- Mental Philosophy and Theses, (Stewart's)

**Literary Exercises:**
- *Kames' Elements of Criticism*
- Original Essays and Select Readings

**Vocal Music:**
- Methods of teaching in each branch explained by the Principal, and exercises by the scholars, alternately and on Saturdays.
- Scholars also exercises in teaching and school government in the First District Public Schools

**Junior Course**

**Exercises in Etymology of English Language,** (Scholar's Companion.)

**Dictation.** (Selections by teacher)

**Grammar and Parsing Exercises,** (Butler's Practical)

**Punctuation, Rhetoric, and Course of Composition,** (Quackenbos')

**Geography and History**

**Arithmetic and Methods of Teaching,** (Davies')
Moral Philosophy and Theses, (Abercrombie's)
Reading and Elocution, Compositions weekly.
Map drawing
Vocal Music
Competent juniors exercises in teaching, etc. in the First
District Schools

Preparatory Class

Spelling, Definitions, Prefixes etc. (Scholar's Companion)
Dictation and Orthoepy
English Grammar
Composition, Reading, etc. with Principles of Elocution
Modern Geography
History of the United States
Arithmetic
Map Drawing
Vocal Music

The Preparatory class is intended to effect reformation where
most needed—that is in the neophyte pupils' orthography—orthoepy,
handwriting, mode of reading, forms of expression, oral and
written; and their conversational faculty, as far as practicable
educational elements without which all other branches of human
learning are obviously of but little value in this enlightened
age, and which are indispensable to all members of society, par-
ticularly such as attempt to mould the youthful mind.80

The reason cited for the preparatory course is significant because
it ties in with one argument Superintendent Bard used in 1857 when he
urged the establishment of the normal school. There had been consider-
able interest in the science of phonetics during this period, and Bard
was attempting to show how the Normal School could be sueful in investi-
gating this study. He wrote:

There is a subject connected with education, which is creating
some interest in portions of our country as well as England—
I allude to phonetic teaching. I am not prepared to recommend
its introduction into our Public Schools, nor am I willing to

80 Ibid., pp. 110-111.
denounce it, because I am not thus prepared. It should and will stand or fall upon its intrinsic merit, and from what is claimed for it by its advocates, it merits at least a careful investigation. There are to be found amongst its advocates, men of eminence and learning, whose judgement is entitled to serious consideration and weight, which being the case, would, of itself, demand for it due respect. And we find it has met with countenance and support in not a few places. Even in our own State, where it has been taught to some little extent, it has dispelled much of the prejudice with which it was met. That our language is susceptible of improvements, there can be no doubt, and one of the greatest would be spelling by sound: having one letter to represent one sound, and not many sounds to one letter, as is now the case, would seem to be following nearer, after nature. Should a Normal School or Normal departments be established, the system might with propriety be included in the instruction there imparted which would be one of the best tests it could be put to, as those learning it would at once be able to see and appreciate all the advantages it holds out, and would enable the public schools to derive its benefits at an early day, if it realized the expectations of its adherents without much outlay.

In connection with the observations of Superintendent Bard, Emsley, Thomas, and Sifritt observe that the period from 1840 to 1860, was marked by a phonetic or phonotypic revolution, short lived, but amazingly successful.

Except for a few scattered groups and the help of their publishers, the orthoepists worked as individual writers, teachers, or advocates on their own. In the mid nineteenth century, however, appeared the first phonetic societies with their own journals...Orthography was branded heterography. Hardly a discritic remained. The cleavage was complete.

Textbooks with Speech Implications. As has been pointed out Walker's dictionary as well as Worcester's, Webster's and Johnson's already had been put into use for some time in New Orleans. Now in 1869

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Emsley, Thomas, and Sifritt, p. 332.
the normal school was showing an even larger interest in diction. The textbook used for orthoepy, etymology and spelling was the Scholar's Companion, which the card catalogue of the public library in New Orleans credits to Henry Butter, but the edition in the library is a late one. It is copyrighted by E. H. Butler and Co. in 1863 and 1891 and published by the American Book Company.83

In the introduction to the revised edition by Rufus W. Bailey, it is mentioned that the book had sold more than half a million copies in more than a hundred editions. The Scholar's Companion is divided into three parts. Part one deals with classification of words according to orthography and pronunciation. Part two is concerned with derivation, and part three contains a list of synonyms. There is no attempt to use phonetic symbols, but by a comparative method with cognates and stress marks, a scheme of pronunciation is worked out. The philosophy of the book is summed up in Bailey's words:

The study of language as a mental discipline, is perhaps, of greater influence than any other study: not generally so considered, only perhaps, because like everything common, its true position and true influence are lost in the subtle involution of its power with any study that is new, startling, or difficult.84

It probably should be noted that Bailey anticipated Watson and the Behaviorist psychologists with the remark that "A man's thoughts which are words uttered in himself, are the record by which he may read himself as truly as the opinion, written or spoken and defended, reveals

84Ibid., p. vi.
him to others. Habits of thinking are as important, often more important, on permanent forms of character than habits of speaking."85

The elocution taught in the normal department at the Girls' High School was by John William Stanhope Howe, 1797-1871. (The notation quoted above is evidently a misprint) This book also was published by E. H. Butler and Company of Philadelphia. A copy of an 1860 edition of a Junior Ladies Reader is still available in the New Orleans Public Library. It is described as "A choice of varied collections of prose and verse with a synopsis of elementary principles of elocution, expressly adapted to the use of the young, and designed as an introduction to Ladies Reader, 312 pp.86

The Butler grammar referred to in the list is a book edited by Noble Butler, Practical Grammar of the English Language, published by Morton in Louisville, Ky., in 1846. It was found on the junior reserved shelf of the New Orleans Public Library.87

Butler also is the editor of the Goodrich's Sixth Reader, also published by Morton as part of the American School Series, and used for years in the New Orleans public school system.88

The Quackenbos Composition and Rhetoric appears to have been popular in many parts of the country. It first appeared in 1854 and

85Ibid., p. viii.
87Practical Grammar of the English Language, Noble Butler, Editor, (Louisville: Morton, 1846) p. 254
and found its way to New Orleans early. A copy in the New Orleans Public Library is dated 1865.

Noble cites the book and offers an explanation for its adoption. He traces the Composition and Rhetoric from Lindley Murray's *English Grammar Adopted to the Different Classes of Learners*, a ninth edition of which appeared in 1818; and on through Blair's Lectures. Noble writes:

> During the second quarter of the century the inductive procedure was introduced and the memory method began to give way to construction and analysis. The widespread demand for training in public speaking furnished an incentive to the teaching of rhetoric. The academies featured the study and when the high schools came to be organized, rhetoric held a prominent place in their programs. Blair's Lectures (abridged) is found in the first outline of the Boston English Classical School (1823) and continued to hold an honored place there until 1852. G. P. Quackenbos deviated from the old models when, in 1854, he presented, in his Composition and Rhetoric, chapters on the history of the language, letter writing, and practical exercises in punctuation and capitalization. In this, as in many of the more recent texts, may be observed the breakdown of the formal organization. It is clear that the rhetoric of earlier times was sublimating—to use a chemical term—into composition.89

Somewhat the same approach for the Quackenbos book is cited by Hochmuth and Murphy. They point out that there was beginning to be a reaction to elocution as an imitative art about the middle of the century and the movement was toward philosophic and scientific principles:

> Meanwhile, a traditionally classical approach to rhetoric continued. Such textbooks as George Campbell's *Philosophy of Rhetoric*, Blair's *Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres*, and Richard Whately's *Rhetoric* were still used. More often, however, textbooks to some extent based on the principles of the English rhetorics but written by American teachers were

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used. Henry N. Day's Elements of the Art of Rhetoric, published in 1850 and later issued in 1867 as the Art of Discourse became popular. Adapted to American Needs, Day's treatises nevertheless were classical. Like Blair, Day treated discourse rather than oratory, but oratory remained the highest form of art. In his view oratory was discourse for the purpose of effect; poetry was discourse for the purpose of form; and history and treatises were discourse for the purpose of subject matter. Other textbooks by Americans gained prominence, such as that of G. P. Quackenbos, Advanced Course of Composition and Rhetoric.90

The Quackenbos text appears to have been used at Louisiana State University in 1866. Ruth Helen Lathrop in her unpublished Master's thesis on Louisiana State University history, cites the 1866 Register, in which is recorded that the course in English for the Preparatory Department, taught by Assistant Professor J. M. Boyd, used Quackenbos's First Lessons in English Composition. The course included composition and declamation once a week.91

From the same reference, comes the information that Noble Butler's English Grammar was used at Louisiana State University during the first year of the school's operation, 1860, as the prescribed text for the Fifth Class, which was the youngest group.92


92Ibid., p. 7.
An 1865 edition of a Quackenbos text may be found in the New Orleans Public Library. The title page explains that the book is a "Series of practical lessons on the origin, history, and peculiarities of the English language, punctuation, taste, the pleasures of the imagination, figures, style, and its essential properties, criticisms, and the various departments of prose and poetical composition: illustrated with copious exercises. Adapted to self-instruction and the use of schools and colleges."

The next is divided into five parts. The first part deals with a "History of the English Language," part two deals with "Punctuation," part three deals with "Rhetoric," part four is "Prose Composition," and part five is "Poetical Composition."

In his preface Quackenbos says:

Particular reference is here made to the text-books which for years have been regarded as standards on the subjects of which they respectively treat; to Blair's Lectures, Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful, Allison's Essay on Taste, and other books of a similar stamp, from which ideas, and occasionally language, have been freely drawn.

It has been shown in Chapter One of this paper that young women in New Orleans were receiving organized instruction, especially in reading and language, under Port Royalist influences, long before it was thought proper to teach young women systematically in other parts of the

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94 Ibid., title page
95 Ibid., p. 8.
country. However, Edgar W. Knight provides documentary evidence to show that in the Southern states almost countless academies and seminaries were established for girls before the Civil War. He calls attention particularly to the South Carolina Female Collegiate Institute in 1836. This school had a plan for vacation reading and for "female" teachers which may be compared with the Normal Department in New Orleans.  

In prescribing a syllabus for a reading program, one of the books listed under "Evidences of Christianity, Intellectual and Moral Philosophy" is James Elements of Criticism.  

The preliminary remarks give a hint of the philosophy involved:

The bird, which in the covert of the grove streaks its plumage, is preparing for a flight upward and abroad. Just so, in the employment of the closet—let us begin with God, and then issue forth upon our duties. They live in vain to themselves, to the true interests of life, and to the noblest purposes of their creation, who hang, like mistletoes, upon society, bearing the same relation to rational beings, which parasitical plants do to the vegetable kingdom.

Knowledge is not valuable in itself; it is the application of it, which renders it so. Mind, salutarily directed, is a productive principle. Intellectual effort, when happiest and most vigorous, if unaccompanied by beneficial results, is a mere day dream of a creative mind; and is followed by a correspondent depression and debility; just as a blow, expended in air, unnerves and paralyses the arm which aims it. The genuine effect of intellectual and moral culture, is to open the eyesight of discovery, and to disclose to ourselves our comparative ignorance. If directed aright, it has no tendency to create an overweening estimate of what we know. On the contrary, the humility of the votary of truth, arises from a consciousness, that in his best and most successful efforts, he does not

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intellectually occupy more of the domains of attainable knowledge, than he does, with his person, of the earth upon which he treads. 98

The work of Lord Kames was first published in England in 1761 and dedicated to George III, then King of Great Britain. The royal patronage was solicited in its behalf, on the ground that it treats of the Fine Arts, which exert a beneficial influence in society, and that it attempts to form a standard of taste, by unfolding those principles that ought to govern the taste of every individual. 99

Guthrie comments on the Kames influence in these words:

Of greatest importance, in terms of later trends in rhetorical theory is the work on taste and composition written by Genry Home, Lord Kames. With a few months after publication the three volumes comprising the Elements of Criticism were shipped to Harvard College, and copies were soon found all through the colonies.

The book is an effort to investigate, systematically, the metaphysical principles of the fine arts. Home discards the accepted authoritarian rules for literary composition, and builds instead new rules based on human nature. Thus it is a philosophical treatment of taste and criticism rather than a rhetoric in the sense that term has been used in this discussion, but it presages an era to follow. In only a few years rhetoric and belles lettres were to be decisively linked by Hugh Blair, and rhetoricians to become steadily less interested in oratory and public address and more concerned with "English Language and Literature." 100

Kames influence on Campbell's Lectures, cited by Edney, suggests a chain of influence in British and American rhetoric and elocution.

Edney says:

98 Ibid., p. 405.
Unquestionably Campbell's analysis was influenced by the practical, epistemological, inductive character of seventeenth and eighteenth century English philosophical thought. Undoubtedly the inspiration for his orientation of rhetoric toward a "science of human nature" and his itemization of the ends of eloquence is to be found in works of Lord Kames, Francis Bacon, John Locke, and David Hume.101

How criticism got into the secondary school program is suggested by Borchers and Wagner, who emphasize that the public schools, though at first designed to prepare the pupils for commercial pursuits and general living, by the mid-century were shifting in the direction of grammar-school subjects.

A tendency more and more evident toward the half-century mark was to deal with the oral aspects of composition as elocution and to confine rhetoric largely to written composition and criticism. This was in keeping with the general movement towards Belle lettres. Courses in criticism or in criticism of the best English Authors probably were similar to such rhetoric courses.102

The Kames book edited by Boyd had a good many omissions from the original text, and several additions derived, by the editors own admission, from "Cousin on the Beautiful; from Lectures of Barron, Hazlitt and President Hopkins; from Lord Jeffrey's celebrated dissertation on Beauty (in his Review of Allison on Taste); and from an elaborate essay on the Philosophy of Style, contained in a somewhat recent number of the Westminster Review."103


The book contains discussions of emotions, of beauty, dignity and grace, wit, figures of speech, style and related subjects.

Before leaving the pre-Civil War Period of education in New Orleans, the probable nature of the teaching of reading in the public schools should be discussed. There do not seem to be available any sets of instructions to teachers specifically in New Orleans, but judging from the emphasis on elocution and the choice of textbooks, some inference can be drawn.

At least one text that was used in the teaching of elocution in the period before 1860 has shown up. A book by C. P. Bronson, published by Morton and Griswold, entitled *Elocution or Mental and Vocal Philosophy* was found in the possession of one teacher, Miss Margret Hymel, now at the Behrman High School, who said it was a school book of her grandmother's.

The title page is quite imposing. It declares that the book involves "reading and speaking and is designed for the development and cultivation of both body and mind, in accordance with the nature, uses, and destiny of man; illustrated by two or three hundred choice anecdotes; three oratorical and poetical readings; five thousand proverbs, maxims, and laconics, and several hundred elegant engravings."

The whole book seems to have a mystic approach. The publishers claim for it that after Prof. Bronson fell senseless after speaking for about an hour and a half, he discovered causes and remedies which enabled

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him to speak for six to ten hours without ill effect. The publishers claim for him that he was the first to teach dorsal and abdominal breathing which he learned from observing children and Indians.

To secure a perfectly healthy distribution of the vital fluids throughout the body, and a free and powerful activity of the mind, there must be a full and synchronous action of the brain, the lungs, and the viscera of the abdomen; the soul operating, naturally, on the dorsal and abdominal muscles, and thus setting in motion the whole body. (Advertisement opposite preface)

The book is a potpourri of disconnected paragraphs dealing with disconnected articles on elocution. First is a physiological introduction with illustrations of muscles, nerves and bones. Then come oratorical and poetic gestures. These are the old plates from Chironomia again. A disconnected approach to sounds, and under "principles of elocution" an attempt to describe emotions and manners completes the instruction. Listed as reading recitations and dialogues are short prose or poetry selections.

Methods of Teaching Reading. Perhaps the best way to illustrate the probable method of teaching reading may be found in the Journal of Mary Swift.105 The Journal is the diary of a student at the Lexington Academy (the first normal school) in 1839.

Several extracts may serve to give some idea of the way reading was taught:

The method of teaching reading by commencing with the words was first recommended by Miss Edgeworth. In the old way the child was kept upon the alphabet, which was to him a number of unconnected sounds, and may justly be considered like stringing beads on sand. Speaking the letters, gives no clue to pronunciation, as may be seen by taking the parts of the work physick and pronouncing each letter. After the scholar had pronounced all the letters in the first syllable he has no idea of the manner in which it is pronounced. It is not best to commence quite yet, with the sounds, but it is still worse to teach the (scholars) about labials, vowels and consonant, mutes, &c. Let them put very simple words into sentences and read them and see that they read naturally. Take care to question them much, upon what they read. Mischief is done in schools, by having them to read, what they do not understand.  

In reading speak the words with proper pitch, rate, and force, not too fast, nor set off by regular intervals; pitch depends on the subject, and is to be varied from one degree above a whisper, to shouting and calling. Certain intonations are expressive of emotion; thus grief, pity, incline the voice to the rising, indignation and anger, to the falling. Why, it is not known. The pitch, rate, and force should be nearly what we use in conversation; therefore that, more than all others should be cultivated; but not exclusively, as attention should be paid to the whole compass of the voice. 

Reading is the uttering of certain elementary sounds combined to express ideas. Elementary sounds are the powers of letters. These are made by the muscles of the mouth, which are governed by the same laws as the other muscles. Exercise them thoroughly and be careful to do it correctly. The chief business is to drill in the elementary sounds until the organs can strike them perfectly. There is no work better calculated to assist, than Russell's Enunciation. Many common defects in reading, are owing to want of thorough drilling in these forty-two sounds. 

The art of reading is the correct utterance of written composition. It not only gives the meaning, but the force of the sentiments, without the help of the eye or arms. It differs from oratory, and is almost synonymous with elocution. 

106 Ibid., p. 155.  
107 Ibid., p. 165.  
108 Ibid., p. 164.
A young lady can do no better than to confine the eye, and read without gesticulation. There are two kinds of reading, grammatical and rhetorical. The first expresses the sense, the second expresses the sense, and all we can do with the voice, without the eye or arm.\footnote{Ibid., p. 173.}

The qualities of a good reader are many, and with the elements all nearly are endowed. Articulation, enunciation, are requisite and that a person should be free from drawling and precipitancy; his voice should have smoothness and force, compass and variety.\footnote{Ibid., p. 183.}

Read to them yourselves; set them a copy. The fault is, not to make enough pauses rather than too many; they give power to the reading. The fault common to this school is, reading too far without taking breath. Sometimes pauses are used improperly; sometimes they are used for grammatical effect and should be little regarded. Some give the same length to the same pause, but it should depend on the sens. For training the voice--make selections from the extremes--There are three influections; the rising used for petitions entreaties, for all tender emotions, and for direct questions. The falling, for command, and for grave matters, requests with strong emotions, terror and exclamation.\footnote{Ibid., p. 183.}

Summary. From the material in Chapter II several observations may be made:

New Orleans had no public school system of its own as late as 1841. When the public schools of New Orleans were established the desire was for a good English education. Massachusetts had a good public school system in which an English education was being offered. The New Orleans school officials turned to Massachusetts for a pattern. Thus, New England influences were felt here.

There were many activities which could be properly grouped under the modern term, speech. Declamation and elocution, rhetoric, composition
and reading were regularly prescribed.

The elocutionist was expected to recite or read to the pupils, and possibly to demonstrate some of the techniques of reading, and the children were expected to learn by example or emulation.

In the reading program, there was an early recognition of the manner of utterance as a factor in meaning, in spite of, or perhaps because complaints that reading was mechanical and meaningless to the children. On July 3, 1851 the School Board of the Second Municipality adopted a resolution authorizing a committee to consider the mode of teaching reading and develop rules aimed at improvement. Reading was differentiated from spelling, and the evidence shows clearly that both were taught orally. In the public examination, audibility, articulation, enunciation and pronunciation were definite points to be checked. The stress placed upon dictionaries and orthoepy indicates that definitions were important and that considerable attention was paid to thought getting.

By 1860 there was considerable value placed upon phonetic aspects of utterance as a factor in meaning.

The evidence also points to Pestalozzi's influence on recitations in class, group discussions, criticism and extemporaneous discussion. Good order, of course, was valued than as it is now, but there were many socializing values in the recitations as well as the public exhibitions.
CHAPTER III

1860 to 1905 - ELOCUTIONARY INFLUENCES

Backgrounds. It is no part of this report to philosophize or engage in fanciful speculation, yet it probably should be observed that but for the Civil War and the well-meant donation of John McDonogh in 1850, and of later philanthropical groups, the City of New Orleans might have developed early one of the most advanced systems of education in the nation.

The early advanced curriculum, the concentration on secondary education and the genuine concern of the people for public education after it took root in the 1840's point the direction the entire system might have gone.

McDonogh's money lessened the need for public financial support at a time when such support might have been given willingly, and the war years and the Reconstruction saw a nearly complete loss of respect for and support of public education by the majority of white people. As Harris points out, McDonogh, a wealthy New Orleans merchant, left the New Orleans public schools something like three-quarters of a million dollars of his fortune. For many years the donation proved highly beneficial in that it made possible school facilities which otherwise could not have been realized. Ultimately like most similar noble acts, it probably did infinitely more harm than good, for the people came to rely upon this inadequate fund for their school buildings, and put off
entirely too long their building program.¹

Ironically, about the turn of the century, when the Board erected
a monument to him, the necessity of honoring McDonogh on Founders' Day
became the means of stimulating considerable interest in speech training
and in speech activities.

Harris (p.16) appraises the situation in New Orleans in 1861 in
these words: "Public education had become popular in the City of New
Orleans. The public schools were patronized by all classes of people,
and no antagonism was observable in any quarter." The patriotic spirit
that had moved across the country was being felt in New Orleans as well.
But at mid-century a new nationalism was sweeping the city. With war clouds
hanging over their heads, many in the South insisted upon some changes in
the text books. They were looking for the Southern viewpoint with respect
to slavery. The Southern orators became the chief source of declamations
and readings. Text books written in the North "had no sympathy for the
statemanship of John C. Calhoun and said so" Pp. 15). Calhoun's attitude
on slavery is recorded by Polk. He says:

John C. Calhoun, strangely enough, looked on slavery as the indis-pensable foundation of freedom. He supported slavery in the name
of liberty. "Many in the South", he asserted, "once believed
that it (slavery) was a moral and political evil. That folly and
dulsion are gone. We see it now in its true light, and regard
it as the most safe and stable basis for free institutions in
the world."

Polk interprets Calhoun's philosophy in the following manner:

¹T. H. Harris, The Story of Public Education in Louisiana. (New
Democracy is possible only among equals, as ancient history proves; inequality between economic classes, the exploiter and the exploited, has always prevented the successful functioning of a democracy; industrialism has created classes in the north and made true democracy impossible there; in the South, on the contrary, there is only one class, that of free and equal whites (the Negro didn't count). Athens and other ancient democracies subsisted on slave labor; such labor is necessary to give the ruling class sufficient time and opportunity to create a fine civilization; therefore the South offers the only chance in America for a "humane and cultivated democracy" of equals.  

**Federal Occupancy.** The period from 1862, when New Orleans was captured by Federal forces, to 1876, when the military control was withdrawn and the Republicans were overthrown by the Democrats, was characterized by bitter struggle, constant turnover of teaching force, poverty and mismanagement in certain quarters. But despite the evils that followed as the aftermath of the war, in perspective, there are major changes that stand out. The four school districts were consolidated under a Federal Bureau of Education and never again separated. Negro education was systematized. The French Department was eliminated, and English became the sole language of instruction. Though French was later restored, its original prominence in the system was never regained.

Minutes of the Bureau of Education of the City of New Orleans, dated September 2, 1862, show that Lieutenant G. Weitzel, assistant military commander, presided. There were present E. H. Durell, chairman of the Bureau of Finance; Julian Neville, chairman of the Bureau of Streets and Landings; Benjamin Flanders, Treasurer of New Orleans; Stoddard Howell, Comptroller of New Orleans.  

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John Butler Carter was named superintendent and he held the position until September 16, 1865. Charles Claiborne was named secretary. Principals and teachers were appointed to all schools. By May, 1863, the Bureau had taken over the management of schools, named four visiting boards and consolidated all school libraries at the City Hall. Because the Normal School was a state supported institution, and the state remained Confederate to the end, the Normal School appears to have been closed. State support of the Normal School at New Orleans was withdrawn in 1862, but the school seems to have been restored in 1868 as the New Orleans Normal School.  

Carter reorganized the school system into lower primary, upper primary, grammar and secondary school divisions. Parker and Watm's Readers were uniformly installed; Quackenbos's English Grammar was used in the upper grades and Webster's Speller was installed in the lower grades. Definitions and dictation were daily routine and composition and declamation were semi-monthly activities.

On February 6, 1865, Superintendent Carter recommended a plan of organization for the entire school system, consisting of a Normal School, two high schools, District Schools, and Evening Schools.  

In spite of all that has been written to the contrary of the Reconstruction period, there is in the record a report by a Southerner, John McNair, state superintendent of education, 1864-1867, that the New Orleans schools were excellent:

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4 Harris, p. 15.

They were free and open to all, the teachers were competent and faithful, and public sentiment supported them.\footnote{Harris, p. 21.}

In support of this point of view are the facts of the early and comparatively easy capture of the city; the loyalty of many teachers who helped to keep the schools in operation and the early return of William O. Rogers to his post as superintendent; and in addition, the records of the McDonogh Fund which are available in the school board office, 703 Carondelet, show a continuing function of private assistance to the public schools.

It is Harris's belief, however, that the spies in the schools, the irritating Northern teachers, the hate for General Butler and other factors were not conducive to the best in education. He makes the point that the children were forced to \underline{memorize and recite and to read speeches and other material with the Northern point of view}. There is little that needs be said in this study of the unfavorable conditions and the struggle with carpetbaggers, corrupt officials and generally poor conditions, except that speech education in New Orleans was not a total loss. There were still the influences of the older teachers, of the private schools and of the conscientious newer teachers. Reading was still oral, declamation and rhetoric was still taught; public exhibitions and graduation exercises were held and entrance examinations were still the rule for admission to high school.\footnote{Ibid., p. 45.}
Beginnings of Negro Education. While the Federal Bureau of Education decreed that Negro children should be admitted into the schools on an equal footing with white children, there still was practically no integration. Holland Thompson explains that Negro education fell largely into the hands of private organizations. He writes:

Just after the close of the Civil War, thousands of white women went South to teach in schools which were established for negroes by Northern churches or benevolent associations. The phases through which the majority of these teachers went were enthusiasm, doubt, disillusionment, and despair.8

Again, he says:

The Negro public schools were organized along the same lines as the white, so far as circumstances permitted, but the work was difficult and remains so to this day.9

Harris corroborates the fact that the schools never were mixed. In the City of New Orleans "the great majority of the white children were in private schools."10 Harris points out that the Freedmen's Bureau established by the Northern forces organized at least seventy-eight schools for Negro children. He explains this bureau thus:

A part of General Butler's military government of New Orleans and the surrounding country was the Freedmen's Bureau of ill fame. The educational department of this arm of the military regime proceeded to establish schools in all conquered regions for negro children, and evening classes for adults. According to the statements of B. Rush Plumly, president of the City School Board, and John B. Carter, City Superintendent, the Bureau turned over to the regular school authorities seventy-eight schools in New Orleans and the adjacent territory (p. 21).

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9 Ibid., p. 175.

10 Harris, p. 33.
The Board Minutes show that provisions for these schools had been made at a meeting of the Board of Directors on April 11, 1867. In a letter to the Common Council W. S. Mount, President of the Board, pointed out there were 23,000 colored children between the ages of six and 18. The schools were opened on October 15, 1867 under charge of the Freedmen's Bureau, and were turned over to the board on November 15 with 3800 enrolled.\textsuperscript{11}

The education of Negro teachers was another problem. In 1866 the Methodist Episcopal Church founded Thomson's Biblical Institute, which later was merged with Union Normal School when the latter was established by the Freedmen's Aid Association of the same church to train teachers for instruction of young Southern Negroes. In 1873 the Louisiana branch of the church obtained a charter for New Orleans University, which in 1935 became part of Dillard. Straight College was organized in 1869 on land purchased by the American Missionary Association of New York. It also merged with Dillard in 1935. Southern University, a state school, was founded during this period and operated in New Orleans until it was removed to Baton Rouge about forty years ago.\textsuperscript{12}

Straight College agreed to admit graduates of the Negro schools in November, 1869. Superintendent Rogers wrote the principals that "pupils of grammar departments, found qualified for admission to academic or normal

\textsuperscript{11} \textit{Minutes}, Vol. 5, p. 313

\textsuperscript{12} M. Mortimer Freeger, \textit{Times-Picayune}, January 25, 1937
departments of that institution will be admitted to the same free of charge."

**Speech Training in The Negro Schools.** For some idea of what may have been taught in these institutions, a part of the annual report of William G. Brown, the state's first and only Negro Superintendent of Education, is here reproduced. The report was for the year 1875 and it concerned two of the schools for Negroes:

The New Orleans University at Camp and Race Streets. This institution belongs to the Louisiana Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church and is supported by the Freedmen's Aid Society of that church. It is organized into four departments, Classical, Scientific, Normal, Theological.

Straight University at Esplanade and Derbigny. The aim of the institution is the highest type of Christian education, to supply the same want in this part of the South that Yale and Harvard have supplied in the history of New England.

There were three departments to Straight University, theological, law and academic. The Rev. W. S. Alexander, a graduate of Yale was in charge of the theological department. Homilies was a required subject for all students in theology. It may be assumed that the law students, who were taught by lawyers of the city, also were trained in public speaking. The academic department embraced "classical and common English courses."

In view of the total situation at the third quarter of the century in New Orleans, it cannot be said with any certainty that the Negro

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13 *Minutes, Vol. 5, p. 371*

students were getting a particularly thorough training in homiletics, but it is interesting to note that the teacher at Straight University is credited with being from Yale where, according to Hoshor, homiletics had been established by Chauncey Allen Goodrich who had held the chair of professor of rhetoric from 1817 to 1839. Hoshor says, "a consideration of the development of rhetorical theory in the nineteenth century would not be complete without considering homiletics" (p. 144). He defines the term as a "special branch or application of rhetoric" (p. 145).

The first Negro high school under school board control was opened at Royal and Hospital Streets on November 6, 1877. This served as a normal school as well. By 1880 Superintendent Rogers was able to report that the public schools were being aided in efforts to improve Negro instruction by the fact that there were four universities and a number of parochial and private schools competing for the attendance of this class of pupils. Many teachers of the colored children were white graduates of the high and normal schools. It is reasonable to assume that reading practices were elocutionary and that declamation and oral exercises were included in the curriculum for Negro children, just as was the case in the white schools. The practice of using white teachers in Negro schools continued through the first quarter of the 20th century.

Immediate Post War Period. Louisiana was readmitted to the Union

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17 Minutes, Vol. 11, p. 8.
with five other states on June 25, 1868, but the schools did not actually return to Southern control until 1877 when the Democrats gained the political power. Under a general school bill of 1869 William O. Rogers was replaced by J. B. Carter in 1870, and Carter was replaced by Charles Boothby in 1873. Rogers returned as superintendent of public schools in 1877 and remained in that post until he went to Tulane University in December, 1884. He was succeeded by Ulric Bettison, and four years later Warren Easton assumed the leadership. All three men believed in uniformity of instruction. Rogers strengthened the grade system and Easton gave it the form it has continued to have for more than fifty years.

Rogers also must be credited with returning to the practice of holding public exhibitions, and establishing uniform classes; and to him also should go the credit for keeping the public school system under a single control. When in 1866, the City Council began a move to revert to four separate school district Rogers wrote to the board on April 30, stressing the educational advantage of uniformity. He said:

By prescribing the same standard of excellence, it is possible to produce a healthful competition among schools of similar grade, whereby the usefulness and efficiency of all parts of the system may be promoted.

The experience of educators in various portions of our own country—as well as of other countries—who have devoted years of patient toil and earnest thought to the training of youth as an art—and to the development of the science of education is entitled to some consideration. That experience so far as I understand it, favors uniformity in every large system of public education. Uniformity in the use of textbooks—in the nature of the studies pursued—in the method of instruction, in the end to be accomplished, admits of classification which shall embrace every mental condition, and in the generalization embrace all the essentials of a sound common school education. Our public schools under a single direction and a common impulse,
are capable of accomplishing these results.\footnote{Minutes, Vol. 6, p. 152-154.}

Rogers urged the Council not to revert to the four-district system, but to wait and see the results of the June examinations just before the summer vacation was to begin. He mentioned the savings in consolidating the eight high schools into four, and pointed out the advantages of uniformity. In the end, his judgment prevailed, and that year in June he was able to send a circular to all schools requiring that page numbers and time allotted to each subject be specified. Speech activities were included. Article four required that:

General exercises will include declamation, reading of compositions, oral instruction, singing. The time given to such exercises in each class should be stated.\footnote{Ibid., p. 157.}

While Rogers recommended that public oral examinations and exhibitions be reintroduced to give the public some idea of what was being done by teachers and pupils, it was his belief also that daily recitations should be counted for admission to high school. "I am of the opinion", he wrote, "that the qualification of each pupil in the high schools for promotion to a higher class, or for receiving diplomas as graduates, should not be governed by public examination, but by the records of daily recitation, deportment and attendance as kept during the year by the teachers of those schools."\footnote{Ibid., p. 157.}

As a result of this view there was a gradual lessening of emphasis in extra-curricular speaking activities. On December 16, 1867
Superintendent Rogers wrote to John Percival, principal of the Central High School:

Dear Sir:
The Committee on High Schools, at a meeting held last evening, deemed it necessary to curtail the programme of exercises for the evening of the 23rd int., in Lyceum Hall. Having considered the report of the senior class, for the session just closed, it was regarded as an act of justice that the Declamation should be confined to the following named young gentlemen, who have been reported most favorably for scholarship in their daily recitations:

1. S. J. Kohlman - Valedictory
2. B. C. Shields - Salutatory
3. S. W. Small - English Oration
4. N. D. Coleman - English Oration
5. S. F. Lewis - English Oration
6. Benjamin Edwards - English Oration
7. S. J. Simon - French Composition

The name of Master H. G. Federo who was reported as sixth upon the list is intentionally omitted, it being understood that he desired to be excused from the public exercise. 21

Summary of Aims and Purposes of Postwar Education in Speech.
After the Civil War education was influenced by the new political and economic conditions of the City of New Orleans. During the Reconstruction there was little need for training in morals and manners because living for the most part was difficult. Speech education, which since the earliest times was associated with civic virtue found little encouragement until after the return of Southern control.

The Return to Southern Control. When Southern control was restored, the new regionalism became as strong a motive in education as

21Ibid., p. 379.
it had been in 1860. Speech education became necessary to the new purposes. Southern orators and authors were revered and imitated. Reading became a major concern because the percentage of illiteracy rose when many children were withheld from school. To this must be added the fact that new immigrations beginning in the 1880's emphasized the need for an educational program which emphasized language. A linguistic approach to improvement in speech may be seen from an examination of the aims of the curriculum outlined by Superintendent Warren Easton. The trend is indicated in the annual report of Superintendent Easton in 1902-3. He listed as the birthplace of pupils, New Orleans, United States, Mexico, Cuba, Central America, South America, Dominion of Canada, England, France, Germany, Spain, Italy, other countries of Europe and Asia. Heaviest immigration was from Italy; next were England, France and Germany.22

Superintendent Easton expressed the aims in language instruction from 1888, on page 24 of the same report in these words:

Language teaching in our schools has decidedly improved since we began to lose our reverence for the ponderous old forms of English grammar. It is now our endeavor to express the properties and relation of words in the briefest and simplest manner, and to teach reading, grammar and composition as subjects closely related and mutually dependent. Nevertheless, I believe most of our Principals agree that our higher text-book on grammar should be strictly a well-classified technical grammar with each subject fully treated under its appropriate head.

More rational methods are now used in the teaching of composition. It is a great relief to the average pupil

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to know that all the teacher expects of him is that his production shall fairly represent his conversational power. He is not required to write what he does not know; and in the first draft of the composition, written in presence of the teacher, he is not held responsible for errors. Invention thus set free is able to act with greater energy, and original compositions are produced, to serve as a basis for subsequent enlargement, criticism and correction.

In the next three pages of the report Easton reviews aims of teaching reading and suggests some methods to meet these aims. He discusses the needs of the pupils and shows how the emphasis has been placed on thought getting and thought transmission in the reading program.

Among the successful candidates for admission to our High Schools there are too many poor readers. To teach reading well the teacher himself must be a good reader, and must make the pupils realize that the study is important. In their anxiety to prepare their classes for the examination many principals are loath to devote much of their time to a subject usually omitted from the test for the promotion of their pupils. To become a good reader the pupil should begin in the right way and there is no question of more concern to the primary teacher than to discover what the right way is. Probably the best way to learn is to profit by the experience of those who are successful. One teacher, whose little pupils read with remarkable naturalness and fluency, says that she has no system. She simply insists upon correct reading, and will accept nothing else. Another says that children read unnaturally because they are not sufficiently familiar with the words. She makes her pupils read a paragraph backward until they learn the words, before allowing them to attempt its proper reading. Another very successful and more philosophical teacher begins without the book, and endeavors by a series of questions to draw from her pupils the very language of the lesson. This being the product of spontaneous thought is of course, spoken naturally and with proper emphasis. Where this is impossible, the teacher repeats a sentence and asks the pupils to "Tell" it to her. She then requires them to write the sentence and then to read what they have written. Finally the pupils with perfect ease read their own thoughts from the printed page. This plan seems to be slow, but it is thorough.

It is clear, however, that this method is best for beginners only. As soon as the pupil has mastered a fair stock of words,
the order is to be reversed and the pupil is to obtain his ideas not from the teacher or from pictures, but from the printed page. To compel the pupil to form a thorough acquaintance with every new word the careful teacher will require him to spell such words in writing at the close of every lesson. In conducting these spelling exercises much will depend upon the way in which the words are given. If the teacher will read distinctly the sentence containing the word and then give the word to be spelled, pronouncing it naturally, the pupil will readily understand what word is given and will unconsciously acquire a knowledge of its meaning and its proper use. Besides, the average pupil will in reading regard with great care those words that he knows he will soon be called upon to reproduce. I do not believe that the habit of careful reading can be cultivated so well in any other way. In the course of the reading lesson the careful teacher will not only give due attention to the chief faults of utterance but will see that every pupil clearly comprehends the author's meaning. I have often observed that the child who reads unnaturally recites unnaturally. The words come forth as from the lips of a talking machine or from those of an auctioneer. It is difficult to believe that the child who recites in such a tone can understand clearly what he is saying. He certainly offers no evidence of that rapid but thorough analysis of language without which there can be no intelligent reading. To cultivate a taste for reading the thoughtful teacher will take advantage of an interesting lesson to recommend for the home reading of the pupils the most interesting work of the author. But this should be done with great care. The pupils who follow his advice should not be disappointed. The work recommended should be interesting as well as instructive, and the recommendations should not be too frequent.

By the 1880's also, New Orleans was shifting from an agrarian philosophy to an urban and commercial way of life. The schools had to adopt new aims to meet the new needs. Spelling and technical grammar became important. Preparation was for continuation of the Southern heritage, but the practical purpose of training for entering into commerce and trade was added. The need was universal education in reading, writing and counting. Research and science were not nearly as important as control over the English language for business and social purposes. Special attention given to pronunciation, and the cosmopolitan population
account for the difference in articulation and intonation of native New Orleanians from the rest of the state.

Superintendent Easton recognized the growing needs of the community by pointing out the phenomenal industrial and commercial advances.

The eyes of the world are now turned upon us and the schools must keep pace with the new life and remarkable progress of the city. We cannot remain at a stand still, they must advance. The system must provide not only ample accommodations for all the children of the community, but also afford educational advantages and opportunities equaling those of any other city in the United States. It becomes absolutely necessary for the welfare and prosperity of New Orleans that her schools be able to meet the searching glance and submit to the trying test of the prospective citizen without unfavorable criticism or loss of prestige.

Easton instituted a new course of study which Easton said was of "real everyday service to the teachers."

William T. Polk's summary of aims as applied to the South may also apply to New Orleans as an individual city. Polk wrote:

From 1870 to 1900 the South in order to survive had to accomplish three tremendous tasks, any of which would have been enough to absorb the physical and mental energy of a country in full health and vigor.

First, the South had to create government, to re-establish rudimentary law and order and supplant the chaos of carpetbag rule with representative government.

Second, the South had to do something no other part of the country had had to do - it had to change its form of government, root and branch; not a superficial change of administration or parties but a radical change of its whole tradition and philosophy of government, from an aristocratic to a democratic form. This it did and is still doing.

Third, the South simultaneously had to lay the foundation for changing its economy from an almost totally agrarian form to one which would eventually balance agriculture with industry (pp. 212-213).
These general purposes had their specific influence upon the content and method of education in the City of New Orleans. By 1900 the Southerners had laid the necessary foundations, in government and economics for existence. Early in the period two new factors appeared. The first was a fresh vision of what the South might become. This vision was concerned not with the resurrection of the Old South but the creation of the New South. The second important factor in Southern progress was a faith in public education as an immense lever to move the South upward and forward. Many Southern leaders came to believe that the South could attain a better way of life only by a combination of education and industry, culture and commerce. Speech training was to assume a new importance in the curriculum.

Textbooks Used After The Return to Southern Control. Spencer's Grammar was furnished free by the state and used as a reference text with Butler's. By September, 1877, two other grammars, Brown's and Swinton's, were added. Rogers, in his 1877 report to the State Superintendent said, "Brown's Grammar appears to be the favorite work upon the subject in the estimation of our teachers. The last school board ordered the introduction of Swinton's series consisting of Language Primer, Language Grammar, School Composition, and Progressive Grammar, but Butler's, Brown's and Swinton's are equally used." In this same report, Rogers recommended Burnel's First Lessons in English Composition for the highest grammar grades.

The McGuffey Influence. The most outstanding change in the cur-

23Minutes. Vol. 5, p. 188.
riculum consisted of the addition of McGuffey's *Electric Series of Readers* in 1869. These books were used in addition to Goodrich's *Readers* already in use. However, a state course of study introduced in 1878 shows that in the rest of the state Watson's *Readers* were in use at that time.

In New Orleans, Watson's *Independent Readers* were rejected on the ground that they contained "certain passages and whole pieces of a strongly marked sectarian bias." Wilson's *Readers* had a brief use, but on July 24, 1877, Rogers reported to the board that Wilson's *Readers* were too expensive and aimed too high as readers. He said, on the other hand:

> McGuffey's Readers seem better adapted to our schools, are generally used in other institutions and localities, and hence more easily obtained by the poorer classes, and their cost I should judge to be considerably less. I therefore recommend the use of McGuffey's Readers for our city schools.

The McGuffey *Readers* continued in use until the turn of the century. Their influence on the reading habits and on the teaching of reading, therefore, can be said to extend for at least three generations in New Orleans. The shift from the earlier readers shows a lessening of the Walker influence on pronunciation and a tendency to abandon the mechanical school of delivery. Goodrich, for example is cited by Tousey as a follower of Lindley Murray, whose *English Reader* of 1813 was designed to teach morals and virtue. She points out that Murray discussed

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the management of the voice under such terms as proper loudness, distinctness, due degree of slowness, propriety of pronunciation, emphasis, tones, pauses and mode of reading verse.\textsuperscript{27}

McGuffey's readers were adapted to the mind of the child, using short, simple sentences, constant drills. The selections were free from theological mysticism and fear of death which had characterized previous readers. The literary merit of the McGuffey selections is unquestioned. Children were introduced to stories they could understand, in a language they could understand.\textsuperscript{28}

In the various readers, McGuffey treated eight elements of elocution. He believed that articulation, as the first element, was of prime importance and should be taught with a phonetic approach. He gave detailed instructions for inflection, accent, emphasis, modulation, quantity and quality, poetic pause, movement and gesture. A useful summary of McGuffey's contributions to general and speech education are set forth in an eight-point list by Tousey:

McGuffey's contributions to general and speech education are set forth in the following summary:

1. Method of using drills on syllables as a unit in word mastery, teaching first the alphabet, then proceeding directly to reading, with spelling as the means of learning words.

2. Arrangement and choice of material adapted to the mind of the child, with content free from mysticism, fear of death and predestination.

3. Questions placed at the end of each lesson to aid the pupil in preparation for oral recitation.


\textsuperscript{28}Ibid., p. 38.
4. Setting up standard of social life, and the establishing of principles of fundamental moral behavior through education.

5. Advocacy of adult education and free public schools.

6. Emphasis on specific instructions to teachers.

7. Stress on clear enunciation as the first essential in teaching foreigners English, with continuous correction of faulty pronunciation.

8. Reaction against the mechanical and imitation method of teaching oral reading, and the formulation and use of rhetorical rules and principles in his classes.\(^{29}\)

Tousey emphasized that while McGuffey's Reader passed through many revisions from 1836 - 38 to 1920, there was little change in the directions for reading.

Reading meant to McGuffey not only oral reading; it meant even more significantly, oral reading to an audience, whether that audience consisted of one or many.\(^{30}\)

Webster's Speller continued to be used until 1888 when it was replaced with McGuffey's Speller. Swelt describes the use of the Webster Speller by pointing out that it was designed so that the beginner could learn a standard pronunciation along with spelling lessons. The Speller begins with the alphabet and proceeds with exactness to the one-consonant and vowel combination, advances to three letter combinations and continues to words of two or more syllables. Part of every page, except toward the end of the book, is given to sentences for reading exercises. The end of the book contains short fables and stories.\(^{31}\) McGuffey's method, on the other hand, introduced the word method of learning to spell.

\(^{29}\)Ibid., pp. 39-58.

\(^{30}\)Ibid., p. 62.

Organization After the Return to Southern Control: By 1877, Superintendent Rogers was able to write, "The boundary lines of school districts seem to have disappeared." He described the organization of the schools into high schools; grammar schools, Class A and B. In a report to the board, he explained:

The primary schools are for instruction in the rudiments of reading, spelling, writing and arithmetic. The grades of these schools shall correspond with the primary departments of the District or Grammar Schools.

The grammar schools shall be for the instruction of children between six and twenty-one years of age whose parents or guardians reside within the local school districts created by the Board of Directors. They shall contain four grades or departments, known as first and second grammar, first and second primary departments, the subdivision of which shall depend upon the number of pupils and the general prosperity of the schools.

In the fourth or third assistant's departments, the pupils shall be instructed in the elements of reading and numbers with such oral instruction as is adapted to the pupil.

In the second and third assistant's departments, the pupils shall be advanced in spelling, reading and writing and instructed in the elements of geography and intellectual arithmetic.

In the second department--first assistants--the following branches shall be taught: Reading with orthography, definitions and the principle of punctuation, writing, modern geography, elementary grammar and arithmetic.

In the first department--principals--the pupils shall pursue and complete their studies in arithmetic and grammar, review modern geography, be familiarized with the history of the United States and exercised weekly in dictation, elocution and original composition.

The high schools shall be for the education of all children of the city over their teen years of age, who are competent to pursue the branches taught therein. Such branches shall
be taught in the high schools as may from time to time be
prescribed by the committee on high and normal schools,
subject to the approval of the board.\textsuperscript{32}

The school session was from September 1 to June 30 and Saturdays
and Sundays were holidays. Examinations were for the most part in writing
only, except for the lower grades where they continued to be oral. When
Rogers resigned and Ulric Bettison took over as superintendent there were
54 public schools in the New Orleans system. Of these 42 were for white
and 12 were for Negroes. There was a normal school for white pupils, a
girls central high school, a boys central high school and a deaf-mute
school. The others were divisions of the grammar and primary schools.

Bettison organized the high schools as three-year schools to em­
brace the departments of English language and literature, mathematics,
natural sciences, bookkeeping, stenography and drawing and ancient and
modern languages. During his short term, the English departments were
using Hart's \textit{Rhetoric}, Collier's \textit{English Literature} and Whitney's
\textit{Essentials of English Grammar}. In addition, the girls used Webb's \textit{Model
Etymology}, were drilled in "selected readings," and given analytical and
rhetorical exercises, colloquial exercises and composition.\textsuperscript{33} By 1886,
Kellog's \textit{Rhetoric} had been substituted for Hart's and declamation became
a required subject. French was discontinued after 1885.

\textsuperscript{32}{\textit{Minutes}, Vol. 9, p. 97.}
\textsuperscript{33}{\textit{Minutes}, Vol. 10, p. 312.}
Reorganization of the Normal School. The State Normal School in New Orleans was reorganized with a Legislative appropriation of $360,000 for the white children and $70,000 for the Negro children under an act promulgated on October 8, 1867. Superintendent Rogers reported on April 1, 1868 to Daniel K. Whitaker, secretary, Mayoralty, New Orleans, that "The Normal School has been revived." There was an enrollment of 187. There were thirteen volunteer teachers and in addition, a course of lectures was to be delivered by Alexander Dimitry, assistant superintendent of public schools. All subjects were required, but the enrollment in each class was different. The course of study included English grammar, English literature, mental and moral philosophy, Latin, drawing, penmanship, chemistry, mathematics, French, Spanish, elocution and music. A Mr. Criswell, not otherwise identified, taught the elocution on Saturdays. Kame's Elements of Criticism and rhetoric, added in February, 1870, show the emphasis given to language, taste, and composition.

The State Normal School grew steadily in importance to New Orleans. By the end of 1885, the local system assumed full responsibility for it, and changed the name to The New Orleans Normal School. In his first annual report as superintendent of the New Orleans system, in 1888, Warren Easton delivered a complete and detailed account of the school under new management. The account is clear, and because of the importance of the school, may be worth repeating here:

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34 Minutes, Vol. 5, p. 223.
36 Ibid., p. 388.
The New Orleans Normal School was organized December 12th, 1885, in accordance with the following resolution adopted by the State Board of Education, May 30th, 1885:

Resolved, That the accumulated rents and revenues derived from the rental of the State Normal School property, situated in New Orleans, be turned over to the Board of Directors of the Public Schools of New Orleans for the use of a Normal School, to be established in the City of New Orleans by the said Board; provided further, that the plan of organization of such school be submitted to the Board of Education for its approval.

The means offered by the State are not sufficient to sustain the Normal School without aid from some other source, but it is hoped the importance and usefulness of the school will insure its proper recognition and support. The following is the plan of organization adopted by the City Board and approved by the State Board of Education:

Plan of Organization of the Normal School

1. The school to be located in the Girls' high School building on Calliope Street.

2. Daily sessions to be held on at least three schools days of the week and on Saturday morning during such hours as may be determined hereafter by the Board of Directors as most convenient and advantageous to the students.

3. The annual session to be not less than six months, provided the means at the disposal of the directors are sufficient to pay teachers and defray other necessary expenses for that time.

4. No student shall be admitted to the Normal School who is less than sixteen years of age—nor shall any student be admitted by transfer from grammar department of our Public Schools, without an intervening course of studies.

5. Admission and promotion from one class to a higher shall be by regular examination. The design of the school will be to promote the preparation and qualifications of teachers for their work, and to encourage a preliminary course of study such as is pursued in our Girls' High School and in other institutions of similar grade. Rules for admission and graduation of students must have reference to this end.

6. The course of instruction in the various classes of the Normal School shall embrace:
(a) A review, from the teachers' standpoint, of the ordinary branches of a common school education.
(b) Physiology and hygiene, with the aid of any course of lectures which may be given to teachers, under the sanction of the Board, upon these subjects.
(c) Drawing, with special reference to the principles of industrial rather than fine art. This instruction to be given by the teacher of drawing employed by the Board.
(d) Theory and practice of teaching with such aids and illustrations of normal methods as the Board of Directors, from time to time, may be able to provide.
(e) Such additional instructions by means of experimental lectures upon some branch of science as the Board may be able to secure.

7. Instruction in all branches taught in the Normal School shall be free to the students, who shall be required only to provide themselves with the necessary textbooks.

8. The Normal School thus established shall be under the control and management of the Board of Directors of the Public Schools. They shall select the teachers and prescribe the rules for their guidance; they shall pass all necessary regulations for the admissions and graduation of students, conferring diplomas through the President of the Board; they shall, through the appropriate Committees and executive officers, perform whatever may be necessary to promote the efficiency of the institution and the usefulness of its relation to the public school system of New Orleans.

1. The regularly employed teachers shall be a principal and two assistants.
2. The principal shall have general charge of the order and discipline of the school, and shall give instruction in the theory and practice of teaching in the English and in literature.
3. One of the assistant teachers shall have charge of the mathematical class of the school; another of English grammar, geography and history. The last two branches to be taught chiefly by review of previous studies and by a systematic course of reading by the students under direction of the teacher.
4. The pay of the teachers shall be monthly, during the session of the school, and each of the teachers above designated shall be required to attend at least two afternoon sessions of the week, and on Saturday morning.
5. The Finance Committee of this Board shall have the management of all funds accruing for the support of the Normal School, and shall disburse the same upon the warrant of the Superintendent, approved by the Chairman of the Committee on Normal Schools and the President of the Board.
The school completed its first term May 12, 1887, graduating fifty-two pupils. Forty-two of them were already holders of teacher certificates, and twenty-seven were actually engaged in teaching during their attendance at the school. The work of the school reflects great credit upon both teachers and pupils, and its influence will be a lasting power for the good of our children.37

Easton was a believer in teacher training programs and workshops. While he was still state superintendent, he arranged for a week-long teachers' institute in the City of New Orleans for June, 1886. Werlein's Hall was used for the purpose. During the week, William Waterbury taught discipline and physiology, J. T. Corlew taught geography and history, A. Reed taught grammar, Miss Nette Rousseau taught numbers, reading and phonetics, and Dr. Edward E. Scheib taught theory of general methods, training of mind and will.38

Instruction of Deaf-mutes. As early as 1852 a state school for the education of the deaf had been established in Baton Rouge. But there was no organized attempt to educate deaf-mutes as part of the New Orleans system until 1881. In that year on September 7, the board received a letter from Frederick C. Cook asking them to consider the possibilities of establishing a school for the deaf and to consider him as a candidate for teacher. He gave as his qualifications that he had been trained at the state school for the deaf in Baton Rouge and at the Columbia Institution for Deafmutes, Washington, D. C. In urging his cause, Cook pointed out that free day schools for mutes were operated in Boston, Chicago, Erie,

37 Superintendents Report, 1888, pp. 35-36.
38 Minutes, Vol. 12, p. 311.
New York, Columbus, Cincinnati, Baltimore, and other cities, and he felt that since the state school could not take all the deaf children and many parents could not afford to send them, there should be established a school in New Orleans.

On the same day, the board received an application from C. W. Carroway for the position of principal in the white deaf-mute school if the board should establish one. He suggested a competitive examination for the position. A petition was also received from parents of deaf children, who cited twelve reasons for the school. Among them was the fact that the nearest school for deaf mutes was 100 miles away, that young children should have the affection of parents, that they must learn trades from their parents, that the risk of sickness or fire in a school away from home was a deterrent, that it was cheaper to keep the children home, and that deaf-mutes are sound, rational beings, equal in all respects except hearing and speech to those who enjoy these faculties unimpaired. 39

The Committee on Special Branches studied the matter and on December 7, 1881, reported:

1. That the establishment of a class of this character is necessary and expedient, provided a sufficient number of pupils may be gathered as a nucleus that will justify the expense.

2. That the committee could not ascertain the number of deaf and dumb children who would be willing to attend said school, although persons taking a deep interest in the matter have been requested to furnish a list of names.

3. That in the absence of a budget for 1882, the committee asked for more time to report more definitely on the subject.  

The school was finally organized in a classroom of McDonogh 13 at the corner of Girod and Rampart Streets. Superintendent Bettison reported on October 6, 1886, that "The Deaf Mute School has 16 pupils—12 boys and 4 girls." Robert B. Lawrence was the principal. It must be recorded, however that the school was short-lived. When Warren Easton became superintendent, in his first report, November 9, 1888, he recommended abolishing the deaf-mute school. He gave as his reasons that:

1. The financial condition does not warrant the large expenditure for results accomplished.

2. The state has a well-established institution in Baton Rouge, fully equipped and well able to care for all deaf-mutes in the state.

3. This department interferes with discipline of the school proper and should be removed to some other place.

Two years later special instruction of the deaf was ended and did not return until after Easton's death in 1910. A revival of the school had to wait until his successor, J. M. Gwinn, appointed Miss Sue Power in July, 1911 to organize a Deaf Mute Department in the Franklin School that September.

Easton Makes Changes. When Warren Easton became superintendent in 1888, he began at once a reform of organization and curriculum. He

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40 Ibid., p. 280.
41 Minutes, Vol. 12, p. 337.
42 Minutes, Vol. 13, p. 123.
43 Minutes, Vol. 20, p. 375.
introduced the Kindergarten and explained to the board that no textbook work was necessary since Froebel's fundamental idea was not the actual learning of facts by the child, but the formation of orderly habits of thinking. To relieve restlessness and disorder, he recommended simple calisthenics twice a day and vocal music. Easton brought in to the Normal School Miss E. A. Cheyney of the Oswego Normal School of New York to teach school methods. It will be remembered that Pestalozzian methods were introduced at Oswego as early as 1853, and that individual expression of ideas was a chief factor, and that this attached special importance to oral expression on the part of the pupils.

The schools were organized under an eleven year plan of four primary grades, four grammar grades and three high school grades. Declamation was required in the three upper grammar grades as well as in the three high school grades. Long's Series of Language Exercise were added in 1889.

The following set of tables will show graphically the curriculum and the relative importance of speech activities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CURRICULUM</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEW ORLEANS PUBLIC SCHOOLS-- CLASSIFICATION,</td>
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<tr>
<td>WORK TO BE DONE</td>
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<tr>
<td>1888</td>
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44 Minutes, Vol. 14, p. 32.
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>8th YEAR-GRAMMAR A</th>
<th>7th YEAR-GRAMMAR B</th>
<th>6th YEAR-GRAMMAR C</th>
<th>5th YEAR-GRAMMAR D</th>
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</table>
| ARITHMETIC                  | Nicholson's Complete | Nicholson's Complete | Nicholson's Complete | Nicholson's Inter-
|                             | to Involution      | to Percentage     | mediate, Complete   |                     |
| English Language            | English Language   | English Grammar   | English Grammar   |                     |
| Reed & Kellogg's            | Higher Lessons,    | Reed & Kellogg's   | Reed & Kellogg's   |                   |
|                             | Completed          | Higher Lessons to  | Graded Lessons,    |                   |
|                             |                    | Lesson 100        | Complete           |                   |
| Holmes' Revised             | Holmes' Revised,   | Hansell's to page | Hansell's to       |
| completed                   | Parts 4 and 5     | 231. Dimitry's    | Revolutionary War  |                    |
| Geography                   | Geography          | Geography         | Geography          | Geography          |
| Mitchell's Reviewed         | Mitchell's Inter-
| and Completed               | mediate to Oceanica| Mitchell's Inter-
|                             |                    | mediate to Map of |
|                             |                    | Europe            |                    |
| Reading                     | Reading            | Reading           | Reading            | Reading            |
| McGuffey's Sixth Reader     | McGuffey's Sixth   | McGuffey's Fifth  | McGuffey's Fifth   |
|                             | Reader, Completed  | Reader, completed | Reader, page 109   |
| Orthography                 | Orthography        | Orthography       | Orthography        |                    |
|                             | Etymology, to page | Words from Fifth   |
|                             | 100                | Reader            | Reader             |
|                             |                    | 60. Selected Words|
|                             |                    | from Fifth Reader  |
|                             |                    |                   |
| Penmanship                  | Penmanship         | Penmanship        | Penmanship         | Penmanship         |
| Well's Familiar Science     | Hansell's          | Hansell's         | Hansell's          |
|                             | Eclectic Drawing,  | Eclectic Drawing, | Eclectic Drawing,  |
|                             | No.                | No.               | No.                |
| Mill's Physiology           |                    |                   |                   |
| Hansell's Eclectic Drawing  |                    |                   |                   |
|                             | No.                |                   |                   |
| Original Composition and    | Original Composi-
| Declamation                 | tion               | Written Abstracts  |
|                             |                    | Declamation       |                   |
|                             |                    |                   |                   |

### PRIMARY GRADES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4th YEAR-PRIMARY A</th>
<th>3rd YEAR-PRIMARY B</th>
<th>2nd YEAR-PRIMARY C</th>
<th>1st YEAR-PRIMARY</th>
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<tr>
<td>ARITHMETIC</td>
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| Nicholson's, Inter-
| Nicholson's Inter-
| Nicholson's Primary |
|mediate, to p. 181  |mediate, to p. 126  |Multiplication and |
|                   |                   |Division Tables     |
|                   |                   |Slate Work         |
|                   |                   |                   |
| ENGLISH LANGUAGE   | ENGLISH LANGUAGE  | ENGLISH LANGUAGE  | ENGLISH LANGUAGE |
| Completion of       | Written and Oral  | Spelling and Writ-
| Sentences           | instruction in use| ing Words and Short|
|                    | of words and parts| Sentences         |
|                    | of speech         |                   |
|                   |                   |                   |
| MAP DRAWING        | MAP DRAWING       | WRITING AND READING |
|                   |                   | ARABIC NOTATION    |
|                   |                   |                   |
| GEOGRAPHY          | GEOGRAPHY         | GEOGRAPHY         | GEOGRAPHY       |
| Mitchell's Primary | Mitchell's First  |
| to Map of Europe   | Lessons           |
|                    | Shape of Earth,   |
|                    | etc., from Maps   |
|                   |                   |
| READING            | READING           | READING           | READING         |
| McGuffey's Fourth | McGuffey's Third  |
| Reader             | Reader            |
|                    | McGuffey's Second |
|                    | Reader            |
|                    | McGuffey's First  |
|                    | Reader            |
|                   |                   |
| ORTHOGRAPHY        | ORTHOGRAPHY       | ORTHOGRAPHY       | ORTHOGRAPHY     |
| McGuffey's Speller | McGuffey's Speller|
| Words from Fourth  | All words in      |
| Reader             | First Reader      |
|                    | to page 33 Words  |
|                    | from Second Reader|
|                   |                   |
| PENMANSHIP         | PENMANSHIP        | WRITING           | WRITING         |
| Hansell's Eclectic |
| Drawing            | Slate Work Daily  |
|                    | Eclectic Drawing  |
|                    | No. 3             |
|                    | Slate Work, Daily |
|                    | Eclectic Drawing  |
|                    | Cards             |
|                   |                   |
| GENERAL EXERCISES  | OCCASIONAL READINGS |
|                       | BY TEACHER        |
|                       |                   |
| Selected Readings,  | Dictation         |
| Dictation           | Occasional Reading|
|                    | by Teacher        |
|                   |                   |

Written Examinations in Grammar Grades and Oral Examinations in Primary Grades during the third school week in June and December.
Examinations for promotion to Academic Departments (High Schools) will be held in the month of June.


1888

CURRICULUM OF BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL

JUNIOR CLASS

- **English Language**
- **Rhetoric begun**
- **Physical Geography**
- **Elementary Algebra**
- **Latin Grammar**
- **Commercial Arithmetic**
- **Penmanship and Drawing**
- **Declamation and Composition**

INTERMEDIATE CLASS

- **Rhetoric completed**
- **Physiology**
- **Natural Philosophy begun**
- **Historical Reading**
- **Geometry**
- **Latin Grammar, Caesar**
- **Book-keeping, Drawing and Commercial Arithmetic**
- **Composition and Declamation**

SENIOR CLASS

- **English Literature**
- **Natural Philosophy, completed**
- **Chemistry**
- **Latin, Caesar, 3 books completed; Virgil, 1 book**
- **Plane and Spherical Trigonometry**
- **Principles of Government**
- **Bookkeeping, Commercial Law and Drawing**
- **Literary and Rhetorical Exercises**
- **General Review**
CURRICULUM OF GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL

FIRST YEAR--JUNIOR CLASS

Etymology, with exercises
Rhetoric, with exercises
Arithmetic reviewed
Algebra begun
Physical Geography, three months
Natural Philosophy, six months
Selected Reading, historical and literary
Drawing

SECOND YEAR--INTERMEDIATE CLASS

Rhetoric and English Composition
History of England
English Literature
Algebra completed
Geometry begun
Botany, three months
Chemistry, six months
Reading and Rhetorical exercises
Drawing
Latin, Gildersleeve's Latin Primer

THIRD YEAR--SENIOR CLASS

English Literature, parallel readings
Mental Philosophy
General History
Geometry completed
Elementary Astronomy
Physiology and Hygiene
Selected Readings and Composition
Elementary Studies reviewed
Drawing
Latin, Gildersleeve's Latin Primer

Report of the Chief Superintendent.
From the charts it can be seen that in addition to elocutionary influences of McGuffey and the declamations, there was formal technical grammar separate from composition and literature. The Reed and Kellogg Grammar according to Noble, led the vogue of sentence diagramming which captured and held the fancy of English teachers in the later decades of the century.45

The Webb Model Etymology was a book designed to meet the need for instruction in English among a heavy foreign population, and to teach to children the meaning and application of words by using them in model sentence. However, a check of the book reveals that while there was a phonetic and linguistic approach the chief concern was with Latin roots.46

**Discipline**: Superintendent Easton's attitude on discipline reflects the possible influence of Pestalozzi and Maria Montessori. Both are developmentalists and both opposed harsh discipline. Both are concerned with sympathy for the individual, but both believe in good order. This is the position of Easton in his 1888 report. He writes:

**DISCIPLINE**

The discipline of our schools is as varied as the character, the affections, the skill and the experience of the teachers. As a rule, the children are allowed all the liberty consistent with propriety and progress. Corporal punishment—the exception rather than the rule—is employed only in the boys' schools, and is rarely inflicted, except when all other means have failed. While it is true that in the best schools there is the least punishment, and that the best


disciplinarian is he who can cause his pupils to govern themselves, it is not to be inferred that it is a teacher's duty to submit to anarchy rather than to resort to corporal punishment.

The system of awarding prizes has often been discussed, and generally condemned. The offer of a prize is a powerful stimulus, but it stimulates those only who need no such incentive; it deprives them of the rest and recreation their nature requires; it often creates the bitterest heart-burnings and even robs the contestants of some of their noble appreciation of learning for its own sake, which, before the offer of the prize, was growing with their growth.

The system of marking recitations and reporting the relative standing of the pupils has its advantages, though it is often much abused. If a pupil knows that he cannot be head, he still would rather be tenth than eleventh, and the class receives a moderate stimulation throughout. To be of use, however, a system should be merely an aid to the teacher's memory and a record of his judgment. This record should be kept private, and the monthly report should show not simply the exact number of mistakes acknowledged by the pupil, but it should be a fair and careful statement of the teacher's judgment in regard to the advancement and behavior of the pupil.

Language, Reading and Spelling After the Turn of the Century.

By 1902, under the guidance of Superintendent Easton a new course of study for primary and grammar grades had been completed and published by a committee of principals and teachers. Chief purpose of the new course was to "offer a minimum of requirements, and likewise be flexible enough to admit of opportunity for the higher intellects to advance more rapidly in accordance with their abilities."47

It was expected that the teachers would follow the outline and use the prescribed texts, but that the capacity of the class and the

47 Course of Study 1902, Preface.
individuality of the pupil were to be considered in the practical application of the course to the work of the classroom.

Pointing out the aim of helping the child acquire a command of language to enable him to express his thoughts with ease and correctness, with force and accuracy, the committee suggested that since children speak a great deal more than they write, special attention should be paid to oral expression, and distinct practice given in this important phase of language work. Vocabulary building, simple exercises in talking, story telling and observation lessons with oral expression made prominent were prescribed for the lower grades. Subject matter for language work was to be taken principally from observation, experience and reading. "The story told by the pupil, or by the teacher, is the starting point, followed by descriptions of objects, pictures, reproduction, letters, essays, etc."48

Teaching methods prescribed in the 1902 Course of Study show that a period of transition was beginning to develop. Naturalness and variety were to be employed to sustain interest, and the pupils were to be encouraged to express their thoughts in their own language. Word studies were to be pursued for the purpose of increasing usable vocabulary. A list of connectives was suggested to be used in place of "and." "Teach that a paragraph consists of a series of connected sentences developing one central thought," the committee warned on page ten. On the same page it is suggested that as soon as possible the pupils be led to make outlines for themselves.

48 Ibid., p. 8.
The procedure for synthetic exercises for all grades was to divide the year's work into four equal periods after the plan of D. E. White. The first period was to be devoted to observation exercises; the second to pictures; the third to stories; the fourth to letters and simple essays. A selected list of poems, history stories, and literature stories was suggested for each grade, but there was allowance for substitutes. The language books for the first two grades were Long's Language Exercises and for the others Hyde's English Books.


The Course of Study observes on page 30 that a good oral reading demands a harmonious co-operation of physical and mental activities. Thoughts should precede utterance and words become blended with thoughts. The teacher is told to "read the lesson for your class, talk it over with them, relate any incident touching on subject matter. Keep a list of words which you have found by experience to be stumbling blocks, put them on the board, and drill class thoroughly." In addition the children are to be led to feel that they have a message to deliver when they interpret thoughts from the printed page. The teacher is told to question tactfully, and occasionally have the class read in concert.
Model reading by the teacher was to set the proper standard. "In the easy utterance and pleasing tones of a pupil is often seen the reflection of a well trained, conscientious, and cultivated teacher." Breathing exercises before the reading lesson were suggested to give the voice vitality and sustaining power. The prescribed readers were McGuffey's Chart and a Graded Literature series. For reference the teachers were asked to study Phonetic Reading published by Silver, Burdette and Company; Reading, How To Teach It by Arnold; How to Teach Reading in the Public Schools by Clark, and Teaching Reading in Ten Cities.

Spelling was also taught as oral and written activities but here again the emphasis was on the oral aspects of the subject. The instruction on page 37, was:

In oral spelling, first insist upon the distinct pronunciation of the word, then the spelling of it by syllables pronouncing distinctly each syllable and pronouncing the syllables cumulatively, and finally the pronunciation of the word as a whole. Keep lists of words that are frequently misspelled and drill upon these words. For oral review, hold spelling matches and "bees." Care should be taken that the pupil knows the meanings of the words he spells. All written work in spelling should be preceded by oral preparation.

The spellers were Benson's Practical Speller and Webb's Model Etymology. There were no further changes in the curriculum until a revised Course of Study was prepared in 1905.

Curricular Time Schedule. Superintendent Easton continued to make changes in organization of the new course of study. In a report to the Board of Directors dated November 14, 1902, Easton broke down the school program into a table showing the distribution of time allotted to each study per week in the primary and grammar schools. Eighteen subjects
were listed. It is significant that in sixth, seventh, and eighth grade, 110 minutes were devoted to declamation, about the same as was allotted to music and drawing combined. In the fifth grade 50 minutes and in the fourth grade 38 minutes were devoted to declamation. Reading, which was oral and elocutionary as has been shown, was given an average of 200 minutes per week. To this may be added etymology and spelling which averaged 100 minutes per week and English and composition which averaged 270 minutes in the upper grades and 255 in the lower grades. The cumulative total was over 600 minutes of language training per week, most of which was oral. The accompanying table will give the relative positions of each of the eighteen subjects in the curriculum.

**DISTRIBUTION OF TIME PER WEEK, STUDIES AND GRADES**

Figures in columns denote minutes per week.

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Growing Interest in Elocution. There is considerable evidence of the growing interest in elocution dating from the return of the schools of New Orleans to local Southern control. As early as June, 1879, the Board Minutes record special notice of the subject. On June 4, Secretary John J. O'Brien inscribed in the minutes:

Mr. Robert H. Bartley (a Board Member) placed at the disposal of the Board a gold medal to be awarded at the close of the school session in December next to the best elocutionist among the boys in attendance at our public schools. Mr. Bartley's generous offer was welcomey received and accepted and the hearty thanks of the Board unanimously extended to the liberal donor. .branch

This appears to be the first contest in public speaking, recognized as such, in the public school system. Previous programs were in the nature of exhibitions or recitals, rather than of competition for an award. Superintendent Rogers was extremely pleased with the interest it aroused among the children and their teachers, as his July 2 report to the board testifies. Rogers told the directors:

*Partly or entirely oral.

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Minutes, Vol. 10, p. 54.
The last two weeks of the session were devoted to the award of testimonials to deserving pupils in all of the city schools. In the first state of the distribution, the awards were made in the presence of the assembled classes and departments... as the affair proceeded, however, it assumed larger proportions. The vivacity of the children and the natural desire of their parents to be present, gradually enlarged the order of exercises until the programme embraced oratorical recitations and the usual accompaniments of a school exhibition. In some instances large numbers of parents, friends and other visitors were present.

These impromptu exhibitions...are not to be regarded as tests of scholarship, nor should the true school work...be measured by the applause of an audience attracted by the display.\(^50\)

Superintendent Rogers indicated to the board members that the teachers believed the exercise had a good influence on the children. The contest was mentioned again in the School Board Minutes on January 7, 1880, when a special committee on the Bartley medal told the Board that "eighteen pupils of the grammar schools presented themselves, all of whom declaimed very creditably." The meeting was at the Boys' High School on December 7, 1879. After eliminations, Harry Baldwin of the Fillmore, R. McQuaid of the Laurel, John Valloft of the St. Philip and Sammie Wise of the Jefferson No. One participated in the finals. Baldwin was the winner of the gold medal.\(^51\)

**Recognition of Elocution as a Specialized Subject.** While there are many references to the term elocation in the school programs of earlier years, no special teachers of elocation were mentioned in public

\(^{50}\)Ibid., pp. 55-56.

\(^{51}\)Ibid., p. 119.
school records until January 4, 1882. On that date a letter was received from a Prof. D. M. Brewer in which he said:

I propose, if it meet with your favor, to teach elocution in the Boys High School and also the Girls High School of this city at the rate of $25 a month; a lesson an hour in length to be given each day, at such times as may suit the convenience of the schools.

Brewer apparently was an itinerant teacher seeking to give special instructions as a private teacher. The letter was referred to the committee on academic and normal schools, but there seems to be no record of the board's action.

It is evident that there must have been increasing interest in the public schools in this type of specialization, for another applicant, Miss Eugenia Hunt, wrote on April 5, 1882:

I most respectfully solicit a position as teacher of calisthenics and elocution in the Chestnut School.* I teach calisthenics as an indispensable accompaniment to elocution; in securing proper strength, tone, purity and flexibility to the voice, and also as a positive necessity in forming the character to an easy and graceful manner and dignified address. I have had many years experience in teaching, and refer to the following named persons as references as to my character and ability to instruct youth: Bishop W. M. Green, University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn., Dr. W. H. Holcomb, city, Mr. Eugene Desduncie, Dr. F. Loeber."

She also appears to have been an itinerant teacher. Her application was referred to the committee on special branches. The Chestnut School is listed as Boys and Girls Special Primary.

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*the combination of calisthenics and elocution was quite common at that time.

52Ibid., p. 336.
There is no doubt that the idea of a special teacher of elocution caught the fancy of members of the school board. By April 7, 1886, the committee on high and normal schools reported:

A teacher of calisthenics and elocution engaged for one hour a day at a moderate expense, giving instruction in both schools, would meet a present requirement. The physical side of education in large schools of this character requires attention and a simple effective method of promoting exercise of body is by moderate daily drill in calisthenics. Vocal culture also is something more than a superfluity. It has a practical value and can be of service in the study of English and in general results of high school instruction.

The committee also noted that Prof. Ficklen of Tulane University was giving lectures on English Language and Literature to the Normal School. The elocution matter, together with an application for appointment as teacher of elocution from Miss M. H. Moses was referred to the committee on teachers.

The phenomenon of itinerant teachers is mentioned by Babcock in her *Handbook for Teachers of Interpretation*. She points to the work of Dr. James Rush whose theories of voice were published in 1827, his influence on Yale and Harvard, and the resulting spread of Rush's theories through itinerant teachers. She wrote:

The two great universities in America—Yale and Harvard, soon had instructors who were pupils of Dr. Rush. By the eighties, itinerant teachers had crossed the Rockies and were holding large classes. Their work was received enthusiastically in every community. These students of Rush taught his system, for a certain sum, to everybody, everywhere, in six weeks. It soon became unfashionable not to have studied elocution.  

There is no way to be certain of what the teachers of elocution who came to the public schools in the 1880's taught, but one may surmise the type of instruction from the applications cited and from the fact that the new girls' high school in the lower district, McDonogh No. 3 at Esplanade and Bourbon, had a Mrs. F. E. Mitchell teaching music, drawing, calisthenics and critical reading. It is likely that the so-called Delsartian system of expression as well as the theories of Rush and Murdoch had their influence upon these teachers. Shaver explains that:

The work of Francois Delsarte, French teacher of vocal music and operatic acting from 1839 until 1871, was of great significance in speech training and the theatre in late nineteenth century America. Although Delsarte was never in the United States and never published his theories in any form, the so-called "Delsarte System of Expression" was probably the most popular method of speech training in the United States during the thirty years from 1870 until 1900.54

These citations serve to demonstrate that elocutionary influences, shown to be present in the regular course of study, came into the public school program in two ways: as a special branch taught by itinerant or private teachers, and as a part of the language and reading instruction by regularly employed full-time teachers.

One regular teacher destined to exert a far-reaching influence upon the speech education of New Orleans, came into the system in the late 1880's. This was Lily Whitaker, who is listed as having been appointed

as a first assistant teacher in January, 1885. Her sister, Miss Ida Whitaker, was appointed at the same time as a second assistant. The Misses Whitaker, while teaching in the public schools, founded and operated for more than 30 years a private school of such interesting qualities that their story will be told in some detail as a part of the transitional period of speech education which will be considered in Chapter V.

A summary of the elocutionary influences in other parts of the country, which may also apply in a degree to New Orleans, has been presented by Rarig and Greaves. Their summary is that (1) elocutionary entertainment was in vogue during much of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; (2) although there were numerous well-trained, competent, and sensitive elocutionists with high literary standards, there were also a great many who were guilty of objectionable practice, and (3) standards for elocutionary performance had improved slowly but steadily.  

McDonogh Day Programs, Literary Exercises, and Memory Gems.
There were no further changes in the curriculum until 1905, but a few extra-curricular activities were added. By 1889 Thanksgiving Day programs were required in all schools and there were substituted for holidays from school, programs in school on January 8, February 22, April 6, and May 30, ...

55 Minutes, Vol. 12, p. 82.

because as the committee on rules reported on June 16, 1899, it would be more impressive for the children to hold appropriate exercises to the events commemorated. March 3, was set aside as "New Orleans Day" and a patriotic celebration was prescribed to commemorate the founding of the City of New Orleans.\textsuperscript{57}

There remains now only to tell of the origins of the McDonogh Day programs and the morning exercises, which were begun at about the turn of the century and which continue as important extra-curricular activities today. It will be recalled that at the beginning of this chapter it was explained that McDonogh left a large legacy to the schools in 1850. Nearly a half century later the School Board found it necessary, as a requirement of McDonogh's will, to honor him by erecting a monument.

\textbf{McDonogh Monument}: The board little realized that when it approved a monument to John McDonogh in February 1898 it was taking an important step in the speech education of thousands of citizens in New Orleans.

The board had recognized the McDonogh donation as early as 1890 when it had a eulogy by Edward Booth spread on the minutes (Book 14, p. 120). Having collected contributions from the children and having established a plan for observing a holiday on the first Friday in May, the board set the pattern for platform performances which continue today.

Designs for the monument were put on display in a room given by I. L. Lyons, owner of the Storey Building. Many citizens assisted in the final selection which was made on February 11. The design is a column

\textsuperscript{57} \textit{Minutes}, Vol. 16, p. 307, p. 33.
worked out in leaves and floral decorations, on the top of which is a
heroic bust of John McDonogh. In front of the column are a boy and a
girl. The boy is reaching up to place a handful of flowers in front of
the bust and the girl is supporting him with her right hand.

The designer, Atillio Picarilli, was assisted by Furio Picarilli,
and the monument was erected in Lafayette Square facing St. Charles.
Ceremonies were held December 29, 1898.

A procedure worked out by the School Board's McDonogh Monument
Committee for the unveiling on December 29, 1898 still continues with
minor changes. It prescribed:

... the proper and orderly massing and aligning of
the children on the sidewalks of streets in the immediate
neighborhood in charge of their respective teachers, in
order of districts, each school bearing its banner first
shown on this occasion. McDonogh No. 1 being the senior
McDonogh School will be placed at the right of the line,
the place of honor.

The colored pupils participating will be in charge of
colored teachers only. On the completion of the un­
veiling, the children will move in regular order,
passing along St. Charles Street and by the monument
where they will deposit their floral offering, a
wreath of natural flowers prepared for this occasion.
The children are to be reviewed from the stand by
the mayor and guests and by members of the school
board.

A splendid brass band is to furnish the music for
the purpose. The committee desired that the Board and
members co-operate in their several district schools
so as to make this feature an enthusiastic and brilliant
success.

The presence in the City of a large number of people
in attendance on the two great education conventions
to meet here at that time should inspire us and our
teachers and pupils to make an effective and pleasing
display in this part of the program.
The exercises proper, in the square, will be simple and therefore appropriate. We will have a good brass band to entertain the audience and furnish marching music to the children. The superintendent and music teachers of male and female voices from the pupils of at least 250 children. These are to be trained and will sing three songs during the ceremony. We are quite confident that this exhibition will be creditable alike to the children, their instructors and the superintendent as showing the success of singing in our schools. It will also show a pleasing compliance with one of Mr. McDonogh's dearest wishes, that vocal music should be taught in our schools.

The monument will be presented by the Committee to Hon. E. B. Kruttschnitt, president of the Board. We have asked him not only to accept the monument, but to make an appropriate address on the occasion. The president has promised to do this, and we are confident the effort will be all that it should be. Mayor Flower is to accept the monument in behalf of the city as trustee. The songs will be sung between these numbers of the programme.

The committee has invited Rev. Dr. Palmer to offer prayer and make the benediction. This seems appropriate for many reasons, but particularly for the reason that Mr. McDonogh was a member of the church of which Dr. Palmer subsequently became pastor.

After these short exercises will come the review of the children by the Mayor and the Board.

We have received from Miss Kathleen Kavanagh, a member of our corps of teachers (McDonogh No. 12) a beautiful dedication ode, prepared by request of the superintendent, and most cheerfully contributed for our use by Miss Kavanagh. At our request Miss Kavanagh has consented to read the poem.

In conclusion, we beg to say that we have had the warmest cooperation on every hand in this undertaking and every effort will be made not only by the committee, but by all now assisting us to make the occasion a success. All of which is submitted for your approval.

Respectfully submitted,
Andrew H. Wilson
C. C. DeFuentes
Nemours Bienvenue
Committee.
As the school system grew, it became necessary to send delegations to the monument while the remaining children gathered in all the schools for speeches, dramatizations, poetic readings and singing. This is still the custom. A whole morning is devoted to honoring McDonogh, and other benefactors. Classes are suspended for the day. The programs are among the most ambitious and serious of the entire year. Every teacher and every pupil is expected to participate. Invariably included in the program are eulogies recited by several children giving McDonogh's personal life, his humanitarian treatment of his slaves and his great gift to the public schools of New Orleans and Baltimore. Typical of the speeches are those in the following program delivered at Warren Waston High School on May 4, 1945: "Introduction, A Brief History of Education in Our State and City;" "A Tribute to the Founders and Benefactors of our Public School System;" "A Tribute to John McDonogh;" "A Tribute to the Founders of Warren Easton Boys High School." There were also Louisiana poems and instrumental and vocal music.

On May 2, 1950, the music and physical education departments of the New Orleans Public School System combined to present in the Municipal Auditorium a Music and Dance Festival in which McDonogh's story was presented with narrators, dancers, pantomimists, singers and musicians combining to present six major episodes. It was an elaborate presentation in which thousands participated.

**Literary Exercises.** Literary exercises were introduced into the high schools in September, 1902. These activities, which took the form of Friday afternoon literary programs, crystalized into the formal speech education in all schools. The afternoon exercises may be considered to
be one of the direct causes for the introduction of a Department of Expression in the high schools in 1906.

The Memory Gems. In the Annual Report of the Board of Directors and the Superintendent of Schools for the Session 1902-1903, on page nine, Superintendent Easton gave special credit to the New Orleans Daily Picayune for "its marked liberality and invaluable help in facilitating the literature work of the schools by publishing in pamphlet form and providing every teacher and pupil in the system with a copy of the Memory Gems required in the course of study." These memory gems, a set of graded poems, were learned by all the children and used either in morning exercises of the primary and grammar grades or in the Friday Afternoon programs of the high schools. By 1913 the Memory Gems had gone through six editions and the donors had put a price of ten cents per copy on them. In the Preface to the Sixth Edition the purpose of the book is explained as a "supplement to reading exercises with literature that would not only aid in character development, but acquaint the children with verse classic in its beauty or vital in its relation to famous eras of Southern History." A foreword written by a schools committee, urged that children should cultivate a love of poetry for pleasure, for the genius of the poets and their love of mankind. The plan for use of the book is contained in the following paragraph:

To study a poem, first read it from beginning to end for the pleasure of the poetry, then read it carefully for the story or the moral lesson of the poem, then write the story of the lesson of the poem, then memorize it. You will thereby store for yourself a power that will prove one of your most valuable assets in life.
There was a set of 16 specific rules addressed to the young readers which tend to show the purposes of the instruction to be given:

To be able to read well, there are several simple rules which you should remember and try to observe:—

Before attempting to read any selection aloud, read it to yourself in order that you may acquaint yourself with its difficulties.

If there is any part of it that you do not comprehend, read it again and try to get at its meaning.

Study to understand every peculiar expression and every difficult word.

From the Word List at the end of this volume, or from a dictionary, learn the meaning of every difficult word.

Practice reading aloud to yourself at home.

Try to discover and correct your own faults.

Be sure to pronounce, clearly and properly, every syllable and every word.

If any combination of sounds is hard to articulate, practice pronouncing it until you can speak it properly and without effort.

In reading aloud try to read in the same natural tones that you use in talking. Be careful to avoid all strained, harsh, or discordant tones.

Remember that good reading is only conversation from the book, and that it should always give pleasure to both the reader and his hearers.

Avoid all careless habits of expression.

It will be easier to read well if you sit or stand with your head erect and your shoulders thrown well back; then you can breathe easily, freely, and naturally, and it will not be hard to speak each word clearly and properly.

Try to render each thought or passage as to interpret, in the most natural and forcible manner, the meaning intended by the author.
Study to appreciate the beauty, the truthfulness, the appropriateness of that which you are reading.

Ask yourself constantly: "Am I reading this so well that my hearers are pleased and interested?"

Try to improve every day.

Such poets as Longfellow, Stevenson, Scott, Taylor, Kipling, Lowell, Carroll, Wordsworth, Bryant, Emerson, Alice Cary, Nora Perry, Aldrich, Elizabeth Ward, Field, Russell, Tennyson, Browning, Burns, Father Ryan, Riley, Sill, Byron, Whitman, Shakespeare and others are represented. In each grade there are poems of the seasons and the weather, of wildlife, of morals and virtues. These are interspersed with humorous poems and ballads. For each grade there are 24 poems, gradually becoming longer in the higher grades. There is hardly an adult in the City of New Orleans who went through the public schools who cannot without any hesitation recite from memory a good many of the poems contained in the Memory Gems. It may be useful to name the first two poems in each grade to demonstrate the nature of the poems:


These Memory Gems were used in the classrooms in connection with reading and language studies, but they also came to be used for many years as recitations employed in morning exercises which were required procedures about 1913 and which continue today in most public schools. There can be little doubt that the Memory Gems formed the basis at least, of some of the high school literary exercises.
These course-work prescriptions and the extracurricular programs were the emerging activities after recovery from the Civil War and The Reconstruction, which led to the transition period in speech education to be considered in Chapter IV of this report.

From the records it appears that the boys' high school conducted these programs on a weekly basis while the girls high schools held their literary exercises monthly.

There are several good reports of the literary exercises which may be useful in showing their exact nature. In his report to the superintendent, F. W. Gregory, principal of the McDonogh High School No. 1, said:

In regard to the literary exercises that we have been holding on Fridays throughout the session, I should like to report that while we feel that the boys have derived some benefit from them, they have not been as profitable as they would be, if this work were made a regular department of the school, under the charge of a teacher especially trained for it. At present the boys feel that this is extra work required of them, on which they are not marked, which is not taken into consideration in determining their fitness for promotion, and which, therefore, they may neglect or do indifferently without serious loss. Our teachers, too, are not trained for this kind of work, and are not in a position to make it highly successful. Under these circumstances, I suggest that a department of expression be created, and placed under the charge of a trained and experienced instructor. Here, according to my idea, our boys should get an amount of drilling in voice culture, gesture, debates and platform deportment, that would be useful to them in this republican country. The object of the instruction should not be to train elocutionists, as the term is usually understood, but to teach the art of expression to boys that are bound to become influential citizens of our State. Without lengthening our present session, and by retaining our extra Friday period, we can give this work to Juniors three times per week, to the Intermediates twice, and to the Seniors once. But, in addition, provision should be made for one extra hour
in the month for public exercises by the assembled school.\textsuperscript{58}

Harriet A. Suter, principal of McDonogh High School No. 2, reported at the same time:

The regular weekly literary exercises, instituted at the beginning of the session, were at first looked upon with disfavor, but have resulted on the part of the pupils in an increased and appreciative knowledge of the gems of English Literature, and in a general uplifting of thought and effort.

In this connection, let me thank you and those members of the High School Committee, whose presence at the monthly exercises was both commendation and stimulus for helpful encouragement. (p.23)

Miss Eugenie Suydam, principal of McDonogh High School No. 3, that year reported as follows:

English—This department is, unquestionably, the most important, as it teaches the language of the country. Much improvement has been made in English, which improvement is partly due to the general development of the whole system, and partly, also, to the work done in the High School. As a rule, children do not see the correlation of things. It seems to them, that whatever is being studied in one department, belongs to that department only, and has no connection with any other study. The faculty observing this, decided that good English should be required of every pupil in every lesson, whether in oral or written recitations. The consequence was that pupils became more and more careful, and with the special instruction given by the English teachers, the English has very much improved.

Reading—Another great help to the advancement of English, is the introduction of reading classes, instead of those most unprofitable study periods. Special attention is given to articulation, breathing and expression.

\textsuperscript{58}Superintendent's Report--1902-1903, pp. 19-20.
Monthly Exercises--The introduction of the so-called monthly exercises was a great benefit to the school; they helped to give pupils a certain ease in both manners and enunciation. Each pupil was given, during the session, the opportunity of reciting before the whole school, thereby losing the awkward bashfulness so noticeable among school girls; as the months went by, it was observed that it was less difficult to prepare pupils for these recitations, as they had acquired some idea of what was to be done. (p.26)

In his 1902-1903 annual report, superintendent Warren Easton summed up the teacher improvement and philosophy in these words:

During the past session, a highly commendable spirit of self-improvement for broader culture and a larger knowledge of the things pertaining to their profession prevailed among a large body of the teachers, and the greatest zeal and conscientious effort was devoted to making the course of study practically effective and to putting into practice suggestions offered by this department.

The increased attention given to the language work has already resulted in a satisfactory improvement of the expression of pupils. (p.11)
CHAPTER IV

1905 to 1927 TRANSITIONAL INFLUENCES

Backgrounds. For as long as the public schools of New Orleans have existed it has been shown, speech activities have been a major part of the instruction, but actual academic independence did not come until the Department of Expression was introduced in the secondary schools during the first decade of the twentieth century. Establishment of the new department was the necessary step to give academic recognition to the subject. By 1907, a course of study had been devised and published, a textbook had been selected, and Expression had been made compulsory in all the high schools.

In following this procedure, the New Orleans schools were showing the influence of a transitional development which had begun earlier in other sections of the country.

Gray points out that:

The three decades from 1890 to 1920 were a period of transition in the developing speech education in America. Profound changes were taking place, more profound, perhaps, than during any similar period since the founding of the first colonial schools. It was during these years that all the various aspects of oral communication—rhetoric, interpretation, drama, speech correction, debating, speech science—were drawn together and integrated, under the common rubric of speech, into the beginnings of our present profession. Even the terminology of the field was largely clarified, so that such terms as elocution, expression, oratory, and even public speaking itself, as covering the whole of the subject matter, were for the most part giving way to the more inclusive term.¹

Gray further emphasizes that "rhetoric which for centuries had been thought of essentially as a matter of either style or literary criticism, was by 1920 restores to its rightful place as a substantial body of principles governing both oral and written discourses."

In tracing the developmental process of the three decades Gray adds that drama, oral reading, and speech correction were undergoing corresponding changes:

Work on the drama, which had for the most part been considered an extracurricular activity, was brought back into the classrooms and again given a prominent place in the program of speech education. The study of delivery was elevated from the mechanized systems growing out of the philosophies of Diderot, Engel, Walker, Austin, Rush, and Delsarte, to become an integral aspect of the study of speech and was put on a more sound basis of contemporary psychology. Pronunciation again became the fifth cannon of rhetoric.

The oral reading of literature, during the years from 1890 to 1920, also became elevated from the mechanical, artificial, and exaggerated elocution of the nineteenth century to the more rational and restrained interpretation of the twentieth. Interest in the correction of speech defects, in which Andrew Comstock had been interested as early as 1845, had been growing for many years under the influence of the Bells -- Alexander Melville and his son, Alexander Graham. In 1875 Graham Bell offered at Boston University a class for parents and teachers of those with speech disorders. (pp. 1-2)

Everywhere, in colleges and secondary schools, the demand for teachers increased as the recognition of speech as a separate academic entity spread. Gray points out in this respect:

The demand for teachers in 1898 is attested to by S. S. Curry, who pointed out that within a period of some three months he had been asked by no less than six colleges and universities, "some of them the foremost to be found in the United States," to recommend teachers. "In one week," says another entry. "Dr. Curry had calls from six leading universities for teachers of Oratory in these institutions." By 1911 seven hundred and thirty students were enrolled in the eight courses offered by Syracuse University under the direction
of Professor Hugh M. Tilroe. Speech became, during these years, academically respectable, as well as at the same time improving in its practicality. (p.3)

In another report Gray sums up the thirty-year period in these words:

The field of speech up to 1890 had been for the most part disorganized, and in the hands of the professional elocutionists, who apparently had no concept of the educational values in the subject. Rhetoric was essentially concerned with writing; and other aspects of speech were either neglected or unknown entirely. By the end of the three decades the professional organizations were taken over by academic teachers, not of elocution, or entirely of public speaking, but of speech. The teaching of speech had moved from the itinerant elocutionist and the private schools, interested in public performance as a form of entertainment, to the high schools and colleges, and the universities, and had become a respected academic discipline with a status equal to that of any other subject in the curriculum.2

Aims and Purposes of Speech Education: The evolution of speech education in New Orleans followed almost exactly the pattern described by Gray, except that Superintendent Easton turned his attention first to the younger children and firmly established speech training in the elementary schools before turning to the high schools.

In 1905, the terms primary and grammar schools gave way to the term elementary schools, and a new Course of Study was published which used the term expression for the first time to denote language activities. Language teaching was described as "the expression work of the schools, oral and written; the training given in the expression of thought by means of language in the forms and in the manner sanctioned by the best

usage" (p. 8). A two-fold purpose was suggested, thought-getting, or impression and interpretation, and language as a means of giving knowledge, thought-giving or expression. "The essential element of the language lesson is that the pupil should have something to say, hence the importance of providing varied, suitable, and interesting material for the language lessons." The terminology here continues the Pestalozzian influence, but the application is adapted. Wilds sums up Pestalozzi's methods by pointing out that:

Pestalozzi based all his method upon the principles of pupil activity. There were two steps in his procedure, impression and expression, and both must be carried on by the child himself . . . . He insisted on oral teaching of all subjects. The child was not to learn from a book; the teacher was not to hear the child recite from a book. The child's expression activities must come from the impressions gained from the observation of actual objects. Language expression, both oral and written, must grow out of the objects presented to the various senses of the child. . . . Moral expression grew out of the incidents which arose in the daily lives of the children. 3

The terms impression and expression are frequently used by Curry. For example, in his Foundations of Expression, he writes:

One of the first steps in the development of expression must be a recognition of the necessity of genuine possession. Impression must precede and determine all expression, and it will be noted that the tendency toward expression is directly proportionate to this inner fullness, while mere surface work causes superficiality. 4

The teachers were admonished not to depend too much upon published


charts and text-books, but to discover the knowledge of the individual child as well as that common to the class, and to add new experience to increase his desire to know and have something to say. "These exercises should consist of observation lessons, field lessons, the description of pictures and actions, the reproduction of history and literature stories, and conversations about famous people and familiar places and things, exercises that reveal the child's fund of knowledge and experience and that lead him on to new experiences and a fuller knowledge of the world about him" (p. 9).

The Course of Study for 1905 is specific in describing what is required in the teaching of oral composition. It declares on page nine:

Vocabulary, facility in expression, correctness of form, and appropriateness of style, can only be secured through diligent and intelligent practice in the use of proper forms under conditions conducive to freedom of expression. Oral expression is first in time and first in importance. Vocabulary is gained by conversation and reading, not by writing, and it is through oral practice only that the principles of concord and agreement are grasped and familiarity with the peculiarities of English construction gained. Too much stress cannot be placed upon the necessity of providing the occasion to arouse the interest of the pupil to talk freely, to offer him new words for his new ideas, new idioms, correct and appropriate forms, so as to develop freedom and facility in expression and the habit of using good English.

There are other instructions relative to presenting correct oral models, and special oral drills upon forms that are habitually misused. The teachers are advised to encourage the habit of expressing thoughts in complete sentences. They also are urged to try to develop a taste for a choice use of words and the cultivation of beauty of expression. "To acquire force and elegance of expression the child must be brought under the influence and have appreciation of the best literature. At least one story should be learned, and one poem memorized by each pupil
each month." And in addition the teachers are told:

The following subjects afford additional and valuable exercises in the development of correct oral expression.

1. Repeating fluently and naturally sentences from the reading lesson.

2. Telling the facts of a paragraph or the contents of the reading lesson.

3. Describing arithmetical processes, not in parrot fashion according to set formulae, but briefly in the words of the pupil.

4. The separation of the sentences from the reading into complete subjects and complete predicates without using the technical terms, affording practice in judging by a standard of their essential parts.

5. Reciting from memory, gems of poetry and prose.

6. Drill in explaining the meaning of words, keeping in mind this distinction that the putting of words into sentences is not a method of teaching the meaning of a word, but a method of determining whether the meaning of a word is known.

7. The reproduction of fairy tales and history and literature stories.

8. Conversational exercises (pp. 10-11).

A set of general suggestions for teaching language contains some interesting observations which continue the influence of McGuffey and seem to suggest also the influence of S. S. Curry and of Alfred Ayres, who is described by Babcock as the great apostle of the get-the-thought method, and the crusader against the mechanical system itself, and against all the unnatural, bombastic readers and actors.\(^5\) Babcock herself

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emphasizes the need to have the children hear good reading, good speaking, and good acting (p. 15). The Curry influence seems likely in view of the fact that Curry's textbooks came to be used in the New Orleans public schools. Robb describes Curry's criticisms of the mechanical school of Rush and Murdoch because public readers trained in this school showed no signs of mental assimilation. "All action was merely gesture, grammatical structure dictated pauses and often inflection, and delivery revealed a lack of freedom and originality. However, her own interpretation of the Rush-Murdoch theories is that:

From a close study of Murdoch's theories of elocution, it is obvious that he too was interested in following nature. He was devoted to the Rush system not because of its mechanical aspects, but because he thought it gave him a firm scientific base from which to work to develop a natural delivery. (p. 195)

Among the general suggestions in the Course of Study are the following:

Aim for freedom and facility in expression. Differentiate clearly between thought, expression, and the mechanical side of language.

Keep in mind that thought and expression are mutually dependent, and entirely distinct from the purely mechanical side of composition.

The basis of clear expression is clear thinking, therefore the essential element of the language lesson is the something to say.*

Impression and interpretation precede composition and expression.

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*It might have added, and someone, even oneself, to say it to!
Good writing in a large measure, is the result of good oral expression.

Conversation and oral exercises are highly important phases of language teaching.

In conversation and oral expression the teacher's part should be suggestive.

Do not monopolize the talking.

The same type of instruction is given again in the program for teaching reading. Written in quotation marks, but without any reference to the source is this statement: "To read aloud, we must get the thought, hold the thought, and give the thought" (p. 43). At the same time, a prescription for memorizing poems each month is included.

This 1905 Course of Study makes two changes in the Spelling program. McGuffey's Speller and Model Etymology are dropped and Hunt's Progressive Course in Spelling is substituted.

Expression in the High Schools. Development of a high school program in Expression was a few years slower than in the elementary school. The Course of Study for the high schools of 1906 contained no mention of Expression. Rhetoric was offered, but this was part of the English program and consisted of formal grammar and writing. English also included literature, and one composition a week was required. The only place where the word elocution appears is in the French program during the third year. The word oratory occurs only in connection with Cicero's Orations in the Latin course.

In the Boys' High School there were a few individual teachers who undertook to teach elocution in 1905. In a personal interview in April, 1955, with Beverly Brown, a 1909 graduate, there was a mention of a
Mr. Chambers and a Mr. Lewis who taught elocution in 1905. However, Brown said the first man to teach Expression was T. L. Trawick. He taught as a special teacher two days a week, and the boys were required to take the work. This is corroborated by Albert Voss, who retired as a teacher of English at Warren Easton this year (1955). Voss also remembers that Trawick taught Expression. The school board files simply record his appointment. When this writer attended Warren Easton Boys High School in 1924-28, Trawick was a teacher of social studies. Brown recalls, "Trawick could sit up and entertain by the hour. We called him Bull Trawick. He used no book at all. He would give out his favorite recitations to memorize and recite. Trawick handled the literary societies. We were dismissed once a month and all met during the last hour of school. Each class had a turn to put on a program. Each class presented a play, and we chose our own. They were more or less carte blanche. The Friday afternoon programs had every one of the classes represented by speaking pieces of some sort. In those days parents came and we had a big audience. The regular teacher developed the program."

The school board officially recognized the need for a trained teacher of speech when it appointed Miss Clara M. Dunn, a graduate of the Curry School of Expression, who came to New Orleans from Boston on November 8, 1907. Miss Dunn was assigned to the Boys' High School, but she served only one year and resigned, being replaced by Miss Jessie Tharp on October 9, 1908. An informant, Miss V. M. Walker, a teacher at McDonogh Senior High School, said she has been told that Miss Dunn's work consisted primarily of reading to the class. However, Miss Dunn
did install the Curry textbook *Foundations of Expression* which was officially recognized as the text for the work in Expression in the High School Course of Study of 1909.

In 1907 also, Miss Julia E. Rogers was assigned to teach Expression at the two girls' high schools, but on October 9, 1908, owing to the growth of the classes Miss Rogers was assigned to full time in High School No. 2, and Miss Edwina Hurlbut was assigned to High School No. 3.  

Miss Zillah Mendes Meyer came into the New Orleans system in 1911, as a teacher of Expression, and continued in active service in the Department of Speech until her retirement in 1951.

Miss Rogers remained at the Sophie B. Wright High School until she resigned in September, 1912. Miss Hurlbut was shifted to Wright High School and two years later in December, 1914, she too resigned. To replace these teachers the board appointed Miss Fannie Sieferth to Wright and Miss Ida O'Reilly to McDonogh High School for Girls.  

Salaries of these teachers were $100 a month because they were regarded as specialists. The actual transition to academic independence for Expression must be dated from May 8, 1908, for on that date the Committee on Secondary Schools reported:

> The subject of Elocution being now of more importance than formerly in High School No. 1, we recommend that a credit of two points be allowed to this subject, and that existing rules be amended and modified so as to make Elocution

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compulsory for two years only, and elective for the third year in the above mentioned school. 9

It was also indicated in the minutes that with the appointment of special teachers, the school principals could devote more time to supervision.

The 1909 Course of Study in Expression. The Course of Study for McDonogh High School No. 1, the boys' high school, which was published in 1909, shows that the course of study was elective except for English, mathematics, expression and physical training, which were required of all students for two years. Aims of the school were:

To furnish boys whose scholastic training must end here, with a good general education.

To teach them, in addition, a few things that they can turn to immediate profit in their career in life.

To prepare boys for admission to the City Normal School.

To prepare boys for admission to college (p. 3).

Expression was taught for two periods a week and the year was divided into two courses. Thus, six courses were offered, four being compulsory. Aims of the courses in Expression were rather clearly stated in two short paragraphs:

The dominant idea in this department is the development, training, and educating of the student's own faculties and powers, as distinguished from the acquisition of knowledge.

The work in Expression centers in the study of thinking, and its most direct revelations through the modulation of the voice and body.

9 Minutes, Vol. 19, p. 245.
Few directions were given to the teachers of Expression. It may be useful to present here the entire outline of all six courses to show the reliance of the board on the individual teacher.

COURSES I AND II.

In these courses creative thinking is stimulated by means of conversations, story-telling, discussions, the study and vocal interpretation of fables, folklore and narrative poetry. Much of this is required in the form of platform work. Thus the student acquires freedom and ease before an audience.

Curry's Foundation of Expression and vocal interpretation of problems as suggested in the text.

Harmonic gymnastics.

COURSES III AND IV.

Study and vocal interpretation of lyric and dramatic literature.

Curry's Foundations of Expression continued.

Harmonic gymnastics.

Studies in vocal training.

COURSES V AND VI.

Literature and expression.

Original speeches and debates.

Curry's Foundation of Expression completed.

Harmonic gymnastics.

Pantomimic expression

Studies in vocal training (p. 15).
Influence of Curry: Curry textbooks were used in the New Orleans Public Schools for nearly two decades. In addition, most of the earlier teachers of Expression actually attended Curry's private institution in Boston, if not for a regular session, at least for a summer or two.

Although Robb names Curry as an opponent of the mechanical school,\textsuperscript{10} she admits that he was an eclectic. It is probable that Curry's early training at Boston University with Lewis B. Monroe, who is said by Robb\textsuperscript{11} and by Hochmuth and Murphy to have been a student of Delsarte,\textsuperscript{12} influenced his teaching techniques.

The Delsartian "trinitary division," life, mind, and soul, may be found in Curry's works. Shaver explains that "vocal sound (apart from words) expresses life, words express mind, movement expresses soul." He points out further that Curry's interpretation of Delsarte, which he did not accept, is that "the body expresses not only soul, but, to a degree, both life and mind."\textsuperscript{13}

Curry's own view is given in his Foundations of Expression. He says:

\textsuperscript{10}Robb, p. 195.
\textsuperscript{11}Robb, p. 193.
in all exercises for tone and in all reading, students must, as far as possible, think the thought and feel the emotion through the whole organism. The body is the whole, the voice a part. Accordingly, there should be careful training not merely for health or strength, as in organic gymnastics, but a study of the body in relation to being and voice. All true training in delivery must bring mind, body and voice into greater unity.14

The fact also that teachers came to him from many places suggests they were not so much interested in principles as they were in teaching devices and techniques. This was certainly partially the case with Miss Jessie Tharp, the first permanent speech teacher in the New Orleans public schools. In an interview on May 17, 1955, Miss Tharp explained that she taught in the Boys' High School for nearly a year, and then went to Boston to attend a summer session with Curry to gather up additional teaching techniques. Miss Tharp said she liked Curry, but disliked Mrs. Curry, who appeared to her to be trying to give the impression of "knowing it all." Miss Tharp described Curry as being precise and somewhat formal in manner, but an inspiring, enthusiastic and competent teacher.

Three of Curry's textbooks, Foundations of Expression, Classics for Vocal Expression, and Little Classics for Oral English were used in the New Orleans public schools until 1927 or 1928. Robb points out that while Curry wrote fourteen books, two of them, Province of Expression, and Foundations of Expression, "set forth his philosophy as clearly as any of his writings."15 The Library of Congress Catalogue dates these two books at 1891 and 1907. Curry's Classic Selections for Vocal

15 Robb, p. 194.
Expression was copyrighted in 1888. A copy of Foundations of Expression used by Miss Zillah Meyer in her classes, even after she went to teach at McMain High School in the early 1930's, is dated 1920.

Curry's philosophy, as has been indicated, was a combination of several. He did not reject completely the Delsarte emphasis on pantomime, nor did he go to extremes in advocating naturalness. He may have been influenced by the psychologists of the period. Thus, Delsarte's trinity becomes a psychological reaction of mind, voice and body.

Curry recites his point of view in Foundations. He explains:

This book outlines the results of some earnest endeavors to study anew the problem of developing the voice and body and improving reading and speaking. The attempt has been made to find psychological causes, not only of the expressive modulations of the voice, but of the conditions of the mind and body required for its right training and correct use.16

Curry's aim, obviously, is at correction and improvement. He prescribes mechanical practice, but insists upon helping the student "to become himself conscious of right modes of expression." (p. 4) He adds:

Such practice has its difficulties. It requires care, perserverance, self study, a harmonious use of thinking and feeling, insight into what is fundamental rather than accidental, exercise of the imagination to hold a situation, and of the sympathetic instinct to yeild breathing, voice and body to its dominion.

The same point of view is presented in the Little Classics for Oral English which was used as a textbook for the first two courses of high school training in 1920. Curry writes:

The aim of this book is to present a method of developing the voice in reading and speaking which will avoid imitation or artificial and mechanical modes of teaching. The underlying principle is that thinking and feeling cause voice modulation; that expression is an outward manifestation of mental activity; and that there are three ways in which expression can be improved: first, by stimulating the cause; second, by making the voice and the body more normal and responsive, third, by understanding the elements of vocal expression or the right voice modulation.

One peculiarity of this book is the presentation of questions which are to be answered by rendering extracts, printed with the questions or problems. Methods of studying and of teaching are treated in foot-notes.¹⁷

Some of Curry's footnoted instructions in Little Classics may appear unwarranted to a teacher with a background of linguistics and phonetics. For example on page 27, Curry declares, "A most important step is the development of articulation. All work for articulation must center in the vowels. There must be no work or labor, especially on consonants. If the vowels are open and free and the voice is properly modulated, the correct consonants will ordinarily follow of themselves."

Other interesting things demonstrate that Curry did not always adhere to his theories. For example, on page 30 he says,

Laughter, although a spontaneous and involuntary act, may be used as an exercise.

And again on page 41,

The first kind of pause chiefly concerns the reader; it expresses the fact that he is receiving an impression. The second kind of pause, which is called

the emphatic pause, concerns more the listener; it is introduced in the middle of a phrase immediately after the emphatic word, and is the staying of attention by the reader until his listener has perceived the point or the importance of the thought.

Curry's theories and practices have been too well reviewed by others to dwell on them in this dissertation. It should suffice to say that Curry's techniques were not as natural as he professed, and that his influence still is felt in the public school system.

The 1920 Course of Study in Expression. Few changes in the course of study in Expression appear until the 1928 Course of Study was published. In 1911, Curry's Classics for Vocal Expression was introduced for Courses I and II. The work is described in this manner:

In these courses creative thinking is stimulated by means of conversations, story-telling, discussions, the study and vocal interpretation of fables, folklore, and narrative poetry. Much of this is required in the form of platform work. Thus the student acquires freedom and ease before an audience.

Curry's Classics for Vocal Expression, and vocal interpretation of problems, as suggested in the text.

Harmonic gymnastics.

Courses III and IV and V and VI remained practically unchanged. The textbook was still Foundations of Expression and the work involved harmonic gymnastics, vocal training, original speeches and debates and pantomimic expression.

The term, harmonic gymnastics, is associated with Delsarte, but Steele MacKaye is credited with introducing and possibly inventing the system. Shaver explains that harmonic gymnastics were "a series of
exercises of which relaxing or decomposing exercises seemed to be the most important.\textsuperscript{18} He believes that MacKaye's claim to having originated "harmonic gymnastics" is adequately supported.

By 1920 the Course of Study in Expression had been only slightly enlarged. No changes in aims was registered, but \textit{Little Classics for Oral English} had been substituted for \textit{Classics for Vocal Expression} in the first year. Readings from Shakespeare's plays had been added. In a separate Course of Study of the Warren Easton, Sophie B. Wright and Esplanade High Schools, published in 1920, the following verbatim prescription appears:

\textbf{Courses I and II}

In these courses, the foundation for better reading and speaking is laid through lectures on the fundamental principles of expression. Creative thinking is stimulated by means of story telling, the study and the vocal interpretation of fables, folklore and lyric poetry. Practice of such exercises as will develop the elementals of Vocal and Pantomimic expression and bring them into unity and harmony.

\textit{Text book: Little Classics for Oral English, by S. S. Curry.}

\textbf{Courses III and IV}

Delivery is a question of responsiveness. Those changes of the voice and actions of the body which are the spontaneous effect of the process of the mind in thinking and feeling are now introduced through the medium of the text book.

Story telling is continued.

Study and vocal interpretation of lyric, narrative and dramatic literature.

Principles of Public Speaking. Vocal and Pantomimic exercises continued.  
Text book: Foundations of Expression, by S. S. Curry  
Choice of two Shakespearean plays.  

Courses V and VI  

"No two poems in the world can have the same expression, nor any two men express the same poem in precisely the same way." (sic)  
The study and development of the dramatic instinct, or the functioning of assimilation and sympathy as the interpretative basis for expression.  
Further application of the principles of Public Speaking.  
Study and interpretation of Dramatic Literature.  
Choice of two standard plays.  
Choice of classics for reading.  
Pupils guided in the art of choosing their own material for programs.  

The 1925 State Course in English. There was practically no outside influence on the teaching of speech, so far as courses of study were concerned until a new state course of study in English published in 1925 found its way to New Orleans. It must be here pointed out, however, that individual teachers in New Orleans were aggressive and progressive. They were members of national associations and they continued to study summers at various universities and private institutions. All of them were personally performers at Little Theater and literary society functions. The author of this paper has known all of these teachers and can testify to their constant personal activity.  

Oral practices had been completely minimized in the English courses in New Orleans by 1911. The textbooks were Smith's Our Language, Brooks and Hubbard's Composition-Rhetoric and the literature collections of Tappan and of Halleck. Macmillan's Pocket Classics which included debates and orations by Southern orators were studied, but these were
studied for form and style, not for oral interpretation. A mention of oral work in connection with English classes was not to appear again in the high school courses until John R. Conniff, former assistant superintendent in New Orleans went to work for the State Department of Education and published his Suggestive Course of Study in English for High Schools in 1925.

This course of study reemphasizes oral English and seems to point the direction for absorbing more and more speech techniques into English courses. In several instances it uses the almost exact wording used in the course of study of 1905 for the New Orleans elementary schools already described in this chapter (p. 170). For example, the exact wording on page nine of the 1905 Course of Study appears again on page four of Conniff's Course:

Oral expression is first in time and first in importance, it is the natural beginning of the subject, it is more frequently employed by the average person than is written expression and is a preparation for written work. (p.4)

Again the language of Conniff's English course of study for high schools is reminiscent of the 1905 program for elementary schools in New Orleans, when Conniff, under general aims says;

The emphasis in the teaching should be placed upon the relation existing between thought and expression and upon the importance of the thought element in language teaching. (p.1)

As a specific aim Conniff adds:

The giving of a good working control of the vocabulary and the development of the power to interpret the thought in clear, choice, expressive English should be the specific aim of the teacher of English. (p.4)
Suggested exercises for drill in oral composition in the 1925 state Course of Study on page seven are identical with those in the New Orleans 1905 course of study on page ten. Material suggested for oral and written themes in both include stories of vacations, recreations and outings, descriptions, explanations, oral book reports, conversation and dramatization. Oral discussion and outlining are recommended in the preparation process. In addition Conniff offers detailed instructions in the use of the dictionary for spelling, pronunciation, and definition. In studying plays the reading should be oral, interpretative reading. There should be memorizing, dramatization and sharing of experiences. It is interesting to note that Alfred Ayres, Orthoepist is listed among the reference sources and it is likewise interesting to note that Mrs. John R. Conniff is listed as a teacher in the Department of Speech at Louisiana State University during the 1925 summer session.  

Elementary School Developments. Meanwhile there continued to be progress in language studies in the elementary schools. Phonics were introduced into the reading program as a definite part of the teaching process by 1913. In that year, the Course of Study for Elementary Schools shows that the terms language, grammar, reading, literature and spelling had all been incorporated under the term English. Under word study (p.8) the instruction was given to first grade teachers that:

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Lessons in phonics should be treated apart from the reading lessons and are subjects not to be begun before third week in school. It is recommended that the sounds selected for study should be developed analytically; the procedure to be from familiar words containing as initial or final letters the consonant sound to be stressed. When the element selected has been dissociated, use it in new combinations . . . . Care should be exercised to secure correct hearing and correct pronunciation, as these so largely influence accurate spelling. Many-sided appeals are necessary in order to fix correct forms, therefore eye, ear, and hand must constantly be called upon to assist one another.

Second grade teachers also were given some instruction with regard to word study. The Course of Study (p.11) warns:

Do not attempt to teach more than two phonograms a day. Select the phonograms which occur most frequently in the daily lesson.

It is suggested that the authorized text be used twice a week and that the subject matter for the remaining reading periods be selected from supplementary sources suitable to the grade.

There are for each grade suggestions of stories for reading or telling by the teacher. For the pupils, select poems for memorizing are suggested. Source for these was the Memory Gems collection of the Picayune. There are suggestions also for dramatizations and character studies of such personalities as Robinson Crusoe, Robin Hood, Evangeline, John Halifax, Brutus, Portia and the Man Without A Country.

The textbooks used included New Educational Reader, The Bender Primer, Child Classics Primer, The Wheeler Primer and others. For the third, fourth and fifth grades, Brumbaugh's Readers were used. Curry's Literary Reader was the text for the sixth and seventh grades, and Literary Masterpieces which featured Shakespeare, Dickens, Scott, Lowell and Poe was used for the eighth grade.
Language and grammar were treated under another heading. The importance of good oral speech was stressed. The Course of Study for 1913 points out:

As a man's education is often judged by his speech, and as he used oral language far more than written language, it is essential that a strong, definite effort be made to improve the oral expression of the pupils. It should be remembered, however, that grammatical accuracy is not the only requisite of good speech; it must be accompanied by clear articulation, pleasing quality of voice, and correct pronunciation.

How secured.

1. By presenting correct models of English in every spoken utterance in the school room; by making the child familiar with correct forms and idioms through hearing them constantly and through using them.

2. By careful and systematic instruction.

3. By special drills upon forms that are habitually misused in the class-room and on the playgrounds. (p.31)

For each grade there are suggestions for securing correct oral expression. Conversation, story-telling, dramatization, games, are recommended. In oral spelling lessons, the stress is placed upon clear enunciation by pupil and teacher. "Each sound should have distinct utterance. The slighting of sounds in pronouncing words is frequently the cause of poor spelling. Insist upon the correct pronunciation of the word by the pupil. For oral reviews hold spelling matches and spelling bees" (p. 50-51).

Silent Reading Stressed in 1916. While it was still conceded that oral reading was important, especially in the earlier grades, by 1916 the Course of Study emphasized a new approach to the teaching of reading. The aims had shifted from the impression-expression concept
of Curry and the others, to a concept of mastery and appreciation. Although stress on silent reading was being urged under the term language, there was a continuing emphasis upon correct oral expression. A large variety of reading matter was made available, and more games, pictures and other aids were supplied.

To show the 1916 approach the following set of aims and the various phases of reading are recorded:

**Aims.** To secure mastery of the printed page, and easy effective expression of thought; to develop appreciation of literature, love of books, power to select and use them wisely, are ends to be striven for by every teacher of reading.

Content should be emphasized rather than form, and cooperation of class and teacher in pleasing group activities in and out of school, encouraged. Variety in material and in treatment is recommended to arouse genuine interest, which will prevent the work from degenerating into drudgery. A definite aim for each lesson needs to be kept in mind, whatever may be the type of lesson selected. Children should be permitted some liberty of choice, teachers requiring that reading matter conform to the following standards:

1. Appeal to child interest.
2. Be of good literary value.
3. Be ethically sound.
4. Afford scope and variety.

**Phases of Reading.** Silent reading should be stressed throughout the grades, and some attention given to pace. Dawdling and indirect reading habits are to be discouraged. Literary reading calls for more than informational, because of the imaginative forms necessary to be evoked; the habit of vivid visualizing should be established in early childhood. The material for sight reading should be easier than the prescribed text. The child's needs of exercising his tendency toward spontaneous and original action can be satisfied by dramatic representation. Reading offers an excellent opportunity for this form of exercise, and natural expression will be one of the many advantages gained by dramatization judiciously handled. (p.4).
There were no further changes in the course of study until 1927, except that the new editions continued to stress language, but gave no further sign of recognizing reading as needing special instruction to the teachers. It may be assumed that the New Orleans Normal School was carrying on this phase of instruction to the teachers.

**Transitional Elements in the Normal School.** The New Orleans Normal School was operated by the school system to meet a definite need. Instruction therefore, was along two lines to cover the subject matter to be taught in the Kindergarten and elementary schools and to train the teacher in the art and science of teaching.

In 1899-1900 the school had two classes, Junior and Senior. Among the books of reference which the students were expected to use were:

*An Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education*, Laurie; *Socrates*, Ziller; *Politics*, Aristotle; *Crito and Phaedo*, Plato; *Loyola and the Educational System of the Jesuits*, Hughes; *Pestalozzi and the Modern Elementary Schools*, Pinloche; *Herbart and the Herbartians*, De Garmo; *Herbartian Psychology Applied to Education*, Adams; *Emile*, Rousseau; *Leonard and Gertrude*, Pestalozzi; *Education*, Spencer; *Pedagogies of the Kindergarten*, Froebel; *Education of Man*, Froebel.

The English course in the Junior year was concerned with spelling and phonics, reading, composition and rhetoric. In spelling and phonics the course included:

The most generally applicable rules of spelling; rules for the division of words into syllables; principles of pronunciation; diacritical marks; phonic drills; dictation spelling.

Reference books: Westlake's Three Thousand Practice Words; Dictionary work; Five Thousand Words often Mispronounced, Phyfe. (p. 16)

Reading instruction included:

Principles of reading; breathing exercises; vocal drills; critical analysis of selected readings in prose and verse; the memorizing of chosen passages.

Text books: Psychological Development of Expression, By Mary A. Blood and Ida Morey Riley; standard readers. (p. 16).

Rhetoric was concerned with:

Study of sentence and of paragraph structure, with special regard to the qualities of unity, clearness and ease.

References--Foundation of Rhetoric, Hill; Errors in the Use of English, Hodgson; Exercise in English, Strang; First Book in Writing English, Lewis; Composition and Rhetoric, Scott and Denney. (p. 17).

Work in English for the senior groups was pure grammar and composition. Rules of syntax and analysis of sentences together with a history of the English language constituted the program.

Several things should be noted about the Junior program. The Phyfe work-book still is used in judging pronunciation in contests of the State Rally at Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge. The book listed by Blood and Riley actually is based on Charles Wesley Emerson's work. Renshaw explains:

In 1894 Emerson's books were supplemented by The Psychological Development of Expression, a four-volume series edited by Blood and Riley. It copied Emerson, but the authors did attempt to
modernize the terminology and explanations.  

Emerson had been a student of Lewis Baxter Monroe at Boston University along with Curry and Franklin Sargeant, director of the American Academy of Dramatic Arts. Emerson founded the Monroe College of Oratory in 1880, named in honor of his teacher, and changed the name to Emerson College in 1891. Mary Blood and Ida Riley, graduates of his school, opened the Columbia School of Oratory, Physical Culture and Dramatic Art in Chicago (p. 305).

There was no essential change in the Normal School course of study except that the reference to Blood and Riley was dropped in 1901, and by 1903, the emphasis had shifted to pedagogy and psychology. The 1903 Course of Study in the Junior year required rhetoric, the special study of sentence and paragraph and composition (p. 19). The senior year concentrated on grammar, rhetoric and composition; reading and spelling and phonics were taught in the junior year. Reading consisted of a "series of lectures of Elocution, followed by a practical application of its principles in the reading of poems and prose selections." Spelling was concerned with the "latest and best methods of teaching phonics, oral and written spelling" (p. 21).

By 1908 there were a few minor changes in approach, but the Course of Study continued to require that the principles of elocution be taught in connection with reading (p. 18).

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The 1910 Course of Study added a few new items. Thorndike's Elements of Psychology and Principles of Teaching came into use as a textbook along with McMurry's Elements of General Method. The plan of criticism now included an evaluation of manner, voice, gesture, position and temper of the student-teacher. In 1913, Read and Pillsbury's Psychology was added as a text along with Bagley's Educative Process. Spelling was moved over as a senior subject. Emphasis now was placed upon silent reading, but the student was urged to use "the sentence, word or phonetic method as the needs of the pupil may require" (p. 22). Spelling became a mental process, and definitions and orthography were included (p. 24). By 1916 story-telling was added and elocution was dropped. It must be kept in mind that under the school board rules of 1913, two courses of Expression were required for admission to the Normal School. A Single exception is recorded in the school board minutes of 1915 when on September 15, Superintendent Gwinn reported to the board:

Miss Lillian Mire was graduated from the Sophie B. Wright High School in June, 1915, and received a diploma from the Normal Preparatory Course. Miss Mire entered the High School from the Home Institute in December, 1914, and she states that she was not informed that Expression would be required for Normal School entrance. In view of the facts stated above, I recommend that she be admitted to the Normal School and that credit for two years in Latin be substituted for the required entrance credits in Expression."22

In teaching phonics, Miss V. M. Walker, now a teacher at McDonough Senior High School, in an interview in February, 1955, said "we made charts for the sounds. We drew pictures for that which would

represent the sound, for instance, the angry cat goes pft, and the cooing dove goes d-d-d-. There was a handbook in the New Education Series of Readers on phonics."

Miss Walker also testifies that the Expression teacher came to the Normal School. "We used to have Friday exercises. Each Friday, the classes had turns. Everyone had a chance to recite."

Another teacher, Miss Susie C. Murphy, now retired, in a personal letter, dated April 15, 1955, was emphatic in her attachment of values to the use of phonics and the understanding of phonetics to the teaching of reading and spelling. She is convinced that recognition of the manner of utterance is a definite factor in meaning. "For that reason, she wrote, "I always favored oral rather than silent reading." Word meanings were secured through use of "flash cards, phonics, board work and free expression."

Speech correction was introduced into the Normal School curriculum in the late 1920's, but by the time the school was closed in 1940, speech correction had given way to remedial reading.

Morning Exercises. To complete the picture of transition in speech training in the New Orleans public schools, there remains now to describe the speech activities connected with opening exercises, the State Rally at Baton Rouge, and the extra-curricular work. It will be helpful also to give short accounts of the leading personalities in the field of speech who guided the curricular and extra-curricular work in speech.

Although there may have been morning exercises as early as 1902, they are not mentioned in any of the courses of study published by the
school board until 1913. This may mean that Superintendent Gwinn, who succeeded Easton, was impressed enough with the educational value of these exercises to include them in the Course of Study. It is significant that the two assistant superintendents, John R. Conniff and Nicholas Bauer, had both taught speech. Bauer was a pupil of Miss Whitaker. The 1913 Course of Study gave as values for the work: unification of interests, creation of school spirit, and efficient group cooperation. It was suggested that the school should assemble as a whole for ten minutes each morning, but when this was not practical the exercises should be carried on in the class rooms. The programs were described as being "patriotic, aesthetic or moral." The possibilities were listed in the following manner:

An outline of interesting current events during the preceding week might occupy one day's program; another occasion might be utilized in the elaboration of some important news topic. A story well-told, a poem creditably tendered, or a reading sympathetically given, are acceptable weekly numbers, occasional reports of school athletics, achievements, and school hygiene furnish interest; other activities must also be provided for - dialogues, dramatization, folk dancing, short debates at times, add interest." (p. 63)

The directions further suggest that a pupil committee elected or appointed, after consultation with a faculty committee, might plan and direct the programs. It was also specifically stated that "special days call for observance; Thanksgiving, Christmas, Easter and other well known favorites are usually celebrated, but the birthdays of noted scientists, inventors, authors, heroes of history, and others who have added to the world's happiness or comfort, should also be noticed. Such exercises, however, should not occur too frequently" (p. 64).
There are many references to the morning exercises in the school board minutes as well as in the annual reports of principals. Superintendent Gwinn informed the board on December 22, 1916, that inspector T. M. Gore constructed an accordion partition in the Kindergarten room of the Gayarre School to provide an additional class room and to provide for the holding of exercises when needed. Similar arrangements were made in the Jeff Davis and E. T. Merrick Schools.\textsuperscript{23}

The exercises were outdoors when weather permitted. Miss V. M. Walker remembers that morning exercises included raising the flag, salute to the flag, recitation of a poem or a piece and a song. Each class had a turn. \textit{Memory Gems}, the \textit{Picayune} publication, was helpful. Miss Susie C. Murphy, now retired, emphasized the purposes recognized for the morning exercises. She said, "The children acquired poise; even the timid ones overcame stage fright; literary gems were stored in memory. During reading periods, the poem selected was read, word meanings taught and the children selected words or phrases that formed the picture in the poem and made its meaning clear. Sometimes the shorter poems were memorized." Again, Miss Margret Hymel, now teaching English and speech at Behrman High School, also speaks of the poems, plays and recitations used in connection with morning exercises and as a means of celebrating the holidays.

Assistant Superintendent Malcolm F. Rosenberg, head of the Division of Instruction, in a personal interview in April, 1955,

\footnote{\textit{Minutes}, Vol. 23, p. 12.}
explained that the morning programs continue to be prescribed, but that sometimes in schools without basements where assembly may be difficult, the activities are carried on over the public address system or in the classrooms. The experiences here are in keeping with modern living. He recognizes as purposes of these activities, acquiring poise, overcoming stage fright, learning platform behavior, and socializing values.

Typical programs as they were conducted in the 1920's are found in a collection by Miss Ruth Markey, upper elementary supervisor. Miss Markey explains that the programs were for the most part moral and patriotic, but some of the poems were about the seasons, the elements, the moon, the stars, the wind, the holidays. Each school had a regular assembly place - around the flagpole, in the basement, or in the auditorium. Morning programs were preserved in a big record book. Miss Markey in an interview in February, 1955, describes the procedure somewhat in this manner:

The eighth grade A and B teachers got the record book and wrote their programs in it. Then they sent the book to the seventh grade teachers and they inscribed their programs and passed the book on to the sixth grade teachers and so on.

The book was kept in the principal's office when not in use by the teachers. There was no one in overall charge of the programs, except, of course, the principal. Each teacher conducted her own morning exercises.

There was generally a march by the children. The exercises followed a fairly regular pattern: Song --recitations-- song-- pledges-- the march.
The recitations for the most part were poems, but on special days, holidays, etc., there were also prose readings. For example, President Coolidge's proclamation on the death of Woodrow Wilson formed the basis for a program by Miss Markey on February 4, 1924.

The American Bar Association published a booklet of programs and suggestions for the celebration of Constitution Week, September 16-22, 1923. The children memorized passages.

Taken from one of the record books of McDonogh 16 School are the following typical examples:

Morning exercises.  R. Markey, teacher
Thursday, September 20, 1923  Eighth A Grade

Opening song, "Our Father" - - - - - - - School

"My Country"-- A patriotic Creed for Americans recited by--Hilda Wassermann
Henry Vosbein
Anthony Cabibi
Cora Indovina
Lillian Defourneaux
Carmelite Fernandez

A. L. Higgins, teacher
Eighth B Grade

Opening song, "Father Oh Hear Us" - - - - - School
Recitation, "Our Country" - Recited by Hilda Wassermann
Song, "September Bells" - - - - - - - School
Closing song, "America" - - - - - - - School

Morning exercises.  Viola Zerr, teacher
Friday, September 21, 1923  Seventh A Grade

Opening song, "Our Father" - - - - - - - School
Recitation, "The Few" -- Recited by Pauline Helm
Song, "September Bells" - - - - - - - School
Closing song, "America" - - - - - - - School
School Pledge
Flag Pledge

M. Murphy, teacher
Seventh B Grade

Opening song, "Our Father" —— School
Recitation, U. S. Constitution, Article II— Pupils of 7B Grade.
Song, "September Bells" —— School

School Pledge
Flag Pledge

Closing song, "America" —— School

Morning exercises. I. T. Coyl, teacher
Monday, September 24, 1923 Sixth A Grade

Opening song, "Our Father" —— School
Recitation, U. S. Constitution, Article I
Song, "September Bells" —— School
School Pledge —— School
Flag Pledge —— School

Marching song, "America"

Morning exercises. Leontine Moore, teacher
Tuesday, September 25, 1923 Fifth A grade

Opening song, "Our Father" —— School
Recitation, "The Land of Liberty" —— Charles Lesseps

I love my country's pine-clas hills,
Her thousand bright and gushing rills,
Her sunshine and her storms.
Her rough and rugged rocks, that rear
Their hoary heads high in the air.
In wild fantastic forms.
There were four stanzas and it appears that one child recited the entire poem. However, longer poems often were divided among a group of children.

Song, "September Bells" - - - - - - - - - - School
School Pledge
Flag Pledge
Marching song, "America"

Next day on September 26, 1923, the Fifth B Grade of Miss A. V. Mitchell conducted the program.

Opening song, "Our Father" - - - - - - - - School
Recitation, "Indian Summer" - - - - Marguerite Farmer
Song, "September Bells" - - - - - - - - School
School Pledge
Flag Pledge
Marching song, "America"

The State Rally at Baton Rouge. Transitional influences on the teaching of speech in the New Orleans public schools may be seen in the evolution of literary contests in a state-wide program conducted at Louisiana State University in Baton Rouge every year in April. The attitude of the superintendent and school board of New Orleans was one of great enthusiasm. For several years after the contests were organized on a permanent basis in 1910, the board paid the expenses of teachers and pupils who attended the rally, and the superintendent in his annual reports always was careful to mention the participation of public school pupils in these contests.

Gray and Bagenstos describe the kinds of contests being conducted in many states including Louisiana during this transitional period.
They point out that by 1930 at least nineteen states through their University Extension Division were sponsoring declamatory contests. In their summary of a survey upon which the bulletin was based, Gray and Bagenstos concluded that:

Contests have their place in the educational scheme. Speaking contests are no exception to this principle. Their harm or worth depends on what is made of them, their aims and objectives, the manner of conducting, and the spirit back of the endeavor. They offer an urge that is fundamental in human nature—the desire to excel. In speaking contests, as in other speaking situations, is another opportunity to exercise beneficially another basic impulse—the wish to dominate, to hold sway over an audience, to move them, to control their thoughts and emotions.

Speaking contests also afford opportunity for comparative evaluation by disinterested and experienced judges of the work done not only by the student—but also by the instructor, and thereby the work done by the school. They permit comparisons by the instructors themselves, of methods of teaching, of standards of good speaking, and of the results of their best work.

It must be admitted that declamation contests are not all they should be at the present time; they do not measure up to their possibilities. However, from the number of schools and individual students participating, it would appear that school officials have great faith in the activity, and that the students themselves are drawn to it by some appeal which it has for them. Administrators seem to be groping for types of speech activities that will afford proper development to the individuals in their charge.25

The first regularly organized State High School Rally was held at the State University on April 29 and 30, 1910. An experimental Rally day held the year before had proved so successful that the Rally was


25 Ibid., pp. 44-45.
made permanent. To encourage all the schools to participate the University collected an entry fee of one dollar for each contestant, and then gave a small rebate on train fare to those who came from far distances. Literary events included English composition, debating, declamation, chorus or quartet work, a spelling match, and for the eighth grades a contest in English composition and an exhibit of work in history. In English composition each high school was allowed to enter one contestant. Ten subjects based upon pupil experience and books in the High School Course of Study were presented to them. The emphasis was on thought, structure, and vitality.

In debating two contestants were allowed from each school. Each debater was limited to eight minutes. The bulletin specified that "any rebuttal that is made must be included in this limit." The subject for debate was: "Resolved, that women in the United States should be granted the suffrage on equal terms with men."

Declamation contests were separate for boys and girls. Each school could enter one contestant in each division.

All selections must be sent to the chairman of the University Committee on literary events, D. A. G. Reed, two weeks before the rally. The time limit for Declamations was 8 minutes. The chorus contest was for four-part music and quartettes. There were no restrictions as to the nature or length of the wording of the chorus. The first spelling match in 1909 had been oral, but because of the time element, it was changed to written. A special word list was prepared for the contest. In the event of a tie an oral spelling match was to be conducted from Mayne's Business Speller.
In the English Composition for the Eighth Grade, the work of whole classes was judged. New Orleans was permitted to enter only one class. The composition was to be written as a reproduction of a story read to the contestants.

The history exhibit included notebooks, papers, map work.

Prizes in the speech events were gold and silver medals, certificates of honor and honorable mention.

In the eighth grade composition contest, the prize was a copy of Webster's New International Dictionary. Winners also received scholarships.26

The public schools of New Orleans were invited to participate in the first Rally, and on March 11, 1910, the committee on secondary schools recommended that "the pupils of the high schools of this city participate in the high school rally to be held in Baton Rouge during the month of April next and that the chairman of the committee on Elementary Schools be authorized to make the necessary arrangements in the matter at an expense of not more than $250."27

Again, on May 12, 1911, the Minutes (p. 303) show a report from Superintendent Gwinn in which he commended the New Orleans entrees of April 28 - 29. He said:

In all literary contests in which the New Orleans pupils were entered, our representatives succeeded in carrying off honors. This was particularly true in the spelling


27 Minutes, Vol. 20, p. 90.
contest in which New Orleans carried 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 places. The pupils that distinguished themselves in this contest were Miss Rose Mayer, first; Miss Alice Norton, second; Miss Cecile Panter and Miss Mary Lee Jackson, tied for third place, Max Schaumburger, fifth place.

In the debating contest, Max Schaumburger and Fred Free-land, both from High School No. 1 carried off 1st. and 2nd. places, respectively. Beatrice Schaumburger of High School No. 3 won first place in the declamation contest, while Lucien Campbell of High School No. 1 earned 2nd place in the declamation contest for boys. R. C. Woods of the High School was given second place in the English composition.

Interest in the State Rally mounted in the next few years. The 1912 appropriation was $200 and superintendent Gwinn himself attended. He reported that "New Orleans participated most successfully." So much value was put upon the Rally that by 1915, the appropriation to send delegations rose to $600, and in 1916, expenses were $671.

Assistant Superintendent Nicholas Bauer accompanied the contestants. In 1917 Bauer reported enthusiastically of the contestants from New Orleans, but that year there was one dissenting voice. Mrs. Alice L. Lusher, principal of the S. B. Wright High School, requested that the school be exempted from participation in the High School Rally at Baton Rouge for the reasons that "preparation for the contests seriously interferes with the regular work of the school, the extra study and drill frequently causes a serious nerve strain on pupils; some parents object to their daughters entering the contests; there has not been a general

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interest on the part of students in preliminary drill; and that the in-
creased attendance of the past few terms does not permit teachers to give
the time required for the extra work involved in training for rally con-
tests." 30

The request was denied on the ground that— "the holding of the
High School Rally is of much educational value, acts as an incentive to
pupils in their studies, and is for the general good of the schools" (p.78).

After the rally, Superintendent Gwinn reported to the Board:

The New Orleans High Schools made a fine record in the
State High School Rally held in Baton Rouge on May 4 and 5.

In the Track and Field Meet, the Warren Easton High School
won the meet with a total of 32 points. In the literary
events, the S. B. Wright High School scored 37 points, the
highest number scored by any school in the state: Warren
Easton was second with 34 points, and the Esplanade High
School ties the Baton Rouge High School for third place.

In these contests, the Warren Easton High School secured
six first places, one second place and one third place,
S. B. Wright High School secured four first places, five
second places, and two third places; Esplanade High School
secured four second places and four third places. (p. 100)

World War I halted the Rally proceedings for about two years, but
when the Rally was again resumed, enthusiasm was higher than ever. On
May 14, 1920, Bauer submitted the following report of the Rally:

There were approximately 850 contestants. New Orleans
was represented by 92 boys and girls.

Of the literary events, our schools entered 18 and secured
12 first places, one second place and one third place in
these 18 events. New Orleans won first place in Botany,
Chemistry, Commercial Arithmetic, Boys Debating, Boys
Declamation, Girls Declamation, Dramatic Interpretation,

30 Minutes, Vol. 23, p. 10.
History, Home Economics, Food, Physics, Stenography and Typewriting, and second place in Home Economics-House Furnishing and third place in Home Economics-Clothing.

These results surpass any achieved in the past and are a splendid tribute to the excellent work done by the students and teachers of the three High Schools.

The expenses of the delegation consisting of the contestants and chaperones amounted to $1077.30 and were paid by the Board.\(^{31}\)

In the years from 1910 to 1925 there had been little change in the literary contests of the State Rally. However, by 1925 the literary events had increased to include the sciences, commercial subjects and home economics.\(^{32}\)

The speech events included debating for boys, debating for girls, declamation for boys, declamation for girls, dramatic interpretation, and English pronunciation. Rules for the speaking contests were much more specific than they had been: "The declamation for boys must be selected from standard orations and may be an extract or a complete oration. The following books were found serviceable: Shurter's *American Oratory of Today*, Fulton and Trueblood's *British and American Eloquence*, Espenshade's *Forensic Declamations*, Clark and Blanchard's *Practical Public Speaking*." The time limit was five minutes. Selections must be approved by the Rally Committee. Declamations for girls could be selected from masterpieces in prose and poetry. Fresh or recent selections, provided they have real merit, are preferable to those which are


old and commonplace. Time limit was seven minutes. The catalogue of Ivan Bloom Hardin Co., Des Moines, Iowa and the catalogue of the Francis Reeves Co. of New York were recommended.

Dramatic Interpretation was a contest in the presentation of modern one-act plays. Copies of the plays had to be submitted to the Rally Committee. Sources recommended were: Representative One-Act Plays by American Authors, published by Little, Brown and Co., and Johnson's Choosing A Play (Century Co.).

Instructions for the 1925 English Pronunciation event were:

The test in the pronunciation of English will be oral and each student will be examined orally. The words selected for the test will be simple and well-known, such as for example, February, fifth, hundred, and Italian. The list will not include words so rare and difficult as not to have attained fixed phonetic standards in the speech of cultured Americans.

One book recommended was Phyfe's Eighteen Thousand Words Often Mispronounced, which had been a standard reference in the New Orleans Normal School since the turn of the century. The test was conducted by Dr. W. A. Read, chairman of the English Department.

The spelling contest had not changed. Mayne's Business Speller and Webster's Academic Dictionary were used.

The subject for debate that year was: Resolved; that the proposed Child Labor Amendment to the Federal Constitution should be adopted. Construction and rebuttal was eight minutes. The debaters spoke by numbers. The judges considered (1) strength of arguments, based on the evidence of facts and sound reasoning; and (2) the oral delivery of the debate. Each school was allowed to enter one contestant.
The Rally Bulletin made an attempt to explain stock issues and suggested a rather extensive list of references including public documents and speeches by Congressmen and others. As the contest was conducted, each speaker was judged individually, rather than as a member of a team. No clash was expected.

The influence of the Speech Department at Louisiana State University under its present leadership began to be felt in 1934 when the Louisiana High School Debating League was organized. Until 1934 debating at the State Rally had been little more than set speeches by individuals taking affirmative or negative sides of a proposition. Now however, the League divided the state into six districts centering around state colleges, except in New Orleans, and regular rounds of preliminaries were conducted. Winners in these district rounds met at Baton Rouge at Rally time for the state championship rounds. Teams were composed of two speakers for the affirmative and two for the negative. Ten minutes were allowed for constructive speeches and five minutes were allowed for rebuttal speeches. There were three rounds in the finals.

The 1936 Rally Bulletin suggests:

For the benefit of those high schools which have not previously participated in the schedule of the Debating League, the Extension Division of the Louisiana State University, in cooperation with the Department of Speech, has published a small pamphlet containing brief articles on The Practical Values of Debating by Dr. C. M. Wise, What is Debating? by Dr. G. W. Gray, and Preparing the Debate by Professor C. L. Shaver.

This bulletin also offers to the debaters copies of the Official Debate Handbook prepared by the National University Extension
In 1936 also, the Rally Bulletin showed the influence of Wise, Gray and Shaver in instructions regarding declamations. The bulletin said:

The term declamation is here used to apply to a public address or an extract from a public address of recognized literary value. It is not to be the original work of the contestant, but selected from another source. It is not to be in the nature of an interpretative reading. Contestants are urged to select speeches which are modern in spirit, or which in any event may be delivered according to the modern ideals of public speaking, that is, the selection should be capable of being delivered as an elevated, somewhat formalized conversation, rather than as a turgid, violent, over-gestured or over-flowery rhetorical effort. The speech should in particular be capable of being delivered without the pattern cadence and false, irrelevant inflection which formerly characterized oratorical style. Finally, the speech should be fresh interesting material. (p. 36).

Other contests under Speech Department guidance included impromptu speaking. This term was changed in the 1941 Bulletin to extemporaneous speaking. In both instances, the contestants were to prepare themselves on contemporary affairs. They were to draw three topics and select one a half hour before they were to speak. By 1941 declamation had been eliminated from among the State Rally contests, and in its place had been substituted original oratory. Interpretative reading and one-act plays completed the Rally events, and those with the addition of radio speaking continue to constitute the present program. The early Louisiana Debate League procedure now has been set aside, and the elimination contests have been abandoned. Now, any school may enter the debate tournament.

Speech Correction in the Transitional Period. Attention to speech therapy came again in the New Orleans public schools in 1911. This
probably should not be classified as a renewal of interest in the education of deaf children which had come before the turn of the century, but as a new movement influenced by many developmental factors.

As Simon points out:

The opening years of the new millenium were a blend of the old and the new. For this reason, some writers have seen the prewar years as part of the preceding century. Yet there were real differences in concepts and events. There was a marked sense of quickening tempo with new facts and theories arriving in quick succession, and significant events occurring with increasing rapidity. These years brought likewise, expanding research and the application of new mechanical and electrical instruments made observation more precise.

It should be noted that the new interest in speech correction did not stem directly from the work in Expression, nor from the emphasis on oral English already described in this paper, but from the efforts of Miss Sue B. Power, an elementary school teacher, whose work with deaf children beginning in September, 1911, became the forerunner of the separate Department of Corrective Speech and Hearing. It is not clear from the School Board records when Miss Power first received training in speech correction. She attended Southwestern Academy for four years and graduated in 1902. She received her teachers certificate in 1904 after nearly three years of study at Peabody College. No dates are recorded for work done at Clark School for the Deaf or for work done at Tulane and Columbia, and no degrees are listed. The school board records show that the committee on elementary schools recommended on July 14, 1911,

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that "a Deaf-Mute Department be organized in the Franklin School at the opening of the next session, and that Miss Sue B. Powers be assigned as teacher of the Deaf-Mute Department at a salary of $100 per month for a session of ten months." Miss Power also was assigned as a special teacher of the Vacation School at the same salary (p. 352). The new school was opened in September with 12 pupils (p. 375). On October 13, 1911, Superintendent Gwinn reported to the board that the new school for deaf-mutes had been opened, and "the work gives promise of success" (p.375).

Miss Power undertook the job without much equipment in the beginning, but on December 8, 1911, the committee on elementary schools told the board:

We have received request from Miss Sue B. Power, teacher of department of deaf children, that children who are unable to provide themselves with transportation be furnished with car fare; that large pupils be permitted to join in manual training and drawing lessons; also that her department be authorized to purchase objects for class work of about ten dollars. We recommend that the request be granted. (p.448).

Miss Power continued to expand the work with deaf children and became interested also in children with speech handicaps from other causes. Recognition of the need to expand the program came when Superintendent Gwinn recommended after a report on September 2, 1913 by Dr. J. J. Wymer, acting Chief Medical Inspector, the appointment of a skilled teacher to correct speech defects; "the said teachers to instruct the Normal students and teach special class every day of the week in some school center."35

34 Minutes, Vol. 20, p. 338.

35 Minutes, Vol. 21, p. 260.
In 1914 Miss Power was given an assistant who worked at the Jackson School for $25 per month. At the Jackson School, Miss Power organized a "Day Class" for deaf children in 1915. This school was later moved to the Normal School, and still later to the Colton School.

The School Board Minutes (Vol. 23, p. 232) show also that on November 23, 1917, there were thirty-three Spanish children enrolled at the Jackson School, and that because these children were totally ignorant of English, they were given special instruction in English after school hours.

The program prospered and expanded, and Miss Power was assigned with the September session of 1920 to supervising instruction in speech defects throughout the city. The board fixed her salary at $170 a month.

Sleeper found that by 1918 there were three assistants in this department, and that they had taken some work in speech correction during the next summer at Tulane University (p. 13). But at the beginning of the 1920 - 21 term a survey was taken in all the schools, and as a result of that survey twenty-six classes were organized with twenty-one teachers. "Corrective speech instruction was given to three hundred and four pupils for one hour every afternoon. Of these pupils there were


seventy-two stutterers, two hundred and three lispers and twenty-nine other types of speech defects.\(^{39}\)

This work had been carried on by Kindergarten and first grade teachers who had been given special training, but by 1922 - 23, there had been so much interest aroused, that the superintendent appointed three full time teachers (p. 14).

More speech surveys were made so that classes were placed in schools where the greatest number of children with speech defects were found and where the teachers could make a transfer with the least time lost. The speech schedule as arranged gave two twenty-minute lessons a week to groups of from two to eighteen pupils. Stutterers always formed a special group separate from the others. The above arrangement was in operation until the year 1927 (p. 15). There were 21 schools in this program until in 1928, on the basis of additional hearing tests two new classes in elementary schools and one in the high school were organized (p. 16).

By 1929 five full-time teachers were conducting speech correction work in the elementary schools. Sleeper reports that for the 1930 - 31 session Miss Power made out a classification of speech disorders to be used in the department. This list included the following:

I. Stuttering

Stuttering is defined as the breaking of the rhythm of speech due to the blocking or inhibition of the muscular coordinations.

\(^{39}\)Sleeper, p. 14.
II. Letter Substitutions

A. Lisping is a substitution of consonants.

1. Neurotic lisping is an emotional adaption and coordination of the articulatory organs.

2. Mechanical or Organic Lisping is the wrong sound used due to wrongly formed articulatory organs.

3. Negligent Lisping is the careless use of the articulatory organs.

4. Negligent-Mechanical Lisping is the combination of the negligent and mechanical lisp.

B. Oral inactivity is the failure to use the articulatory organ.

1. Front oral inactivity—front of the tongue and lips not used.

2. Back oral inactivity—wrong use of back of mouth and tongue.

C. Foreign Accent is the English pronunciation tainted by a foreign accent or a jargon of near English sounds.

III. Cluttering is rapid speech with indistinct enunciation.

IV. Indistinct Speech is poor vowel quality with either sound substitution or omitted sounds.

V. Lack of Speech—either no speech or delayed speech.

1. Asphasic Speech is inability to understand or inability to produce speech.

2. Aphonia is speech without voice.

3. Mutism is inability to speak because of no hearing.
VI. **Delayed Speech** is speech that has been acquired later than the normal age for the acquisition of speech.

VII. **Deaf or Deafened Speech**—the speech of the totally deaf or the partially deaf.

VIII. **Voice Defects:**
- Weak
- Hoarse
- Monotonous
- High (p. 18).

In 1930 also speech correction work was being taught at the Normal School. "The student learned the classification of the speech disorders, the causes of each type, methods of prevention of same, and ways of correcting some of the minor speech disorders by classroom teachers" (p. 19). At that time the board gave the special teachers a $10 advance in salary over the regular scale. Qualifications for these teachers were that they must hold a regular certificate and that they must have had two speech courses plus practice in the clinic. Sleeper says that, "Of the speech teaching personnel at that time (1930 - 31), five teachers had had two or more speech courses in summer schools at Columbia University, Tulane University, or the University of Wisconsin" (p. 20). It is apparent that she refers here specifically to personnel doing speech correction only. It can be easily seen that these teachers were for the most part locally trained. One way to get the necessary credit, in addition to the Normal School training, was to attend a private school operated by Bernard T. Hanley, who had been appointed as a teacher of Expression in Warren Easton High School in 1916. Miss Edna May Strobel, in the department for years, now teaching at McDonogh Senior High School, was a graduate of Hanley's school as was Miss Loretta Burke, still an
Miss Ruth Proctor became supervisor of the Department of Corrective Speech and Hearing when Miss Power died in 1937. There are nine teachers in the department now, in addition to a clinic at the Eye, Ear and Nose Hospital in New Orleans. Miss Proctor is a constant attendant at national conventions and has an excellent reputation. She holds the B. A. and M. A. degrees from Tulane University and she has been awarded advanced certification of the American Speech and Hearing Association.
CHAPTER V

PERSONALITIES OF THE TRANSITION

Speech education in New Orleans has been almost entirely a matter of individual teachers. Some of them were exclusively public school teachers and others were also private teachers. It is not within the scope of this dissertation to present detailed accounts of these individuals, but no historical survey of speech education in the public schools would be complete without the mention of at least a few of the more prominent and influential of these teachers. Within the public school system itself during the transitional period there were three, sometimes referred to as the big three, who must be given credit for much of the early development. These three were Miss Jessie Tharp, first of the permanent Expression teachers, Miss Zillah Meyer, who came into the system in 1911 and may be regarded as second in point of time, and Bernard T. Hanley, known to thousands as Ben, who was appointed in 1915.

Of these three, Miss Meyer and Hanley were pupils of Miss Lily C. Whitaker, who, though she was a teacher and principal in the New Orleans public school system for many years, is chiefly remembered for her private school, the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution founded in 1887 and operated until 1927. The College was chartered and incorporated in 1894.

Miss Whitaker and Ben Hanley are deceased, but Miss Meyer and Miss Tharp, though retired from the public schools, continue to be active in the affairs of the New Orleans Little Theater movement, as well as in social and civic clubs of various kinds. Miss Meyer at present is
president of Le Petite Théâtre, and Miss Tharp still directs plays and performs in them, or gives book reviews or readings.

Miss Lily Candida Whitaker. Since Miss Whitaker is first in point of time, and perhaps in influence on the speech education of thousands of persons for at least a half century in New Orleans, she will be considered first in this review of personalities. In perspective, it is not difficult to judge that Miss Whitaker affected the lives of many persons. There is abundant testimony from men and women who knew her and admired her. Indeed, Miss Whitaker became the subject of a 654-page Doctor's dissertation by Sister Mary Joanna Rizzo, a Dominican nun in New Orleans, at the University of Wisconsin in 1954. Sister Mary Joanna has gathered together testimonials from literally hundreds of persons who knew Miss Whitaker. She has also made an analysis of Miss Whitaker's only published textbook, Spoken Thought, and has reviewed the work done in the private school.

The unanimous agreement among the informants on Miss Whitaker's undoubtedly remarkable personal qualities, as opposed to the evidence of her printed text and of the catalogues of her school as shown by Sister Joanna, make it difficult to arrive at an objective evaluation of her work. In an appendix to this present study is a review of Spoken Thought made for the Quarterly Journal of Speech by Hoyt H. Hudson of

1Sr. Mary Joanna Rizzo, O. P., "Lily C. Whitaker: Founder of the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution," (Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1954). This study is the basis for the following account of Miss Whitaker's School.

Princeton University in 1928. It is not as complimentary to Miss Whitaker as is the testimony of her pupils and friends. Hudson points out a number of errors in the book and labels Miss Whitaker as belonging to the mystical school. He deprecates the fact that the work of such great teachers as Hiram Corson and S. S. Curry, who may have had some mystic content, has been distorted and badly misinterpreted by persons who professed to follow them. "Something has happened to the doctrine of these great men if books like this one can appear in the same tradition," said Hudson.

If, then, the power of Lily Whitaker is not in her textbook, which was actually published after her school had closed, where was her power? Perhaps the brief discussion which follows may show something of the answer. Lily Whitaker was educated at home by her father and mother, both prominent and literary-minded citizens, until she went to St. Simeon's School, conducted by the Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul. She received her first Holy Communion in 1866. Elocution, belles lettres and composition were her favorite subjects. She studied art in Italy and toured England, Ireland and Scotland after graduation from St. Simeon's. She also visited schools in many parts of the United States (p. 23). Her teaching career began at St. Theresa's Parochial School in 1872. She came to teach in the New Orleans public schools in 1874, according to Sister Joanna, and was appointed principal of McDonogh No. 9 in 1890. She remained in this position for 33 years (p. 29). In 1882, Miss Whitaker went to teach at St. Simeon's School

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3 Sr. Joanna, p. 22.
as professor of elocution. What her training was up to this time can only be imagined, because St. Simeon's no longer exists. However, Sister Joanna reports that Miss Lily Whitaker went to study with S. S. Curry for sixteen weeks in 1896-1897, and apparently also attended the American Academy of Dramatic Art of Franklin H. Sargent (p. 24). Some of the material in her book as well as some of the procedure in her school as described by Sister Joanna and others seem to show these influences.

The Whitaker School. Both Curry and Sargent had been students at the Boston School of Oratory of Boston University, of which Lewis B. Monroe was the founder and dean. Thus, practically all the public school speech education in New Orleans for about fifty years came under the influence, in diluted and disintegrating form, of these men, because many of Miss Whitaker's pupils became teachers in the public schools of New Orleans. The directory of the public schools of New Orleans still lists teachers who hold the degree of Bachelor of Oratory from Miss Whitaker's New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution.

A possible example of the Curry influence may be seen in the aims of the College of Oratory and Elocution in the school's first printed catalogue, 1898-1899:

The general aim of the College of Oratory is development, physical, mental, moral. The special object is the training of students in the art of Expression through the spoken word; to overcome artificiality and mannerisms by self-knowledge and self-mastery; to

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cultivate individuality and creative thinking as opposed to imitation and fixed systems.

Comparison of this set of aims with those cited earlier from Curry's *Little Classics for Oral English* shows a marked similarity. The influence of Curry may be seen again in the catalogue's explanation of how the work was to be carried out:

Practical vocal and pantomimic training are specialties and every effort is made to develop unit, harmony and vigor. The study of nature is an important factor in the work, and spontaneity, simplicity, freedom, earnestness and imagination are made the outgrowth of a knowledge and love of its many phases.5

A similar wording appears in the 1888 edition of *Classics for Vocal Expression* on pages v and vi of the Prefatory Note. In her book *Spoken Thought*, Miss Whitaker acknowledges "indebtedness to Dr. S. S. Curry, Delsarte, Bell, C. E. W. Griffith and many others." The Griffith mentioned here is a Shakespearian reader who came under the management of Beverly C. Brown, a pupil of Miss Whitaker, who now is active in radio in New Orleans.

If the teachers in Miss Whitaker's school followed the prescription laid down for them in terms of subject and division of labor, they had the most rigid system imaginable. The discussion of the work carried out in the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution, which follows, is taken, for the most part, from Sister Joanna's thesis. This shows that the school was divided into three departments; Elocution, Oratory and Post Graduate. Pupils of all ages were admitted to the Elocution Department, and classified according to their needs and abilities. The course

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5Sister Joanna, pp. 42-43.
extended from three to five years at first, but later it was made a
five-year program (p. 43).

Early teachers of the Whitaker school where Miss Ida Whitaker,
Vocal Expression and Criticism; Aline Troyer, Elemental Training and
Rendering (a term for reading used by Monroe, but probably abandoned by
Curry); L. A. Paddon; Music; Olivia Lynne; Elocution and Dramatic Work;
Edith Morales; Impersonation; Maud O. Watson, Elocution and Literature;
Edward O. Parsons, Greek and Literature.

There were changes in personnel and nomenclature from time to
time, but the subject matter was much the same. The terms Physical
Culture, Interpretation of the Drama and Dancing were introduced in 1917,
and Psychology was added in 1923 (pp. 63-65).

Subjects covered, in no apparent justifiable sequence, (pp. 46-50)
were chopped up into ten, fifteen, twenty, and thirty-minute periods.
Spread out over the entire program and arranged by years, instruction
covered a multitude of subjects, with little regard for particular
sequence, including the following:

Vocal and physical training  Training the organs of speech
Training of the ear  Pantomime
Memory  Nature study
Conversation  Recitations
Reading  Exercises in articulation, pronunciation, and modulation
Etiquette  Quotations from best authors
Exercises in the elements of gesture  Biographies
Class criticisms  Care of the voice
Composition and study of figures of Mythology speech
Naturalness, simplicity, individuality
Laws of health
Study of synonyms
Exercises in ease, poise and grace
History of Greece and Rome
Correlation of the arts
Story-telling
Oral English

(all of these are spread out over the entire program by years)

While Lily C. Whitaker never held a baccalaureate degree of her own, in her school certificates in elocution were issued after five years of instruction, and "regular" diplomas were issued in the Oratory Department after three years. Final examinations and a thesis were required (p. 44). The degree of Bachelor of Oratory was conferred after two years in the Normal Course and an additional year in the Speaker's Course. Still another diploma, an Artistic diploma, was awarded to those graduates who had distinguished themselves in oratory, dramatic work, and literature. Evidence of this type of distinction is abundantly provided in Sister Joanna's citations of recitals, contests and exhibitions.

Reminiscent of a practice of women's colleges in the South before the Civil War, summer work was required of everyone enrolled in the Teacher's Course. Typical of this type of instruction is the Syllabus of a Course of Vacation Reading provided for the students at South
Carolina Female Collegiate Institution in 1836 and cited in *A Documentary History of the South*, published at Chapel Hill and edited by Edgar W. Knight. In this syllabus there are instructions regarding division of time, taking notes, arrangement, reading and composition, history, evidences of Christianity and language.

Miss Whitaker's summer work was outlined in twelve parts each for the first year and second year trainees (pp. 58-60). First year teachers were given outlines to follow similar to the one cited below:

I. History of the superstitions of the World.

II. History of France, Germany, Spain.

III. History of Education.

IV. Outline of contemporary literature (through 17th century).

V. Study of Rhetoric and Criticism.

VI. Make a program for teaching:

   (1) Oral reading.
   (2) Silent reading.

VII. Write a thesis on one of the following:

Vocal expression, art, oratory, argumentation and debate, discipline, literature of a nation, music.

VIII. Summer reading from Belloc, Bulwer, Marion Crawford, Shakespeare, Wilder, Lady Gregory, Carlyle, Ruskin, Thackeray.

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IX. Prepare a scene from some modern standard novel for presentation in October

X. Practice daily 20 to 30 minutes exercises for breath control and tone production.

XI. Memorize *Recessional* by Kipling.

XII. Keep written notes.

(These are taken from the unpublished *The Teaching of Thought*.)

Second year teachers also were provided an outline by which to prepare over the summer vacation. Their outline was much the same:

I. Study of satire in ancient and modern living.

II. The world's greatest actors and orators.

(References - William Winters
S. T. Coleridge
Spark's History of American Oratory)

III. Read some good articles on the handling of defective children.

IV. Outline of Contemporary literature from 17th century to present.

V. Compare ancient and modern classics.

VI. Make outline of the great satirists.

VII. Study of Logic.

VIII. Make a program on one of the following:

   Lyric program, dramatic program, classic special holiday

IX. Write a thesis on one of the following:

   Educational attitudes, school systems, discipline, vocational guidance, aims of education, character building, manners and morals, personality, co-operation, the elective system in schools.
X. Summer Reading. (from)


XI. Memorize The Man With the Hoe by Edwin Markham.

XII. Practice daily 20 to 30 minutes, exercises on breath control and tone production.

XIII. Keep notebook.

The New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution grew and prospered. During the 1914-15 session, the school board recognized credit from this school for eligibility as a teacher in departmental English and reading. The state also gave credit in speech for work done in this school.

Personal Testimony of Former Pupils. It seems difficult to reconcile the written evidence with the personal testimony of Miss Whitaker's former pupils. For the purpose of this paper, a few citations from former students in the school should suffice to show the dynamic personal power of the founders. In a Foreword to Sister Joanna's thesis, John S. Kendall, New Orleans historian and author, wrote: (in part)

Miss Lily C. Whitaker, founder and long-time president of the New Orleans School of Oratory and Elocution, was a very forceful and dynamic figure in the culture of this city.

For many years she was active in the public schools of New Orleans and left there a very definite impression, as a highly trained and enthusiastic teachers. Her interest in speech was probably an outgrowth of her experience in the public schools, where the need for that sort of thing was, in her time, and to some degree today, very much in evidence.

Through the School of Oratory she was able to exercise not only a salutary influence upon several generations of students, in the direction of improving the spoken expression of their thought, but her large acquaintance
with the best in the world's literature enabled
her to introduce them to the masterpieces of the great
writers of the world. It is perhaps not going too
far to say that the stimulating effect of her ac-
tivities in these directions is still felt in the
city where she lived and labored, surviving down to
our present day in the work of her disciples and in
the minds and hearts of the students of those dis-
ciples.

One of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Whitakers is Miss
E. Virginia Camp, a teacher of speech at Fortier High School, who holds
a B. A. from Tulane University and a B. O. degree from the New Orleans
College of Oratory and Elocution. In a letter dated March 27, 1955
Miss Camp wrote:

I received my Bachelor of Oratory from the New Orleans
College of Oratory, a most unusual school of speech,
which had been chartered by Miss Lily C. Whitaker.
I say UNUSUAL because its course of study which in-
cluded not only the regular work but a stiff summer
course to be done by the students and handed in upon
their return to class in the fall, was really more
advanced than any course in reading, literature, and
the arts in any high school curriculum or third year
college work I have ever met or seen.

The work at large was not only educational and in-
formative, but was cultural and spiritual. I would
like to add, also, that I went to the School of
Speech 3 years and received a Diploma. Then I went
2 more years to study for the Teacher's Course. The
3 years were an absolute requisite before one was
allowed in the Graduate Course. Upon completion of
the 5 years I received both my Teacher's Certificate
and my degree.

Miss Camp answered the question, "Who were the outstanding
teachers or influences on speech education in the public schools? Why
do you think so?" She declared:

I think the greatest teachers were first the Misses
Lily and Ida Whitaker. Miss Lily because she estab-
lished Speech . . . good speech and its educational
and cultural value and effect . . . and an institution in New Orleans. In its day her college had far reaching effects, and left its mark on the city and its citizens. The older generation of today were her pupils, and everybody who was anybody, so to say, went to her school. Many outstanding doctors, lawyers, judges yet living were her students. She had the most astounding and lasting influence on people! She was a remarkable woman in that she moulded character, thought, action . . . the human being himself, into something that was fine and worthy. She was revered, beloved, admired.

Her sister, Miss Ida, remained in the background, but she was the guiding power behind the throne.

As a teacher in the New Orleans public schools she trained her pupils to love "Expression," and the beautiful in thought and literature were ever a part of her work. Friday afternoons she devoted to programs when children recited and acted, and under her guidance learned to say what they had to say with feeling and spontaneity. But when she was in the grammar schools it was customary to have room programs on the week-end. Perhaps Miss Ida's own association with the College of Oratory gave her that extra touch of understanding and competency which enabled her to demonstrate to us the right way; and, in turn, get the excellent responses she did.

In response to the question, "was the degree recognized by the school board?" Miss Camp said:

The degree was not recognized by the board immediately, as I recall, but it did have great value, for teachers got into the Speech Department on Miss Whitaker's Diplomas, and the board did know the merit of her work for Mr. Bauer was himself . . . or, had been, I should say . . . one of Miss Whitaker's most outstanding pupils.

However, it must be recalled that it is only within recent years that great stress has been placed on having degrees. There is this to be recorded, howbeit, that the value of Miss Whitaker's work was recognized when the schools were departmentalized. Holders of Miss Whitaker's diplomas were given recognition and placed in the English and reading departments.
Miss Camp responded to the question, "Has your training in pursuit of the B. O. degree been useful in your everyday teaching? How?" She replied:

The work I did in getting my Bachelor of Oratory has been invaluable, truly. To explain why, I must get somewhat personal.

In all my speech courses I have taught the fundamentals such as:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>Phrasing</th>
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<tr>
<td>Emphasis</td>
<td>How speech is produced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accent</td>
<td>Timing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatic Pause</td>
<td>Gesture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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And other elementary factors necessary to the production of good, correct, effective Speech, along with concentration on pronunciation, enunciation, and proper articulation. In both our extemporaneous and impromptu work... our discussions, arguments, monologues, dialogues... I have never forgot that these are the things I learned when I was taking Speech. I feel that with a knowledge of these factors that go into Speech... everyday speech... the children not only have a better understanding of our work, but the fact that they are constantly in use even when we least realize it... is all the more reason why the Speech classes ought to know about them and then use them as effectively as they can. And they don't have to be stuffy and dragged in. I find that the students are amazed to learn that there is so much that is delightful and wonderful in just being able to speak.

Miss Camp further commented:

I only wish I had a sample Whitaker lesson to show you. They were dillies. We spent hours and hours doing research or study work to prepare each assignment. And... we had to keep notebooks which were collected and graded. Were those notebooks volumes of information!!! In other words, we were building up a background of information and culture, because according to Miss Lily the best speakers had to be well informed as well as excellently trained. And we studied, too. We felt it a disgrace to go to class unprepared.
Long before I attended Miss Lily's school, however, I was a regular attendant at her recitals. In fact, I practically grew up knowing her work and her recitals through Miss Ida.

I would like to say that I knew Miss Lily very intimately after I graduated, for it was then Miss Ida sent for me and said that . . . may I blush?? . . . she and Miss Lily had selected me to work on the book Miss Lily was writing, if I would. And I did. We were on her second, or Teacher's Manual when she died, and we had hoped to compile her poems and get them ready for publication, but that did not come. I went to New York with her when her book was under publication and had the most delightful times with her and her publisher.

More testimony along the same line was submitted by Miss Mabel Fatjo, who taught speech in the public schools for several years, and Miss Marie J. Shroder, both holders of Bachelor of Oratory degrees from the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution. Miss Fatjo in addition holds a Ph.B., and Miss Shroder holds the B. A. and the M. A. degrees.

Miss Fatjo wrote that she received her B. O. degree in 1935 (eight years after the school closed, if her date is correct) and Miss Shroder in the late twenties. Both were replying to letters sent to them on March 21, 1955.

These teachers testify that the degree was recognized by the School Board, and Miss Shroder further indicates that Tulane University recognized some of her credits toward the B. A. degree. In a brief statement of evaluation Miss Shroder emphasizes that because of her study with Miss Whitaker, she is always speech conscious, and she points out that the College of Oratory course included cultural research as well as speech theory. Miss Fatjo declares that Miss Whitaker was the pioneer of Speech in Louisiana. "Miss Whitaker's influence was really pertinent,
influential, instructive and invaluable in speech work," she declares, "Her book was used as a textbook in the New York schools about 1929."

To zealots of faith there is little reason to point out that other faiths exist. The testimony of these teachers could be duplicated by others, whom they have suggested. For example, Edward O. Parsons, an author of note, a prominent attorney and member of the Louisiana Historical Society, who taught in the New Orleans College of Oratory, in a brief personal interview on May 23, 1955, spoke of Miss Whitaker's personal power and charm and declared she came close to being a genius. However, to continue would be repetitious and would serve no additional purpose. Since this is a developmental study rather than a character study, perhaps it will suffice to leave Miss Whitaker with her ardent supporters after turning attention briefly to another personality strongly influenced by her and now in private enterprise. This person is Beverly Brown, who is now in radio advertising and non-commercial radio education in New Orleans, and who is one of only three individuals to hold a B. A. degree from the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution.7

Beverly Brown's School. Brown has been conducting Hi-Lites and other radio programs for children for over 17 years. He claims 4000 children from 180 schools in the New Orleans area are participating. Many hundreds of these children are from the New Orleans public schools. He also conducts an ideal boy and girl contest and a radio theater in

7 Personal Interview, April 8, 1955.
which some public school children participate. He has testimonial letters
signed by Dr. Clarence Scheps, present president of the Orleans Parish
School Board, addressed to him as Dear Beverly.

Beverly C. Brown was born in New Orleans. His father was a
teacher of medicine at Tulane University, who held the rank of Professor
Emeritus when he died twelve years ago. Beverly has one sone, a Doctor
of Science from Massachusetts Institute of Technology, now directing an
RCA research laboratory in Newark, New Jersey. Beverly Brown's early
schooling was in the public schools and the Boys' High School. He attend-
ed the New Orleans College of Oratory in 1913-14. He was awarded a
B. A. degree by Miss Whitaker in 1916 after he had spent the 1914-15
season as manager of C. E. W. Griffith, a Shakespearian reader who had
a repertoire of thirty-six plays, cut to read in about an hour each.
Griffith read to high schools and performed at Tulane University. Brown
taught for two years at Van Horn, Iowa, as principal teacher, and at
Burt, Iowa, as principal. During the first World War, he taught English
at Gulf Coast Military Academy.

In 1921 he went to Albany, Georgia, where he founded the
Griffith Association of Dramatic Art and Readers' Club, which he was
given permission to advertise as a branch of the New Orleans College of
Oratory.

Classes were held once a week in five departments as shown in
his printed announcement for 1923:

I. THREE YEAR GENERAL DIPLOMA COURSE

For those of High School Age and Older. Reading,
Story Telling, Oratory, Dramatic Art, Debating, Public
Speaking, Harmonious Poise, Breath Control, attention to Defective Speech, Gymnastics, etc. Freshmen and Sophomore High School Students are urged to matriculate, thus putting themselves in line for graduation contemporary with the completion of High School work. Students who are this year members of the Junior Class can complete the course in two terms by taking two summer courses. Senior Class Students taking the work, will be given advanced standing at other colleges, should they not be in position to continue the course here. Class, one night weekly. Dues $3.00 monthly.

II. TWO YEAR POST GRADUATE TEACHER'S COURSE, GRANTING DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF ORATORY.

Prerequisite-Course I or its equivalent. An enlargement of Course I, but applied to the principles of Pedagogy and Psychology. Practice teaching. Class one night weekly. Dues $5.00 monthly.

III. COURSE FOR CHILDREN.

Any child of School Age eligible. Special stress on Breath Control, Correction of Speech Defects, Gesture, Bodily Grace, and Reading. To meet one afternoon weekly. Dues $3.00 monthly.

IV. Y.M.C.A. CLASS IN PRACTICAL AND PUBLIC SPEAKING.

Open to men and women and to boys and girls of riper years. A practical course of sixteen weeks, meeting one night weekly. The object is to train the student to speak "upon his feet" free from nervous repression—clearly, forcefully and effectively. Particulars and terms given upon application. Address either Y.M.C.A. or Director Brown.

V. LYCEUM BUREAU DEPARTMENT.

Civic Clubs, Womens' Clubs, Church Auxiliaries, Parent-Teacher Associations, etc. have always found it profitable to resort to an entertainment when funds are low. Last year Mr. Brown directed the libretto part of "The Mikado", one of Albany's artistic triumphs, for the Kiwanians and Rotarians. Under the auspices of the Lions' Club, Director Brown presented eight acts of Vaudeville that would have done credit to Keith's circuit. Last Christmas he successfully produced a spectacular pageant with a cast of two
the corwning success of the year came with the High School Senior Class play "The New Co-ED" (sic) which Mr. Brown also directed, and which was pronounced nothing short of professional.

The Association is now better prepared than ever to furnish talent for any form of entertainment, be it Minstrel Show, Musical Comedy, Operetta, Drama, Vaudeville, Shakespearean Play, Pageant or personal entertainer. All organizations are urged to take advantage of this department. See tentative list of entertainments on next page. Leave the entertainment management to Director Brown. Reasonable terms.*

Describing Miss Whitaker's method, which Brown said he also employed, he declared:

Her lessons consisted of ten questions for every lesson. We had the story of all mythology, ancient history, poets, authors of novels, cultural knowledge, biography. The students got up to answer the questions. There were monthly recitals at the old Soule building. We got up scenes and rehearsed for the recitals after Miss Whitaker approved the scenes. For years the senior class put on a show at the Tulane University. Everybody played a hero or heroine part. The play was written to accommodate the class, and for each act there was a different hero. Eleanor Schalona, now Mrs. Pio Waty, wrote the plays.

Before leaving Miss Whitaker, it should be noted that at one period in her work she had the considerable help of Dr. Alfred J. Bonomo, educational director of Radio Station WWL, who was Jesuit trained, and who taught at Loyola University for 23 years. Dr. Bonomo staged plays for Miss Whitaker at the Mechelen Building on Canal Street.8

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8Personal Interview, October, 1954.
Miss Jessie Tharp. So far as the public school system was concerned, actual recognition of speech as an academic subject came with the appointment of Miss Jessie Tharp to McDonogh High School No. 1 for boys on October 9, 1908. Miss Tharp was assigned to teach Expression, which was compulsory for two periods a week in the first year. When the Board adopted a new set of rules on August 13, 1909, there was included for the first time a reference to special teachers of Expression, who were required to "devote their entire time to the instruction of pupils assigned them by the principals of their respective schools."9

Miss Tharp came into the system with eight years teaching experience gained in private French schools which were common in New Orleans. Her early training was at the Home Institute of Sophie B. Wright and at the private elocution school of Mrs. Annie Rankin Shields.10 The first summer she was appointed to the public schools, Miss Tharp went to Boston, where she received a certificate from Curry for his summer course. The next year she went to Harvard where she came in contact with George Pierce Baker and studied with Irvah Lester Winter, whose textbook, Public Speaking, Principles and Practices, copyrighted in 1912, became a much-used reference work in the New Orleans school.11

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10 Personal Interview, May 16, 1955.

Miss Tharp remained in the Boys High School for 20 years. She was then transferred to Sophie B. Wright High School for girls where she remained until she retired. She continued her own self-improvement by keeping in touch with Curry, as well as by attending summer classes at Columbia, California, and in European drama tours. She studied at the American Academy of Dramatic Art and at the Theater Arts School in New York and took part in plays for the Theater Guild. She was a member of the National Association of teachers of Speech, and she says that one year she performed for the association _Das Hexiles_ with music.

Speaking of her early experiences, Miss Tharp said her freshmen classes were devoted to diction, word illumination and readings from the classics and from speeches. It was never a chore, she said, and there was no discipline problem, except for one instance with Louis Knopp, now civil sheriff of New Orleans! The second and third year work was concerned with public speaking, argumentation and dramatics. There was a considerable amount of extra-curricular activity. For her first class play in 1909, Miss Tharp chose _Dr. Faustus_. For this play she had the professional help of director San Remo Socola. The next year she played _Richelieu_. Then followed _Henry IV_ and _The Revizor_. To stage these plays the school board provided $500 for rental of the Tulane Theater and other expenses. One year she did _The Student Prince_. One of her best players, Miss Tharp recalls, is General Joseph Collins. "Collins was happy on the platform," she said. In addition to class plays and graduation programs, the boys conducted programs of reading and dramatic scenes every month. Miss Tharp recalls cutting _The Melting_
Pot, Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch and some of Shakespeare's plays.

Members of the school board always sat on the front row at these exercises. For the Christmas play, girls from the girls' high school were recruited to play the women's roles.

Records of the school board contain many references to Miss Tharp's work. On January 14, 1910, the committee on secondary education recommended:

In accordance with the provisions of Article VIII, Section 19, of the Rules and Regulations concerning salaries of special teachers that Miss Jessie Tharp, teacher of Expression at High School No. 1, be paid $100 per month. That Miss Edwina Hurlbut, teacher of Expression at High School No. 3, be paid $75 a month and that Miss Zillah M. Meyer, be appointed to High School No. 1 as a teacher of Expression at a salary of $80 per month.12

That year also, the board appropriated $150 for the class play of High School No. 1.13 Perhaps two more citations may be sufficient to give the high regard the board had for Miss Tharp's work. On May 11, 1916, Superintendent Gwinn made the following recommendation to the board:

I recommend that the graduating exercises of the Esplanade High School be held on the night of June 6th, S. B. Wright High School on the night of June 8th and Warren Easton High School on the night of June 7th, and the Normal School on the morning of June 9th. I further recommend that the Warren Easton School be permitted to hold its graduating exercises in the Tulane Theatre (which is to be provided without additional expense to the board) and that the Class Play be made a part of these exercises.14

12Minutes, Vol. 20, p. 53.
13Ibid., p. 292.
Again on November 23, 1917, the board granted permission to Miss Tharp at Warren Easton to give three new one-act plays in the Assembly Hall of the Boys' High School building under the auspices of the Drama League of America. League members were to be admitted free, while others were to pay a nominal fee and the proceeds were to go to the Red Cross.

On the same day the board had a letter from F. W. Gregory, principal of Warren Easton, stating that "some of the pupils have prepared a little play for the evening of Saturday, December 15, for the benefit of the enlisted men in the Navy with admission fee of 25 cents; they also request permission to present said play to the school on the previous Friday in the afternoon to pupils at an admission fee of five cents."

The request was granted, provided that no admission fee was charged, and that the manuscript of the play was submitted to the superintendent for his approval. 15

This discussion probably can be terminated with the appraisal that Miss Tharp was not only a pioneer in the transitional period of speech education in New Orleans, but that she remains today an important influence, since it was she who set the pattern for speech activities in the public high schools of New Orleans.

Miss Zillah Mendes Meyer. Another teacher who had an early influence on speech education in New Orleans during the transitional period was Miss Zillah Mendes Meyer. Miss Meyer taught speech and an

occasional course in English from 1911, to 1951, in three public high schools. Although her chief interests were oral interpretation and dramatics, she also taught diction and delivery to the debaters. In addition, she taught for about ten years in the Tulane University Summer School, with college credit being given for her course in oral interpretation.\textsuperscript{16}

Miss Meyer began her teaching career at the Boys' High School, where she worked with Miss Tharp for about four years before going to the McDonogh High School for girls to teach there for fifteen years until the McMain High School for girls was opened. She remained at McMain until she retired. Her early training was with Miss Whitaker, with whom she studied for eight years at the New Orleans College of Oratory and Elocution at the Continental Square Headquarters on Canal Street. Her Bachelor of Oratory degree was "recognized" by the school board after some delay. In addition she studied at Curry's school one summer and another summer at Columbia University. She later took some English courses at Tulane University, and some private lessons.

Recalling instruction at the New Orleans College of Oratory, Miss Meyer remembers that the students kept elaborate notebooks. They studied the plays of Shakespeare and others and concentrated on the English poets and novelists. There were lessons in mythology, moral philosophy, history and literature; Greek and Roman oratory were also a part of the study, Miss Meyer said.

\textsuperscript{16}Personal Interview, September, 1954.
Almost from the start she directed class plays twice a year, and produced numerous holiday and special assembly activities. The repertoire included burlesque, minstrel and operetta programs. She found time to direct plays at Newcomb College and do a burlesqued version there of Captain Jinks of the Horse Marines with painted furniture and scenery decorated with angels. She has read for women's clubs. She directed The Dybbuk for the Menorah Institute, and she has produced Christmas plays for the Ursulines Convent. She was one of the organizers of Le Petit Théâtre du Vieux Carré in 1916, when it was called the Drawing Room Players by its founders, Mrs. Oscar Nixon and Mrs. Eberhard Deutsch. Today Miss Meyer is president of this organization.

Bernard T. Hanley. "Ben" Hanley applied for admission as a special teacher of Expression in August, 1915. Miss Zillah Meyer was called in to give him an examination, and he was admitted as a teacher after an oral interview and four days of testing. On September 15, 1915, Superintendent Gwinn reported to the Board:

Principal F. W. Gregory reports that the number of boys electing Expression has so greatly increased that it is absolutely necessary to have the services of an additional teacher. Therefore, I recommend that Mr. Bernard T. Hanley, who has qualified under the rules, be appointed teacher of Expression in the Warren Easton High School, October 1, 1915, and in addition to regular duties, to perform office work until teaching program is full.

Hanley was assigned to Warren Easton from September, 1915, to the time of his death, January 28, 1952. His classes were immediately successful, and soon he and Miss Tharp were conducting a full-time program of speech education for more than a thousand boys. This work
was divided so that Miss Tharp was able to concentrate on Oral Interpretation and Dramatics, while Hanley was able to give considerable emphasis to debating as well as taking over the commencement exercises. In his 1916-17 annual report, Principal F. W. Gregory was able to say:

The debating society, composed of somewhat advanced pupils of this school, under the direction of Prof. Bernard T. Hanley, has been active during the present session, and has done a great deal of profitable work. Of course, the value of this kind of exercise is very great, and that many boys are profiting by it was shown by the excellent debates they gave in the assembly hall on several occasions.

The February class gave at the conclusion of their work a very enjoyable production of Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*. In spite of the difficulties of the play, and our poor stage facilities, the performance was excellent and merited great praise.

The June class had their commencement exercises and class play on the same night in the Tulane Theatre. A short patriotic play, *The Revielle*, by William G. Fulham was rendered with spirit, and was enjoyed by the large audience that filled the theatre from pit to dome. Mayor Behrman delivered an address to the graduates and President Capdau presented to them their diplomas.17

Again in his 1919-20 report, Principal Gregory was able to describe debate practices by members of the Easton Debating Society and a school-wide contest which ended in a "final public competitive debate on the evening of June 7, in our assembly hall."18 He was also able to report that the State Rally had been resumed and that Easton had won first

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place in debating and declamation and second place in dramatic interpretation.

The pattern of these reports, repeated each year, showed Hanley's rising power as a teacher and as an influence on public school speech education. On April 9, 1920, the School Board read into the minutes congratulations to all who were responsible for a pageant depicting two centuries of the history of New Orleans. The following account taken from the minutes will serve to demonstrate the scope of this program:

From every standpoint, the pageant was an unqualified success. The faithful reproduction of historic scenes, the training and skill displayed by the participants, the costuming and artistic color effects the grouping and management of such large numbers of children, the singing, the incidental music, the lighting, the scenic effects, the arrangement for the handling of the vast audience, were so uniformly excellent that the board desires to record its pleasure and to offer its earnest congratulations to all who participated in the pageant.  

Superintendent Gwinn in his annual report for 1919-1920 wrote glowingly of the pageant. He declared:

One of the most spectacular and successful features of the school work just closed was the pageant depicting the history of New Orleans from its foundation to the present day. Approximately six thousand public school children participated.

The pageant was presented at the Fair Grounds on the evening of April seventh and eighth and was, without a doubt, the most stupendous spectacle of its kind ever witnessed by the people of New Orleans within the confines of their city.

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The scenario for the pageant was written by Miss Carolyn Stier, Associate Teacher in McDonogh 16 School, and the prologue by Mr. August V. Dalche, Associate Teacher of the Warren Easton High School, both of this city. The pageant was presented in three parts, which parts were subdivided into seventeen episodes, as follows:

Part I

Episode 1 - The Coming of Bienville.
2 - The Coming of the Slaves.
3 - The Coming of the Ursulines and Jesuits.
4 - The Acadians
5 - Ulloa and the Revolutions of 1768.
6 - The Coming of O'Reilly - The Transfer to Spain.
7 - The Spirit of '76
8 - The Transfer to France.
9 - The Transfer to the United States.

Part II

Episode 1 - The Battle of New Orleans and The Triumphal Entry of Jackson.
2 - Sunday in Congo Square.
3 - The Lost Cause.

Part III

Episode 1 - The Dance of the Products.
2 - Mardi Gras in New Orleans.
3 - Procession of Benefactors.
4 - The Spirit of 1914-18.

The Committee in charge of the pageant was composed of the following: Ben Hanley, Director, Teacher of Expression, Warren Easton High School; Ellen W. Gardner, Principal Jackson School; Mary V. Lancaster, Principal McDonogh 11; Mary W. Conway, Supervisor of Music and Ida Barrow, Supervisor of Drawing, all of the Public School System.

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audiences were uniformly excellent and reflected credit upon all concerned in the presentation. Some scenes from the pageant are represented in pictures printed in this volume.

An admission fee was charged and the proceeds from the pageant, amounting to Five Thousand ($5000.00) were donated to the Board to further the education advantages offered to the blind, deaf, and defective children.

Hanley had been a pupil of Miss Whitaker. Miss Tharp testifies also that he attended a summer session of Curry's school and that he attended the American Academy of Dramatic Arts as well as several summer sessions at Columbia University and others. There is no record, however, of his having received credit for any of these summer classes. He did some professional radio work in New York during several summers, and the last two summers before he died, Hanley spent in Mexico City. The school board records show only that Hanley received elementary and high school education at the school of the St. Joseph's Christian Brothers and that he spent two years at St. Mary's in Perryville, Missouri. The file on Hanley shows that a Bachelor of Speech degree was awarded to him by the New Orleans College and Conservatory of Speech and Music in 1937, and that the Board "recognized" the degree. Inquiry revealed that the school mentioned must be the New Orleans Conservatory of Music and Dramatic Art, which had been founded by Dr. Ernest E. Schuyten in 1919, with Miss Mary Scott. A telephone call to Dr. Schuyten confirmed that it was he who had awarded Hanley the degree. He said Hanley had been a teacher in his private school and that he recognized work Hanley had done with Miss

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20 New Orleans Item, November 9, 1952.
Whitaker and in the public schools, and that Hanley had earned credits in
the New Orleans Conservatory of Music and Dramatic Art earlier, but had
not claimed his degree until "he needed it" in 1937. It was in that
year that a new salary scale which took into account degrees as well as
experience was adopted.

Dr. Schuyten said he still operates his private school, but it
is now a preparatory school. "I don't give degrees any more," he added.
Schuyten's Conservatory of Music became affiliated with Loyola University
in 1932, and for several years he served as dean. He is a graduate of
Conservatoire Royal of Brussels.

In another telephone conversation on the same day, Theo. O.
Hotard, a former school board member, said, "Hanley must have earned the
credits or we would never have recognized the degree."23

For the most part, Hanley was self-taught. He had a number of
Werner's Magazine; he subscribed to The Quarterly Journal of Speech and
received numerous theater magazines. In addition he managed to acquire
through his own friends or through the school library a good many books
in the field of speech. He seemed to choose indiscriminately from Curry
to Grenville Kleiser to John R. Scott to Daniel Jones, Marjorie Gullan,
Maud May Babcock and Gray and Wise. These books were on his bookshelves
at Warren Easton School when Hanley died in 1952. A few of them were

21 Telephone Interview, June 3, 1955.
22 Ibid.
23 Telephone Interview, June 3, 1955.
packed and sent to the public school warehouse when the school was renovated in the Spring of 1952, and the others were taken by his business partner, Peter Siren.

Hanley not only taught in the public school system, he also established a private school, the New Orleans School of Speech and Dramatic Art, which by the early 1920's was organized along almost the identical lines of the Whitaker School, and which issued diplomas and teacher's certificates. One of Hanley's pupils, Mrs. Dorothy King Peppard, now a teacher of speech at Warren Easton High School and a former aid to Hanley in his private school, explains that his school was divided into three areas of instruction. There was an active children's department for youngsters from ages five to fifteen, who were put into classified groups, and who sometimes served as the laboratory material for adults studying in the Normal Division of the school. A middle group, composed of young adults, was given instruction for three years and granted a diploma after that period. The course for a teacher's certificate was five years. In this group, the students directed plays and taught under Hanley's supervision. The pattern remained the same until the school was closed in 1941.24

Mrs. Peppard holds the B.A. and M.A. degrees from Tulane University. She also attended the New Orleans Normal School, but to be certain that she would be considered qualified to teach speech in the public schools, she had her credits from Hanley's school added to her state

24Personal Interview, April, 1955.
certificate. About 1934, when these credits were accepted by the New Orleans school system, she was appointed to teach speech. Her early teaching career was given over to instruction in the fundamentals as she learned them from Hanley. In a personal interview in April 1955, she was able to recall the names of several persons who attended the Hanley private school and are now teaching in the New Orleans public schools. Among them she listed Miss Alma Caldwell, Miss Edna May Strobel, Miss Agatha Walsh, Miss Lorretta Burke, John Monie and Gustave Devron. She named several others who are teaching elsewhere: Sister Mary Joanna Rizzo, who holds the Ph.D. degree in speech from the University of Wisconsin, and teaches at Dominican College in New Orleans. Mrs. Peppard recalls that Sister Mary Joanna took that name as a result of having played in the Cradle Song in Hanley's school. Miss Imogene Barrett is a teacher in Jefferson Parish and Mrs. Matilda Nungesser conducts a private school. Mrs. Peppard also mentioned District Attorney Leon Hubert; Sherwood Clayton, a New Orleans minister; Miss Janet Riley, law librarian at Loyola; and Audley Keck and Pauline Mallitz, who went to Hollywood.

Another teacher who speaks well of Hanley is Miss Agatha Walsh, who in a personal letter dated April 9, 1955, reported:

I studied speech and helped in a teaching capacity at the New Orleans School of Speech and Dramatic Art with Mr. Ben Hanley. I received my three years' certificate in 1932 and my teacher's certificate in 1934. Previously I had studied with Mrs. Anna Rankin Shields.

When I submitted my credits that Mr. Hanley gave to me, to the State Board at Baton Rouge, they said that I had more than the requirements for a Bachelor of Oratory degree and qualified me to teach speech in the
high schools. However, New Orleans never recognized the credits for more pay, so I was surprised to see B. O. by name in the new directory.

I think that my training in speech work has been definitely useful in everyday teaching as well as in my everyday life, for Mr. Hanley's courses were lessons of leadership, good character formation, and many phases of the fine and liberal arts.

Miss Janet Mary Riley, law librarian and instructor in law at Loyola University, also was able to speak with confidence of Hanley's private school. She said in a personal interview in October, 1954, that she attended the New Orleans School of Speech and Dramatic Art for six years. She was enrolled in a class for high school students from September, 1928, to June, 1931, and from September 1931, to June, 1934, she was in the adult class from which she graduated. In addition to these classes Miss Riley said there was a children's class and a two-year normal school. She added that once a year on May Day they all got together on the Soule Business College grounds for a celebration. There were pageants, tableaus, and folk dances.

Miss Riley was able to explain how the school operated. She said the children met on Saturday; the high school group met on Friday at 4 p.m. and the Normal School group met on Thursday from 7 p.m. to 9 p.m. The adult group was divided. First year students met on Tuesday night and from seven to nine, second year adults met on Wednesday night and the senior class for adults met Thursday night. They were joined by the Normal School group, who stayed for an additional hour.

In his private school Hanley was constantly rehearsing and producing plays, Miss Riley recalled. She said he managed to hold a poetry reading contest once a year. There was little activity in
debating and oratory, she said. (This is somewhat in contrast to Hanley's work in the public school). Classes included the study of mythology, history and art. Aim of the school was to develop self-confidence, poise, voice, and diction for everyday life. Miss Riley pointed out that the "adjusted adult" was Hanley's aim. "He used speech and dramatic arts as the means to adjust to social life."

By what standards private schools of the type established by Lily Whitaker and Ben Hanley were judged to be competent to issue bachelor's degrees has never been made clear, but it is certain that the diplomas and degrees were granted, and that there was a certain amount of recognition of credits from these schools in qualifying for teachers' positions in New Orleans. Perhaps a look through the notebook of one of Hanley's Normal School graduates may be of some value in understanding speech education in the New Orleans public schools during the transitional period and even to the present time. Miss Edna May Strobel, teacher at McDonogh Senior High School, graciously supplied her scrapbook of materials which she acquired while attending the Normal Department of the New Orleans School of Speech and Dramatic Art in 1936-38.

Judging from the notes, the instruction followed a definite and almost invariable pattern. Each student received for every lesson a mimeographed assignment sheet containing a theoretical outline, a set of questions, recommended books for examination and the answers to the questions. Sometimes the theoretical principles were called Pedagogy and sometimes they were presented as Speech Teaching Techniques.
Sometimes there were forms for self-analysis. While it appears that the discussions on these lesson plans were lifted from various sources, there is nowhere any indication of credit being given for authorship. For example, in the very first lesson on the Normal class instruction sheet, dated October 8, 1936, the outline is lifted intact from Raubicheck's *Teaching in Secondary Schools*, pp. 22-24, and no reference of any kind is given.

The following copy of Lesson No. 1 is cited here, partly to show one phase of Hanley's method and partly to show how he used material, much of it excellent, but often without citations of any kind, and just as often, perhaps, without sustained sequence:*

LESSON NO. 1          NORMAL CLASS          Thurs. October 8, 1936

OUTLINE NORMAL COURSE

1. a. Class Management  
   b. Pedagogy - Voice, Diction, Oral Interpretation of Literature - Dramatic Interpretation - Rehearsal. Methods, Play Production  
   c. Plans  
   d. Ethics  
   e. Program Making  
   f. Practice Teaching  
   g. Review of Senior Year

2. Discuss the following headings under Requirements of the Teacher of Speech. -  
   (a) Knowledge  
   (b) Personality  
   (c) Special Aptitudes  
   (d) Training

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*Source for Hanley's teaching material are notes supplied by Miss Edna May Strobel.
3. **Requirements of the Teacher of Speech:**

**Minimum essentials of professional equipment:**

1. **Knowledge**
   
   A. A knowledge of the art, the science and the pathology of Speech.
   B. A working knowledge of adolescent psychology and the psychology of speech.
   C. A definite and well-defined philosophy of high-school education and the place of speech in it.
   D. A broad and general knowledge of English and American literature especially in the fields of drama, poetry, and oration.
   E. A knowledge of the history of the language.
   F. A rudimentary knowledge of at least one other language.
   G. A knowledge of, and an interest in, some or all of the other fine arts.
   H. Information upon important aspects of the cultural and economic life of the times, and a recognition of their bearing upon education.

2. **Personality**

   A. Understanding
   B. Common sense
   C. A sense of proportion
   D. A genuine enthusiasm
   E. An ability to invite confidence and to reassure the timid.
   F. Evident sincerity
   G. A clear understanding of the purpose and procedures of the work he directs.

3. **Special Aptitudes**

   A. A well modulated voice to serve both as a teacher vehicle and as a model for the students.
   B. Speech that is free from foreign, vulgar, local, or pedantic deviations from accepted usage.
   C. An ability to perform acceptable all of the speech arts and to excel in at least one of them.
   D. An acute discrimination between sounds of spoken language.
   E. An ability to diagnose symptoms of speech disorders and to ascribe them accurately to their causes.
4. **Training**

A. A broad cultural background which leaves as its lasting heritage an interest in and an understanding of fields of human knowledge outside the field of specialization.

B. A knowledge of educational theory and practice particularly as it applies to the teaching of secondary-school children.

C. A knowledge of educational psychology and of the application of its principles to speech education.

D. A thorough grounding in English phonetics, followed by a comparative study of other modern European languages.

E. Working knowledge of the vocal mechanism to insure and intelligent direction in voice and speech development and to facilitate diagnosis of voice and speech faults.

F. An understanding of the possible causes and of the accepted corrective procedures for the major speech work.

G. An understanding of the principles of all the speech arts, and their application.

NOTE:—

This outline seems to assume perfection and omniscience as the criteria for success in the teacher of speech. As such, it is likely to prove embarrassing to active members of the profession, but as a counsel of perfection it is a modest statement of minimum essentials.*

The second lesson, dated October 15, 1936, begins with a set of ten questions and gives answers to them. The questions show practically no relation to each other and do not seem to be centered around any special idea. They include:

1. Name seven good speech text-books.
2. What is considered the best teaching?
3. What is the test of good teaching?
4. What of the ability of the teacher?
5. What is a stage model?
6. What materials are needed for making models?
7. How should one go about making models?
8. What is generally realized by modern educators?
9. What is the essence of silent reading?
10. Name the two criteria (sic) for successful silent reading.

*This Note, appended to Lesson No. 1, is taken also from Raubicheck (p. 24).
In the answers given on the mimeographed page references to three Curry books, *Little Classics for Oral English*, *Spoken English* and *Foundations of Expression* are cited along with Woolbert's *Better Speech*, Craig's *Speech Arts* and Gough, Rousseau, Kramer and Reeves' *Effective Speech*.

There must have been some kind of continuity, but considering the questions asked and the excerpts from uncited sources, it is difficult to follow the lesson plan.

In going through the scrapbook for organization and possible sources, it is discovered that the material is presented under several headings such as General Speech Pedagogy, Play Production, Interpretation, and Speech and the High School Curriculum. Under General Speech Pedagogy are discussions on such matters as the "will" (in quotes) helping the pupil with material and the answers to questions like "what should be impressed upon the pupil in the interpretation of literature?" or "what is the popular standard of voice?" or again "what should be taught in diction?" One page gives a list of speech defects, and the discussion of these is handled on the same page. Another page suggests a course of study in dramatics which should include pantomimes, characterization with lines, study of scenes from plays, presentation of one-act plays, casting, choice of a play, model sets, costumes and make up.

Under the heading of Play Production there are sets of questions related to kinds of material for scenery and costumes, lighting effects, dyeing cloth, duties of the property man, terminologies, size of stage and others. Some of the discussions are strangely mixed. For example,
The discussions which seem to be taken from an uncited source or sources are included here to give the type of material used:

A. From the "Perikator" (sic) of the Greeks, through the Hell Mouth of the medieval stage, down to the thunder sheets of our own day, the mechanic has been the handy man of the stage workers. In the modern European theatres he has risen to the position of help, ate of the artists, as well as master in his own right. His chief tasks in this theatre have been to simplify the problems of changes of set, and of mechanicalizing the stage for artistic purposes. But the expert mechanic finds his work only on a large complex stage; in the non-professional theatre his work has been and is, like that of the property man, to do the bidding of the director or art director; to construct a moon, or purchase a thunderstorm; to find a sofa of a certain type or size, to devise a Russian samovar, or to produce something that will look like peat.

B. He should know the play and the mood of the play and should provide properties that are neutral but which are in character with the play, which enhance rather than detract from its mood; he should begin his search for properties several weeks before the time of the production and not on the day of the dress rehearsal; and he should never, on his own initiative decide that "something else will do just as well."

C. The romantic story of the actor has never been adequately told. There is no figure more picturesque, more illusive, more compact of the stuff of romance; no character so contradictory, so real when he is pretending, so artificial when he is posing as himself; no one who has suffered more keenly from the cruelty of those whom he has freely served, and who has received so slight and frumpery a reward for his services, no one who is more cold and distant, but who is not the less full of simple lovable qualities; he has the swagger of the egotist without his evil heart; the deviltry of the villain without his criminal nature. His voice, like those of the Jew, have been imposed upon through ostracism and pogrom. Without him drama would be a cold corpse in a rich sarcophagus; without him; the whole world would be poorer in gaiety, good will and imagination.
D. The actor represents the romance of the theatre. The majority of us do not feel that we can become playwrights, and only a few of us hear the call to become directors; but most of us feel that we can act and want to act. The acting instinct is the common property of mankind, and has been since the early days of recorded history. The appeal of the actor's art is strong, the glamour of the floodlights alluring, that applause of the crowd sweet to the ear. But before we decide whether or not we should obey our instinct, before we can know how far this story instinct for mimocry is prophetic of success as an actor, let us examine ourselves after the manner in which we examine the prospective director.

To begin his lessons in Interpretation, Hanley uses the analysis of Browning's "My Lost Duchess" made by Raubicheck in Teaching Speech in Secondary Schools. In answer to the question, what is the essence of silent reading, he copies again from Raubicheck: "The essence of silent reading is to provide a tool for seizing rapidly the general sense of a paragraph or a printed page and omitting any careful evaluation of the connotation of specific words" (pp. 83-84). On this particular lesson sheet Hanley also has copied Raubicheck's explanations of oral reading and of classroom procedure (pp. 84-85).

In still another lesson, he lifts the following paragraph from Curry: "As the leaf manifests the life at the root of the tree. As the bobolink's song is the outflow of a full heart; so all expression obeys the same law; it comes from within outward, from the centre to the surface, from the hidden source to outward manifestation. However deep may be the life, it reveals itself outwardly by natural signs."^27

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When C. M. Wise, G. W. Gray and C. L. Shaver came to Louisiana State University in the late 20's and early 1930's they were instrumental in having the State Department of Education publish a new series of *Courses of Study in Speech*. Hanley readily turned to them for references. One assignment made in the Normal Class on April 21, 1938, was to bring to class a copy of *Course of Study in Speech For Louisiana High Schools*, Bulletin 357, State Department of Education, released in October 1937. The instruction was:

Give an oral report of the Course of Study -
General Objectives and Subject Matter -
Speech Correction -
Adopted Textbooks -
Reference Books for Teachers and Students,-
pages 7 to 14.

It probably should be mentioned also that the Senior Class with whom the Normal students also met followed a definite pattern which allowed for considerable range of material, and which was reminiscent of the Whitaker method. A typical lesson began with a set of questions under the title *Leadership*. These were answered again by excerpts from unidentified reference sources. Then followed a list of books ranging from novels to essays, travel, adventure and science. There were more questions and answers under such terms as *Bodily Expression*, *Elements of Expression*, *Elements of Speech* and *Dramatic Interpretation*. The answers are lifted without credit from Curry and from Woolbert's *Fundamentals of Speech* (1920 Edition). Then follow drills in the use of verbs, important dates, and selections for reading.
For Woolbert's discussion of Posture, Movement, Gesture (Chapter V) Hanley substituted the term Bearing, but the material is identical. For example, on one of the mimeographed sheets there appears the following paragraph: "The first thing that observers are likely to notice about a speaker--after they have caught sight of his stature, his general dimensions, and probably his clothes--is his bearing, his carriage, the position, he assumes before them. Or, speaking more to the point, the first meaning that he carries to his hearers comes from his general position on the platform. This we call bearing." (In the Woolbert text, on page 108, the term used is posture.)

It must be pointed out here again that the techniques employed was designed to give instruction to persons who were employed full time by day. It was a pragmatic but useful device.

There is hardly any need here to labor the point that Hanley's material not only was not original; it was apparently generally lifted from whatever sources came to hand without citations or acknowledgements. There can be no doubt that he covered many phases of speech, from reading and dramatics to speech correction and phonetics, and there is abundant evidence and testimony to show a tremendous amount of activity and practical application on the platform in reading and dramatics. Therefore, while it cannot be said that he personally wrote or that he contributed anything beyond a strong personal drive and an inspiration to many persons, it cannot be denied that Hanley's private school had a profound effect upon content and method of instruction in speech in the New Orleans public schools. For better or worse, he taught hundreds of persons by his sometimes haphazard, but always inspirational methods.
That many became successful teachers and speakers also is a fact which cannot be denied. That Hanley's school continued to prosper for about a quarter of a century seems to be proof that a proper appraisal of its influence must consider the individual teacher in relation to the need he was satisfying.

**Other Personalities.** As has been pointed out, speech education not only has been emphasized in the public schools, it has been until recently a requirement for graduation. Another teacher who might be mentioned is Mrs. Maizie Guidry, who received a B.O. degree from Miss Whitaker, attended Hanley's school as well, and established the speech program in the commercial schools which were established before 1920. Eddie Schwind, another commercial school teacher, was of the same period. Then there was Mrs. Alice Cobb Lazarus, who taught at the McDonogh Girls' High School and conducted a private school as well. Before she died, Mrs. Lazarus had been made supervisor of English and speech work in the public school system. She has not been replaced. Miss Wilma Lilburn, for years a teacher and debate coach at Fortier High School, came into the system as a speech correctionist. As early as 1916, the Minutes of the School Board show Miss Rita Sbisa had been granted permission on May 25 to use the basement of Gentilly Terrace School for a recital of her elocution pupils. Miss Carolyn Stier, another Whitaker product, was also a teacher of private pupils. It will be recalled that she worked with Hanley and the others on the big school pageant in 1920. On January 6, 1916, the Board granted to Miss Stier permission to use the Kindergarten room of McDonogh 16 School on Saturdays for the
purpose of conducting a class in elocution.\textsuperscript{28}

The Phenomenon of the B.O. Degree. The strange phenomenon of private schools of elocution or speech centered around single leaders without baccalaureate degrees of their own, yet chartered to grant degrees, persisted in New Orleans for nearly half a century. There are still cited in the directory of teachers in the New Orleans public school system six teachers who, in addition to college degrees, also hold B.O. degrees from one or the other of the two private schools of speech, one of which flourished from 1894 to 1927 and even granted degrees after it was closed, and the other which flourished from about 1924 to 1941. In addition, during this period of transition there were other private schools which essayed to give credit to be applied to teachers' certificates as a means of securing positions or advancement in the New Orleans public schools.

It probably cannot be said that it was the bait of earning a degree which lured pupils to the two schools reviewed in this dissertation because, though the classes were at night and met only once a week, there was for the most part a considerable lapse of time between enrolling and graduating. There may be many explanations. It is probable, for example, that there was a genuine desire among the enrollees to acquire what they considered a cultural background. It should be remembered also that attending a college or university was not a universal practice during the first quarter of the century. New Orleans

\textsuperscript{28}Minutes, Vol. 22, p. 328.
is a provincial city in spite of its cosmopolitan background. It clings with stubbornness to the Old South while it embraces and absorbs the new standards of its expanding economy. It has a reputation for old world charm and display. Romanticism and mysticism remain, especially in cultural activities that would fit under the generic term of speech training. Individuals and characters like Lily Candida Whitaker and her disciples run repeatedly through the literature of the era.

There were other contributing factors that might help to explain the success of the private schools of elocution in New Orleans during the transition. Of course there were private schools all over the country, but New Orleans seemed to be especially receptive to the private schools of elocution. It might be noted again that the compulsory courses in Expression, the reading and language aims, the morning exercises, the Friday afternoon programs, the holiday and patriotic assemblies of the war years, the emphasis by the school administration on performance were evidence of a felt need which the private schools undertook to meet. Graduating exercises, held in such public places as the City Hall, the French Opera House, the Tulane Theater, the Masonic Temple and the Municipal Auditorium added to the importance of preparation for production work. In the schools where there were Expression teachers, the graduation followed a regular pattern, dictated by the school administration, of one guest speaker and two or more student speakers, trained by the teacher. The private schools were making available to the teachers instruction they felt a need for, and were at the same time giving credits which satisfied the school administrators.
Finally the phenomenon of the private school perhaps is explained by the fact that this was a transitional period when requirements for degrees and for certification to teach were being appraised, sorted, and crystalized. It should be said here too, that no such degrees, issued by private teachers of the class described here, would be acceptable for teacher certification today.
Backgrounds. A summary of Southern thought by Polk rather neatly sums up the local situation and easily applies to speech education in New Orleans. Polk wrote:

In general Southern thought has been more concrete than abstract, more pragmatic than speculative, more conservative than adventurous, more traditional than radical. It has been concerned more with pressing problems than with pure thought, more interested in government, economics, a code of conduct and a way of life than in philosophy, science, religion or art. In many ways, strange to say, it has been more realistic than idealistic, more practical than sentimental. Transcendentalism was a Northern, not a Southern phenomenon.¹

In this dissertation, an attempt was made to indicate how speech education in New Orleans in its beginnings was influenced by classical studies and by the need to teach manners and morals in a rough society. It was then related how speech education, aimed at civic virtue, adapted New England influences to the agrarian philosophy and plantation life of the period before the Civil War. Next was pointed out how war and the struggle for survival led to the transcendentalism of hopeful Northern idealist teachers and how the new immigration forced the educational system to give attention to language. An effort was made to show how economic and political recovery was reflected in a return to individualism and class democracy; and how this was the basis for speech education to satisfy romantic personal desires for culture during a transitional

period when individuals rather than institutions set the requirements.

By the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century, New Orleans, still clinging to a romantic past, had begun to feel new needs. The war years had served to strengthen speech education by emphasizing patriotic programs, group discussions and dramatizations for propaganda purposes. It might here be mentioned that in terms of general education, the essentialist educational theories of William C. Bagley and the psychological developmentalism of E. L. Thorndike had been added to the impression and expression principle of Pestalozzi by 1916,² and creative expression on the part of the child had become a major aim. Children were staying in school longer than in previous years because New Orleans had taken on an urban and commercial aspect. Industry was beginning to come to the city. The school system was seeking the means to combine education, industry and culture into a way of life.³ Speech education, always important in New Orleans, took on a new power in response to the emerging democratic aims of a community flexing its muscles and feeling strong.

Organization of the Public School System. A quick review of the organization of the schools and qualifications of teachers will serve

²The Course of Study, New Orleans Normal and Training School of 1915 shows textbooks used in educational psychology were Bagley and Colvin's Human Behavior and Thorndike's Principles of Teaching. Bagley's text, Class Room Management was also used.

³Superintendent Gwinn's annual report of 1917 showed that enrollment in the eighth grade had doubled from 1910 to 1917, while the attendance in the first grade remained static. In this same report, Gwinn suggested establishment of junior high schools, social centers, a commercial high school, a new Normal School and an industrial school for Negroes. (pp. 14-16).
here to help understand the speech program of the present day.

By 1927, a new Course of Study for the elementary schools had been released, followed in 1928 by a new Course of Study for the high schools. In 1930 a new book of Rules and Regulations followed which reflected the new philosophies and aims of the school system. Assistant Superintendent Nicholas Bauer, whom Virginia Camp credits with having been a pupil of Miss Whitaker, had been made superintendent in July, 1923. The schools now were organized into five classifications:

(a) Elementary Schools,
(b) High Schools,
(c) Normal Schools,
(d) Vocational Schools,
(e) Evening Schools.

The elementary schools were organized into Kindergarten and primary grades (1 to 4) and departmental grades (5 to 7). The high schools consisted of academic or commercial departments beyond the seventh grade. The Normal School was organized as a two-year school to train teachers for the Kindergarten and primary grades. In the evening schools, elementary as well as secondary subjects were taught. In 1940 an eighth grade was added in the elementary schools.

This remained essentially the organization of the New Orleans public schools until 1940, when the Normal School was abandoned because of a regulation of the State Board of Education that after September 1,

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1940, four years of college and professional training would be required for beginning teachers in the elementary schools of the state. If the new regulation operated to close the Normal School, it may also have been responsible for the subsequent waning influence of private instruction in speech as a means of acquiring a job in the public schools.

There was a temporary shift to the eight-four plan of organization at this time also, but in September, 1952, the Board made a radical change in the organization of the elementary schools to the K-6-3-3 plan which provides for Kindergarten and six grades in the elementary schools, three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school. It may also be pointed out that the commercial high schools have been abandoned, and that all high schools now offer academic as well as commercial subjects and shop work.

Certification of Teachers. Selection and certification of teachers in New Orleans and in the state have for years depended in some measure on speech education. Minutes of the School Board show that a great deal of thought was given, in the selection of teachers, to their speech education. In 1920, the Board set up a plan for giving an oral examination to applicants, "which should include a rating to the applicant's use of English in general and fitness to teach." This examination was in addition to written examinations and other requirements. The plan, though modified, has never been abandoned. Speech training is today one definite requirement for certification of elementary teachers by the

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5Minutes, Vol. 24, p. 141.
Legislature and by the Board of Education. In addition, teachers of speech are required to have a specified minimum of credits in speech. In 1940 State Superintendent John E. Coxe, in his bulletin on certification of teachers established the policy of requiring at least twelve college-session hours in speech for certification as teacher of speech. The bulletin made the point that:

Any certificate of Class I or Class II authorizes the teaching of speech only when the transcript submitted by the applicant includes credit for a minimum of twelve college-session hours in the following courses, or their approximate equivalents, arranged as follows: Fundamental of Speech (3 college-session hours); Speech Pathology and Correction (3 college-session hours); and six college-session hours chosen according to the subjects to be taught, from Interpretation ($\frac{1}{2}$ college-session hours), Drams (3 college-session hours), and Debating (3 college-session hours).  

When State Superintendent Shelby M. Jackson came into office, he proposed a plan on certification of teachers. In a tentative statement, Jackson listed a twelve-hour requirement in English, grammar, composition and literature for all candidates. However, for special fields there were additional requirements. For example, the requirement to teach speech was eighteen semester hours. It was suggested that speech courses should include speech arts, public address and dramatics. Special requirements for the elementary teacher included three hours of speech. Kindergarten teachers were required to have three semester hours in speech and three in speech correction, as well as three semester hours.

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in story-telling and children's literature. Nursery school teachers also were required to have six hours in speech and speech correction as well as three semester hours in story-telling and children's literature.\footnote{The Proposed Plan for State Certification of Administrative, Supervisory and Teaching Personnel. A Study Bulletin prepared by J. E. Williams, State Supervisor of Teacher Education and Certification and issued by Shelby M. Jackson, State Superintendent of Education, 1949.}

By 1952 the teacher certification proposals had crystalized into the form adopted by the State Board of Education on June 27. Jackson issued Bulletin No. 746 which sets forth these new views and shows that a considerable importance has been attached to speech training.\footnote{Louisiana Standards for State Certification of School Personnel, State Department of Education of Louisiana Bulletin No. 746, June 27, 1952.} In addition to general education and professional education requirements, the minimum requirements for certification for elementary teachers includes three semester hours in speech and three semester hours in children's literature. Kindergarten and nursery school teachers are required to hold a Master's degree and to have additional specialized training (pp. 18-19). For the first time the requirements for certification of speech and hearing therapists are listed. The 1952 Bulletin 746 shows that special education required includes:

I. Special Education for Speech and Hearing Therapists:

1. \textbf{Clinical certificate.}

A total of 18 semester hours of credits distributed among Phonetics, Anatomy, Physiology and Physics of Voice, Speech Pathology, Correction, Therapy, Clinical and Laboratory Methods, Research.

A total of 12 semester hours of credits distributed in various allied field, exclusive of the speech arts
A total of 200 clock hours of basic clinical training
One year of internship or employment experience.
Bachelor's degree
Signature of two Fellows or Professional Members.

2. **Professional certificate.**

All of clinical member's qualifications

A total of 42 semester hours in Phonetics, etc., as of
II, 2, above, and 12 allied hours as of II, 3, above

Four years of successful experience

Signature of two Fellows or Professional Members

Or, if five years a member of Association and with
Bachelor's degree: examination

J. Special Education For Teachers of the Deaf:

1. **Class A**

A four year-course of study in an accredited college,
professional or technical school, graduating with a
degree

A standard one-year course of teacher preparation in
the education of the deaf in an accredited teacher
preparation center approved by the Conference of Execu­
tives of American Schools for the Deaf (This requirement
will be considered as having been satisfactorily met if
the special teacher-preparation course has consisted of
a full year after obtaining a degree, or if it has been
at least one year in length and an integral part of the
four-year course leading to the Bachelor's degree.
Teachers of industrial and special subjects, trade or
professional experience shall acquire orientation in
education of, or work with, the deaf, either through
special courses, lecture series, study or other means
acceptable to the Committee on Certification, such
orientation to be confirmed by the executive officer
of the school (or schools) involved.)

Three years of successful teaching service under
expert supervision
2. **Class B**

At least two years of study in an "A" or accredited college, professional or technical school, including four semester hours of Education.

A standard one-year course of teacher preparation in the education of the deaf in an accredited teacher preparation center approved by the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (Teachers of industrial and special subjects, trade or professional experience shall acquire orientation in education of, or work with, the deaf, either through special courses, lecture series, study or other means acceptable to the Committee on Certification, such orientation to be confirmed by the executive officer of the school (or schools) involved.)

Three years of successful teaching service under expert supervision. (pp. 21-22).

The minimum requirements for certification in speech as a high school subject field are eighteen semester hours. It is suggested that speech courses include speech arts, public address and dramatics (p. 11).

**Twentieth Century Speech Education in New Orleans.** Having sketched developmental backgrounds and influences on general education, we may now direct attention to Twentieth Century Speech Education in New Orleans.

With one major exception, speech education in the public schools of New Orleans corresponded closely with developments in other areas of the United States. The one exception is the fact that in planning course work the New Orleans school administrators have since early in the twentieth century turned their attention first to the elementary schools rather than to the high schools. Even so, there had been a repetition here of what was taking place elsewhere. Gulley and Seabury describe the development in the following manner:
Established first in extracurricular debate and dramatics, speech training in various forms gradually appeared in courses of study. The high school itself changed in these years from an institution which served the college-bound few to a center of educational activity which provided basic knowledge and training to almost every youngster in almost every township of the United States. Speech education kept pace with the growth.⁹

The extracurricular and semi-curricular speech activities, in the form of class plays, literary societies, and enforced literary exercises in the high schools, the competitive programs of the State Rally and the required courses in Expression of the early twentieth century have been described. It now remains to show how the speech curriculum, through the influence of the National Association of Teachers of Speech and a committee headed by A. M. Drummond sparked the development of the modern practices in speech education in New Orleans. It will also be necessary to show the influence of C. M. Wise of Louisiana State University and G. W. Gray on the courses of study delivered to the New Orleans high schools beginning in the 1930's, and finally it will be required to show the present status of speech education in the high schools.

With regard to the speech training in the elementary schools, it has already been shown how, though the term speech was not used, there has been considerable attention paid to the subject matter of speech since early in the century, and that because of the private speech training of early teachers and administrators, as well as the need to teach

many children of foreign antecedents, it may even be said in the elementary schools that oral communication was an earlier aim in New Orleans than in other areas. The Memory Gems and the inclusion of morning exercises in the course of study also point to early recognition of the need for training in oral communication. Gulley and Seabury describe the situation in most places as follows:

Speech education in the twentieth century, however was emphasized first in college departments, spread gradually to secondary schools, and appeared even more slowly in the elementary grade. The problem of deciding when speech education as such has been and when it has not been incorporated in elementary schools, of course, is considerably confused by terminology and emphasis. The early grades have not included subject matter labelled speech until recently, although the teacher could never avoid informal instruction in the oral use of language. In reciting aloud, story-telling, reading lessons aloud, spelling-down, and the like, the child in the English class was of course speaking. Yet the apparent intent was to teach reading and writing skills, not the skills of speaking. Teaching of reading in the elementary school, with emphasis directly upon oral communication was a later development.10

Elementary School Speech Education Since 1927. The beginning of the modern period dates from the new Course of Study issued for elementary schools in 1927. In this Course of Study, Superintendent Bauer stated clearly the philosophy of the school system. He declared:

The course of study for the elementary grades of the New Orleans public schools provides educative material that will afford opportunity for growth in power to cope with life situations. One of the aims in the preparation of the course has been the exclusion of dead material and the substitution therefor of subject matter and method that will strengthen good habits of child and adult citizenship,

10Gulley and Seabury, p. 480.
that will inculcate proper social ideals and attitudes, that will give practice in the acquisition of fundamental skills of home, industrial and recreational life; that will aid in fostering the growing of healthy boys and girls; and finally, that will tend to develop high moral character.

Perhaps it should be added that Superintendent Bauer was reflecting the Thorndike and Bagley points of view when he wrote:

It is believed that the work for each grade has been so outlined that, while definite, there is still enough flexibility to permit each teacher to gauge and rate the work in such degrees as to provide for the individual needs of the members of the class.

The Elementary School English Lessons in 1927. And now turning to the course of study in English, the term oral communication appears in the modern sense of speech, and sometimes the term speech is substituted for it. Under Oral Composition, the first topic to be discussed, it says specifically:

There should be daily, continuous, vital training in oral communication, and a judicious persistent effort to establish the habit of good English.

The emphasis is on oral communication because at this point the following is enclosed in quotation marks and attributed to Hosic:

Pupils should learn to put a matter of observation, experience, reading or opinion, clearly and effectively before the class. Training in speaking on one's feet in a composed, pleasing and forcible manner is well worth the effort necessary to secure it and can hardly begin too early. (pp. 163-164)

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11 Course of Study, Elementary Schools, New Orleans Public Schools, New Orleans, La., 1927, Foreword.

12 Ibid., Foreword.
To give point to these statements the Course of Study suggests six frequent occasions for oral communication: conversations, reports and discussions, short talks, the oral story, simple dramatization and memorizing of poems. For each of these topics there is a paragraph of explanation (p. 164). This is followed by a discussion of the audience situation, and in quotation marks, the following one-sentence paragraph attributed to Baker:

> The only test of language is the effectiveness with which it does its work of conveying ideas to some one else who wants to hear them or who is made willing to hear them by the way they are put. (p. 165)

There are three ways the child may gain attention, the Course continues: "(1) by his own interest in the topic, (2) by the clearness and distinctness of his enunciation, and (3) by the desire to impart his knowledge" (p. 166).

Finally, the teachers are given advice on models and on speech errors. The attempted linguistic approach to the discussion of models seems to fall a little short, but it does make the point that standards of expression may be elevated by oral and written models:

> Language is learned through inspiration, imitation and repetition; therefore the pupils should be trained to imitate the great masters. Through the use of models he sees and hears certain forms and expressions which lead to their habitual use. The model must be above the pupil in tone but not in comprehension, for it must so appeal to him and so arouse his interest that he will use it as a standard not only for imitation, but also as a guide for correction. (p. 167)

Of speech errors, the 1927 Course of Study gives strict instructions as to procedure:
An inventory of class errors should be taken during the first two weeks in October, and from this inventory the teacher should select the three of four forms that occur most frequently. This will determine her course of study in corrective work for the year.

It would be well for the teacher to record the errors heard on the playground or at other times when the pupils are unconscious of those about them. She will then be enabled to decide upon the three or four types that she will concentrate upon for the term. (p. 170)

As has been indicated, the term Speech is used for the first time in 1927 in connection with errors in grammatical form, but it is used in connection with errors in articulation as well. This is shown by the general aims which are divided into three groups, according to grades. For the Kindergarten and the first three grades the aims were:

1. To develop habit of observation.
2. To lead to accurate thinking.
3. To encourage free expression of thought.
4. To correct common errors of speech.
5. To cultivate this "sentence sense." (p. 172)

For the second group, grades four, five and six, the aims were:

1. To lead to accurate and logical thinking.
2. To increase vocabulary.
3. To stress elimination of common speech errors.
4. To establish correct habits of language study.
5. To train in organization of material for composition. (p. 185)

For the third group, grades seven and eight, the aims were:

1. To foster pride in the use of the American language.
2. To inculcate a sense of word values.
3. To enlarge the stock of connectives.
4. To train on a larger scale in the organization of material for composition.
5. To make the knowledge of formal grammar function in everyday life.
6. To increase the power of self-criticism. (p. 195)

Throughout the entire schedule of grades, the specific instructions included conversation, story-telling, speech drills, pronunciation,
articulation and enunciation exercises, talks ranging from five or six sentences to two or three minutes, drills in posture, pure tones and well modulated voice. Minimum requirements are differentiated under the headings of oral and written.

The lessons in the first two grades are divided into Oral English, Written English, Speech and Minimum Requirements, oral and written. The children were to have the following speech drills:

**First Grade**

**III Speech:**

A— Drill on: just, catch, going to, used to, first, chimney, Santa Claus, with, what, etc.

B— Grammatical errors: ain't, ain't got, misuse of is, was and were.

**Second Grade**

**III Speech:**

A— Pronunciation, articulation, enunciation.

1. Work of first grade.
2. Window, get, final ing, used to.

B— Grammatical errors.

1. Work of first grade.
2. Correct done it, seen it, them boys, ain't got none, me and him.

**Speech in The Upper Elementary Grades.** There were no significant changes or new courses of study issued in New Orleans until 1953. This may be explained by the fact that in the years following 1928, when free textbooks were distributed to all schools by the state, the State Department of Education became the dominant influence in the language program of the New Orleans public schools. Bulletins from the state department
supplemented or superseded the New Orleans 1927 Course of Study. The term speech as a subject in the upper elementary grades was first used in 1938. In that year the State Department of Education issued Bulletin No. 384 which in addition to the Language Arts, also gave in outline form, a full program in speech and dramatics for all grades from one to eleven.\textsuperscript{13}

The influence of Woolbert is seen at once in the Four Basic Factors which compare with Woolbert's Fundamentals. The basic factors as listed in the bulletin are Thought, Language, Body and Voice. In Woolbert's, the fundamentals, are listed as Thought, Language, Voice and Action.\textsuperscript{14}

As this is the first time the full speech program is given separate status, in the elementary schools, it is reproduced here complete. The material is divided by grades under general objectives and specific objectives, and lists of activities are suggested:

Grades 1 to 4

**General Objectives:**

1. To develop clear and definite thought  
2. To develop effective oral language  
3. To develop an expressive and responsive body  
4. To develop an adequate voice  
5. To guide the student toward social adjustment

**Specific Objectives:** (Note the addition of a fifth Basic Factor)

1. **Thought:**  
   - To stimulate and develop imagination  
   - To stimulate individual thinking  
   - To get meaning from oral reading

\textsuperscript{13}Louisiana Program For The Improvement of Instruction, Bulletin No. 384, issued by T. H. Harris, State Superintendent of Education September, 1938 (pp. 110-117).

To listen
To be aware of school problems
To organize factual material
To recognize and remember essential facts
To express, in one's own words, thoughts from the printed page
To learn differences between facts and opinion

2. Language
To increase the speaking vocabulary for everyday use
To learn correct usage of words
To find suitable words to express individual thoughts
To speak in a conversational style
To recognize and use descriptive words
To recognize correct usage of words

3. Body
To develop purposeful freedom
To coordinate muscular movements
To develop relaxation
To develop poise
To recognize mannerisms

4. Voice
To coordinate voice and body
To hear and reproduce sounds-animal, bird, mechanical, human
To speak loud enough without strain
To speak clearly
To recognize and use variety in pitch
To recognize and use good speech sounds
To use adequate volume
To learn correct pronunciation
To correlate pitch with thought, feelings, and emotion

5. Social adjustment
To give and take
To work together
To be considerate and courteous
To recognize and develop group leadership
To make use of individual differences
To feel the responsibility of being a member of a group

Activities

1. Dramatizations of nursery rhymes and stories from readers
2. Giving and following directions in class work
3. Sharing experiences through discussion
4. In one's own words, telling stories, read by group and individuals
5. Pantomiming stories
6. Imitating sounds of animals and birds
7. Planning group actions such as choosing leader, voting, adjourning meetings
8. Playing games of oral communication
9. "Look, Listen, and Speak" games
10. Creating stories about pictures and songs
11. Completing stories started by teacher or student
12. Dramatize own completed stories
13. Narrating events
14. Using telephone
15. Improving plays
16. Building and staging marionette shows
17. Imitating sounds and voices heard over the radio
18. Making oral reports

For Grades 5 to 7 the same Basic Factors are emphasized, but the objectives follow a developmental progression assuming that growth has taken place.

General Objectives:

1. To develop clear and definite thought
2. To develop effective oral language
3. To develop an expressive and responsive body
4. To develop an adequate voice
5. To guide the student toward social adjustment

Specific Objectives:

Thought:

To distinguish between imaginary and real situations
To maintain individuality while being a member of a group
To recognize and find solutions to individual, school, and community problems
To use parliamentary procedure in group meetings
To verify opinions with facts
To organize factual material
To develop strong convictions
To speak to the point
To think logically

Language:

To increase speaking, reading, and hearing vocabularies
To use specialized words
To recognize varied meanings of words
To use concrete examples
To use action words
To learn correct usage
Body:
To develop purposeful freedom
To develop poise
To coordinate muscular movements
To give meanings to movements
To use good facial expression
To overcome detracting mannerisms

Voice:
To coordinate voice with thought, language, and body
To use adequate volume
To use correct pronunciations
To recognize and use variety in pitch
To use good quality

Social Adjustment:
To hold the purpose of the group
To develop good group leadership
To comply with organized group procedure
To be cooperative
To make use of individual differences in the group
To feel the responsibility of being a member of a group
To develop a sense of humor

Activities:
Speaking to inform (e.g. how, where, why things are made and done)
Speaking to persuade (e.g. selling ideas)
Holding group, round table, and panel discussions
Getting and organizing material for speaking
Presenting radio broadcasts
Writing plays
Acting in plays
Reading aloud from the printed page
Paraphrasing what is read aloud
Making appointments
Holding interviews
Holding conferences
Holding informal debates
Presenting impromptu plays

The 1938 Course of Study includes an outline of the speech work as it continues into the high school. For Grades 8 to 11 the approach is mature, and the activities, which are greatly increased imply
individual preparation and attention to style and composition.

**General Objectives:**

1. To develop clear and definite thought
2. To develop effective oral language
3. To develop an expressive and responsive body
4. To develop an adequate voice
5. To guide the student toward social adjustment

**Thought**
To choose appropriate conversation and discussion subjects
To carry on a good conversation
To interpret plays, poetry, short stories, and novels
To develop and use a more active imagination
To speak with a very definite purpose
To stimulate creative thinking
To make definite decisions
To increase range of stimulating interests
To uphold persuasively one side of a controversial question
To evaluate logical points in argument

**Language**
To recognize and use distinctive styles in speech
To use definite and concrete words, varied words, words for finer shades of meaning, coined words, loaded words, and specialized words of trades and professions

**Body**
To overcome "stagefright"
To use body effectively in interpretations, impersonations, and dramatizations and to express a variety of emotions

**Voice**
To use a pleasantly modulated voice
To recognize and correct mispronunciations
To develop rhythm in voice
To coordinate voice rhythm with body rhythm
To use vocal emphasis
To coordinate voice with body in interpretations, impersonations, and dramatizations

**Social Adjustment**
To realize when to listen and to contribute to a conversation
To direct and follow trends of thought in conversations and discussions
To lead, to participate, and to follow in group discussions
To understand people
To yield to superior points of view
To recognize adjustments and maladjustments of people in public life
To adjust to audience responses
To learn to accept defeat
To recognize causes of maladjusted characters found in literature

Activities
1. Making effective formal reports
2. Holding effective formal classroom recitations
3. Evaluating talks
4. Conversing effectively
5. Playing question and answer games
6. Holding classroom assemblies
7. Describing and impersonating characters from life and from literature
8. Organizing clubs
9. Specialized talks: information, entertainment, persuasion
10. Interpreting short stories
11. Telling short stories
12. Giving speeches for special occasions: presentation and acceptance
13. Dramatizing short stories and selections from literature
14. Reading dialogue in rhythmic patterns
15. Holding formal debates
16. Participating in religious, social, and political organizations
17. Reading poetry aloud
18. Holding specialized conversations-repartee, conference
19. Holding poetry festivals
20. Holding symposiums on public questions
21. Making committee reports
22. Evaluating rehearsals of programs
23. Listening discriminatingly to speech activities—radio programs, public lectures, school programs, entertainments.

Organizational Changes Affect Speech Training. By 1953 an organizational change had taken place in the New Orleans public school system. Schools are now operating on a plan in which children attend three different schools. They go to an elementary school through the sixth grade, attend a junior high school for the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, and then transfer to a three-year senior high school.

The Course of Study in English for the Junior High School gives brief
separate treatment to speech, but makes no mention of a separate textbook.\footnote{15}{The fundamentals have been slightly altered from the 1938 version. They now are listed as (1) Posture, (2) Voice, (3) Diction, (4) English Usage, (5) Listening.} A conclusion that might be drawn from this course of study is that there is speech activity in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, but the work is in the hands of the teachers designated as English teachers rather than speech teachers. This is all the more remarkable when by glancing at the 1952 teacher certification bulletin, it may be seen that to teach English the minimum requirements are twelve semester hours above general educational requirements, while to teach speech the minimum is eighteen semester hours.\footnote{17}{Now, since English is absorbing speech and English teachers are required to teach speech, it follows that the extra specialization in speech is superfluous so far as certification is concerned. To show how speech is included in the English Course of Study the portions related to speech are here reproduced.}

Grade 7.

Speech

I. Fundamentals

\footnote{15}{Course of Study, New Orleans Public High Schools, English, Junior High School, September, 1953.}

\footnote{16}{Course of Study, p. 10.}

\footnote{17}{Bulletin No. 746, p. 11.}


5. **Listening**: Practice in listening quietly, attentively, with discrimination and responding appropriately.

II. **Using Speech Materials**

Simple conversations. Getting material from silent reading. Using notes. Increasing number of points to three or four. Telephone conversations. Current events. Simple parliamentary procedure. (p. 10)

Suggested Activities

Choose a one-act play that will appeal to your audience. Meditate upon it, read it aloud, then rehearse it before the class for criticism. Suggested plays:

- The Maker of Dreams, Oliphant Downs
- Miss Civilization, Richard Davis
- The Beggar and the King, Winthrop Parkhurst
- Fourteen, Alice Girstenberg

Audio-Visual Aids

Picturals, slides, recordings of great speeches, moving pictures. (p. 12)

Grade 8.

Speech.

I. For fundamentals, including posture, voice, diction, English usage and listening, follow the outline of work suggested in grade seven.

II. Using Speech Materials
Getting materials from observation, immediate environment, pictures, movies, advertising, places and persons, objects and happenings, listening to the radio, sermons, speeches, lectures, giving book reviews, developing constructive pupil criticisms, verse reading and memorization of poetry with special emphasis on voice quality, using microphone, reading aloud, social conversation, jingles and exercises for lips, tongue, relaxes jaw and resonance, pantomime to increase body expressiveness and dramatization of scenes from literary masterpieces or worthwhile plays, impersonations, mimicking and tongue twisters. (p. 15)

Suggested Activities

Listen to education radio programs.
Discuss these programs.

Audio-Visual Aids

Picturals, filmstrips, recordings

Grade 9.

Speech.

Thorough review of outline of speech prepared for grades seven and eight.

Suggested Activities

Stimulate dramatization through one act plays.
Choral reading.
Recite by memory and interpret lines which appeal.
Read aloud.
Write paragraphs. (p. 16)

Semi-Curricular and Extra-Curricular Activities In Speech. In so far as semi-curricular and extra-curricular speech are concerned there already has been presented some evidence to show the wide scope of these activities. They range from the regular morning exercises to a student-operated radio station at one of the schools. The Grace report takes into account these activities by recording:
Without any question or almost any exception, the teachers are disturbed by the demands made upon the time of the pupils and the teachers for money raising activities, carnivals, pageants, exhibits, festivals, stunt nights. These should be reduced to a minimum.18

The Rules and Regulations of 1930 provided for holidays from school, but also declared that "Washington's Birthday, McDonogh and Donor's Day and other holidays are to be observed in a manner to be designated by the superintendent" (p. 19). To this must be added a state law of 1910, still on the statute books, providing that "The several school boards of the State of Louisiana shall annually authorize, direct and instruct the parish superintendent of education, or other proper authority to observe the anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, October 12, by such fitting and appropriate exercises as the said various and several school boards may determine upon and select."19

In further recognition of the value of speech exercises, the rule books states:

Teachers shall be required to be present at school graduation exercises, class nights, exercises or functions when the school participates, whenever the class of a teacher remains in school, and on such other occasions when required by the Principal, Superintendent, or by the Board. (p. 45).

Typical of the numerous examples of speech activity are the following excerpts from recent newspaper articles:

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19 Cited in Public School Laws of Louisiana issued by the State Department of Education, 1923, p. 32.
Eighth and ninth grade English and speech students of Capdau Junior High School will present a program titled "Capdau Speaks for Democracy" Friday at 9 a.m. before an assembly of parents, guests and pupils.\(^{20}\)

Seventh-grader Pete Konos was named winner of an oratorical contest sponsored by the New Orleans Optimist Club this week at Colton Junior High School.\(^{21}\)

Six winners have been named in the second annual Lincoln-Washington oratorical contest at the S. J. Peters Junior High School.

Thirty students chosen from an original participating group of over 200 seventh, eighth, and ninth graders recited Lincoln's Getysburg address and an excerpt from one of Washington's addressed to his troops in the final round.\(^{22}\)

Their Majesties Lily Trai and Lawrence Horridge ruled as king and queen of Beauregard Junior High School's formal Carnival ball at the school last week end.\(^{23}\)

Radio Station WBEH. One of the most ambitious semi-curricular speech activities in the New Orleans school system is the licensed operation of a radio broadcasting station by pupils of the Beauregard Junior High School. Radio Station WBEH operates as a ten-watt educational non-commercial F. M. broadcasting unit. It goes on the air every Thursday night at 7:30 and signs off at 9:30, but also, since there is no specified minimum time requirement or special broadcast time for stations of this type, the children are likely to go on the air any time.

\(^{20}\)New Orleans States, March 25, 1955
\(^{21}\)Ibid.
\(^{22}\)New Orleans States, February 19, 1955
\(^{23}\)Ibid.
they have something important to tell the world. Morning exercises
and special programs are piped to all class rooms by means of a public
address hook up in the principal's office and practically every child is
a participant. The children not only broadcast, they write their own
scripts, and act as program directors. A typical example of an evening's
broadcast is the following, which was actually put out on the air on

Thursday, October 14, 1954, at 7:30 p. m.:

- **Introduction** - 7:30
- **First play** - 7:32
- **Interlude** - 7:38 (Harmonica)
- **Second play** - 7:40 (Jack The Ripper)
- **News (flash)** - 7:45 (School News)
- **Third play** - 7:50 (In The Dog House)
- **Tall tales** - 8:26
- **Round Table** - 8:31

Station WBEH has an interesting history. A construction permit was
granted on May 18, 1949, when Beauregard was a full eight-year elementary school. The station was built over the summer months by Robert J.
Evans, a civil engineer in the U. S. Engineers, and William Kelly, a New Orleans construction contractor, who had become interested in the idea
during a social visit with the school principal Joseph Schwertz, now at
the Edward Hynes School. The first broadcast was in October, 1941.
Evans began training about 35 children in radio, sound, telegraph code
and electricity. Of this original number, Evans reports that three are
ham operators, three others, two boys and a girl, are taking electrical
engineering at Tulane University.²⁴

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²⁴R. J. Evans, Personal Interview, October 10, 1954.
While Evans had no special training in speech, he acted as a coordinator for the station with the teachers, pupils, Dad's Club and Cooperative Club. During the second year some of the teachers started the children writing their own scripts. There was no restraint on their output, and the children covered the whole range from comedies to blood-curdling mysteries. At present there are six teachers who sponsor the programs and supervise the writing and speaking. Evans teaches from 30 to 35 operators, all of whom have FCC licenses. Pupils are program directors who study and follow a fairly complicated program guide which includes program materials, federal regulations, schedule making and other useful data. The programs are varied: they include singing, reciting, music, reading various kinds of material. From the very first year of operation every one of the 750 children in the school was on the air at least once. The program directors utilized all holidays for programs. They let the children broadcast their essays, poems, plays, travel stories, history dramatizations, and even lessons in conversational French. There are many sources of records and scripts available to the station from commercial and industrial as well as educational organizations. Every child must practice speaking so he can be understood.

There is considerable adult supervision, Evans explained. There are three amplifiers, one to the studio, one to the hall and one to the principal's office. The principal can monitor from his office and cut the material off the air, or the engineer, Evans, can control the situation.
Teaching Reading Since 1927. The movement away from teaching reading by sound had been well established by 1927. The Course of Study recognized the changed attitude by pointing out: "Science had demonstrated that in the perceptual process, consciousness grasps words, phrases and sentences rather than a succession of letters or sounds. Children in acquiring spoken language react to definite life needs that force expression in significant words and short sentences. In acquiring a reading vocabulary, the process should be as natural as in acquiring spoken language - have the new words keep coming in a context environment that is familiar and interesting and provide occasions for frequent use" (p. 668).

The Course admitted the necessity for oral reading in the first and second grades, but emphasized that by the third grade there should be a balance between oral and silent reading. It stressed word recognition and vocabulary building, and prescribed that beyond the third grade dominance should be given to silent reading. In view of present day concepts of reading readiness, it is interesting to note the following sentence on page 688: "Primers should be given to the children when they first come to school to arouse interest."

The stress then was upon words, just as it is today, but the use of phonics was made a definite part of acquiring a vocabulary. On page 691 - 692 of the 1927 Course of Study, the following explanation cited from Pennell and Cusack, How to Teach Reading is given:

Phonics.

How to Teach Reading, by Pennell and Cusack.
A judicious use of phonics is made the basis for helping the child in the identification of new words, in enunciation and pronunciation, and in the development of speech co-ordination.

A ten minutes phonics period daily will do much toward helping the child both in reading and in speaking. It should be a period entirely separate and apart from the reading period. In the reading period the attention is directed toward thought getting and should not be shifted to the mechanics of reading. The child should, however, be made to feel responsible for the application of those phonetic elements that he has already been taught.

Ear training should precede eye-training. Eye training in phonics should not be begun too early because the natural order of development in reading is from the group of sentences, to the sentence, to the phrase, to the word.

If attention is focused too soon upon words or parts of words it will prove harmful to the development of right eye movements.

In teaching phonics, care should be taken to select only those phonic elements which the child will need to use at an early date. No word should be used in the phonetic period whose meaning is unknown to the child. No use should be made of dia-critical marks, as they only tend to confuse the child at this early state. Care should be taken also that, in the pronunciation of words, the child does not break them up into their separate sounds. The phonetic elements of the word may be found, but the word itself should always be pronounced as a whole.

**Procedure.**

1. Ear training.
   
   (a) Rhyming words.
   
   (b) Initial sounds.

2. Eye and voice training.
   
   (a) Development of initial sounds.
   
   (b) Development of phonograms.

**Application.**

1. In attaching new words in basal supplementary of incidental reading.

2. In the check-up of the reading lesson.
Find the word that tells what Humpty Dumpty had (fall).

What part of the word do you know?

Find all the words on this page that begin with the sound of "h".

The Alphabet. In the 1A Grade the children should be taught to recognize and name the letters of the alphabet as a preparation for the study of spelling in the Second Grade.

To give a further understanding of how the teacher applied phonics to the teaching of reading, the testimony of three teachers, two active and one retired, is here presented. Miss Susie C. Murphy, retired, former teacher at elementary schools on the westbank of the river, was emphatic in her support of the use of phonics. She said that teaching reading included the recognition of the manner of utterance as a factor in meaning. "For that reason, I always favored oral rather than silent reading. We combined the use of phonics, flash cards, board work and free expression in building skills in word recognition."^25

Another teacher, Miss Viola M. Walker, teacher of English at McDonogh Senior High School, said in speaking of the use of phonics, "We made charts for the sounds, and we drew pictures for that which would represent the sounds; for instance, the angry cat goes pft and the cooing dove goes d-d-d."^26

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^25Personal letter, April, 1955

^26Personal Interview, October, 1954.
Miss Margret Hymel, teacher of English at Behrman High School, said she remembered that in the 1920's reading was taught orally and there was considerable attention given to sound as a means of recognizing words. She explained that "the teacher read aloud. There was a set period of phonics everyday, and we were shown how to syllabicate. We were urged to attack words we didn't know by trying to say them out loud. The teacher used flash cards for word recognition, and we did quantities of dictionary work."27

Comparison of 1927 with Present Reading Program. There was little basic change in the process of teaching reading in the New Orleans elementary schools from 1927 until 1950, when reading programs at the primary and intermediate levels were published. It should be mentioned, however, that the New Orleans schools were influenced somewhat by the fact that the state in 1928 undertook to furnish free textbooks to all schools, and as a result tended to standardize and dictate teaching materials and methods. This observation is borne out by a study conducted in the summer of 1938 by Alonzo G. Grace, Commissioner of Education of the State of Connecticut. The study was made under the sponsorship of a Citizens' Planning Committee for Public Education in New Orleans of which Mrs. L. S. Davis was chairman. Grace recorded that no course of study had been developed for the elementary schools since 1927 and that the high school course of study dated back to 1928. He added that:

There is a definite indication that the central office and the teachers of the New Orleans school recognize that the elementary and high school courses of study are outmoded. The study by faculty groups at the high school level emphasizes the fact that the thinking of many teachers is more in harmony with the curriculum improvement program of the State of Louisiana than with the outline of subject matter in those courses of study of a past decade. (p. 5)

Although reading is still considered separately in the 1950 Course of Study in New Orleans, by 1938 in State Department of Education Bulletins reading had been lumped together with languages under the common rubric Language Arts. Bulletin No. 384 issued by T. H. Harris, State Superintendent, shows the treatment of these items under Language Arts. It can be seen at once that the functions described here are almost identical with those of the New Orleans 1927 Course of Study in English cited earlier in this chapter. The bulletin states:

Within the broad field of Language Arts are included language, reading, writing, spelling, library and foreign languages. The general purpose of the program in this field is to give the student experience involving expression in actual situations with interesting content. As a result of such experiences the necessary skills, techniques, and abilities may be developed. Classroom experiences should approximate, as nearly as possible, school and life situations demanding oral and written expression and other activities in the scope of this field. 28

The State Department of Education attacked the problem of reading again, this time as a separate discipline, in 1946. Under the leadership of Superintendent John E. Coxe, the Department published

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Bulletin No. 606 which devotes 23 pages to reading. In this bulletin reading is described as:

... an act of thinking based on the background of experience of the reader through which his interpretation of what he reads may bring about new meanings, new understandings, and new responses. The ultimate aim in reading instruction is the intelligent use of the ability to read; that is, the use of reading as a means of communicating ideas. (p. 29)

There is little that is new in the instruction. Three pages are devoted to oral reading in which such matters as posture, meaningful interpretation and the ability to interest and give pleasure, better habits of speech—clear enunciation, correct pronunciation, pleasing voice and correct pitch are treated. The use of phonics, apparently has been completely eliminated. Reading is to be taught entirely by the word method. The 220 word vocabulary compiled by E. W. Dolch of the University of Illinois is to be employed, and "every child in the second and third grades should know every one of these basic sight words" (p. 49).

De-emphasis of Speech Implications. The Dolch word list is one of three employed in the City of New Orleans at present. It is cited in three handbooks on reading, prepared in 1950 and reissued in 1954 under the direction of Miss Rose Ferran, Director of Kindergarten - Primary Education, and Miss Ruth Markey, Director of Upper Elementary Education.29

29 *Reading Program at the Primary Level*, p. 313, *Reading Program at the Intermediate Level*, p. 46, *Remedial Reading By the Classroom Teacher*, p. 30.
It should be noted that more than half the book on remedial reading (pp. 46-95) is devoted to sounds, sound clusters and sound analysis and oral reading. The three books devote a total of 713 pages to the subject of teaching reading. In all three, phonetic analysis and sound clues are considered to be devices to aid in word perception and vocabulary building, and they all caution against sounding words without attaching meaning to the words. All three handbooks appear to be bound up in the, scientific developmentalism of Thorndike and his successors. While there is considerable attention given to oral reading, there is little recognition of manner of utterance as a factor in meaning. The attitude of the Division of Instruction was expressed by Miss Thais Kaiser, former fifth grade teacher at the Lusher School, who early in 1955 was appointed as an assistant to aid with the reading program for the system. Miss Kaiser explained in a personal interview in February, 1955 that Pulliam and Leavell's Basic Phrase Flash Cards are used for remedial purposes and that phonics has given way to newer devices like the Phono-Word Wheels devised by Pulliam and Leavell. Their explanation of their system makes it clear that word-attack is the important element. They say in a printed card that goes with the set:

The Phono-Word Wheels are designed to strengthen the child's ability in attacking new words through use of initial consonant blends and digraphs and word endings. The six blends and four digraphs selected for these

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Wheels are ones most commonly used in words at the primary level. In order to aid the child in recognizing word variants, the following word endings were used: s, ing, er, ly, and ed. The vocabulary of 110 words was selected from words commonly used in ten series of basic readers at the first, second, and third reader levels.

After the children have become somewhat proficient in using initial consonant sounds in attacking new words, initial consonant blends and digraphs may be introduced. In order that the children may recognize a blended sound, the teacher should have the group listen while she calls some words containing a blended sound. For example: play, please, place, and plate. She may call attention to the fact that the two letters pl give each of these words their beginning sound. The children then may name some words that have this beginning blended sound.

Reading and phonics - The Phono-Word Wheels.

Pronounce words as wholes; have the children sound a phonetic element in isolation. It is best not to exaggerate the sound of a phonetic element because the exaggerated sound is not identical with the true blended sound in a word whole.

1. Rotate the wheel and let the children try their skill on new words. Encourage them to scrutinize details that are similar in some ways. For example: stay, stop, store, and start begin alike. Call attention to the fact that these words all have the same beginning sound and the first two letters of all the words are alike. Call their attention to the last parts of the words. Are they alike?

2. One child may match the blends with all the endings on one wheel and call each word, or a child may rotate the Wheel and let the group tell what each word is.

3. The same procedure as suggested above may be employed in teaching the children word variants.

4. The children learn to associate the sound of a blend with the letters that make it. The teachers should encourage the use of this skill in attacking new words.

Attention to manner of utterance, oral interpretation and delivery to an audience are secondary considerations in the method of
teaching reading in the New Orleans public schools. Phonetic techniques are employed only as aids to building reading vocabulary, or as devices for use in remedial reading instruction.

Fairly clear statements of teaching methods in connection with reading in the public schools were reported in a story in the *Times-Picayune* for May 29, 1955, under the by-line of Victor Bernard, who quoted Dr. James F. Redmond, public schools superintendent, and Miss Ruth Markey, supervisor of elementary education. Dr. Redmond is quoted as saying that the schools recognize the great importance of phonics and employ it in teaching the city's children:

>This idea (phonics) is certainly not new. However, the profession has proven that you can't start reading solely with phonics and without regard to meaning. We look upon phonics as an aid to teaching reading and an important one.

Miss Markey is cited from the *Intermediate Level* handbook as follows:

>Because phonetic analysis has been neglected in the reading program, many pupils cannot read easy material, have difficulty with long and new words, and lack self-confidence. They are considered remedial cases. (p. 59, Handbook).

Finally to get the picture from inside the classroom, a classroom teacher was asked to give her version of what takes place in the classroom. Miss Miriam C. Mumme, a teacher at the William Frantz School gave the following version of how teaching of reading is conducted:

>Reading readiness may be attained by talking, playing, writing, singing, dancing, etc.

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Experience charts are built by the children under the direction of the teacher. The children match phrases, sentences, and words with those on the chart.

After readiness has been established the child's sight vocabulary is built. He is taught to recognize certain words in or out of context.

Independent reading is one aid of the first grade. The child is taught to recognize a new word by picture clues, by context, by structural analysis and by phonetic analysis.

Readiness is obtained in the other primary grades for the particular story to be read. The children and teacher discuss the story with reference to the pictures. In this introduction the teacher introduces the new words. The children find them on a certain page. Read the sentence containing them. Make sentences with them so that they can establish the meaning and recognition of the word.

The story is read silently. Someone tells part of it in his own words.

Questions are asked and the child is asked to find the answers to the questions.

At another period the children may read the story aloud for enjoyment. Then try to put expression into their reading and to read as they think the different characters in the story would act.

Some stories may be acted out by the children. Phonics is taught also.

In the upper grades, the same procedure is followed basically. More silent reading is done and many answers to the questions are written rather than given orally.\footnote{Miss Miriam C. Mumme, Statement written in March, 1955 in answer to questions.}

The 1928 High School Speech Program. So far as the course of study is concerned, speech education in the New Orleans high schools entered the modern period in 1928 with a considerable carry-over from
the influences of Curry and a few unacknowledged excerpts from the Drummond Report.\textsuperscript{34} Drummond had been named chairman of a special committee of the National Association of Teachers of Speech at their December convention in 1923, "to recommend courses and procedures in speech training and public speaking for secondary schools."\textsuperscript{35} The report was completed and approved in 1924 and copyrighted and published in 1925. It is from this report that some of the language of the 1928 Course of Study in Expression was taken in New Orleans.\textsuperscript{36} The term Expression continued to be used in New Orleans, and the textbooks continued to be the Curry books adopted nearly two decades earlier, but not now mentioned. Classes were still held only twice weekly, and a course was now a half-year term.

In 1928, two courses called Expression I and II were required. Two courses in public speaking, one course in debate and one in dramatics were elective. There was no special course in oral interpretation.

\textbf{The Influence of Drummond.} In the 1928 Course in Expression, nine excerpts are copied from the Drummond report, without indicating the source, but these are placed in the introductory positions or as statements of aims, while the actual outline of the material to be covered in the course remained almost unchanged or were adaptations.


\textsuperscript{35}Ibid., Preface.

\textsuperscript{36}Course of Study, New Orleans Public Schools, High Schools 1928 (pp. 95-99).
The opening paragraph of the Introduction on page 95 contains the following taken with slight changes from the Drummond report on pages six and seven:

The courses recommended are believed to be consistent with recommendations for increased training in oral expression made by such bodies as the Federal Bureau of Education, The National Council of Teachers of English, The National Association of Teachers of Speech, and the Commission on the Teaching of English in England. The courses suggested have a content equal to that of other college entrance subjects. A number of Class A universities and colleges allow, on certificate, $\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 unit entrance credit for such courses.

This could hardly be the case with the work in New Orleans since it was given only twice weekly. To show how the excerpts from Drummond were interwoven into the programs of study, the entire Course of Study will be reproduced here and the copied or modified passages will be indicated with the page number where it is to be found in the Drummond report:

**Course I and II**

These initial courses have been planned with a two-fold purpose in view: (1) to provide a foundation for advanced courses offered under the head of Public Speaking, Debating, and Dramatics, and (2) to train in practical speech those who will not take an advanced course. (Drummond, p. 12).

**Course I**

1. Better speech drills with special attention to vowel sounds.
2. Exercises for correct posture.
3. Corrective and developing exercises in breathing.
4. Exercises for voice production and its control
5. Fundamental principles of expression
   a. The relation of impression and expression*

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*The terms "impression and expression" in connection with language appears in the Course of Study for Elementary Schools 1905, p. 8. They appear again in Suggestive Course of Study in English for High Schools prepared by John R. Conniff for the State Department of Education in 1925, p. 4.*
b. Response of voice and body to impression

c. Modulations of voice: pause, touch, change of pitch

6. Literary material to be used in sight and prepared reading and in oral reproduction and oral interpretation from memory.

a. Lyrics
b. Fables
c. News stories
d. Myths
e. Short narrative poems

7. Original work: short talks on

a. Current events
b. Other topics of interest

Course II

1. Better speech drills, with special attention to

a. Consonant sounds
b. Syllabification
c. Difficult combinations

2. Modulations of voice: inflection, tone color, movement, emphasis.

3. Literary material

a. Excerpts from famous orations, classic and modern
b. Narrative prose and poetry
c. Scenes from plays

4. Original work

a. Business talks
b. Talks on current topics

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

It is intended that from seven to ten minutes of every lesson be given to the work for better speech outlined under Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Course I, and under No. 1 in Course II; that the work outlined under No. 5 in Course I and under No. 2 in Course II be imparted in very brief lectures, so that the greater part of the lesson time may be given to oral work by the pupil since development of pupil's ability in speech training can come only through self activity.

Throughout the course the norm or standard of speaking should be that which is conversational and communicative; and the daily oral work should seek to improve and develop this, avoiding artificial formality. (Drummond, p. 13)

The prose and poetry selected should be graded according to technical difficulties and should be of intrinsic literary merit.
The plan, the full sentence, the outline, and the adaption (as regards pupil's ability and individual taste and interest) of the original talks or speeches given should be emphasized. (Drummond, p. 14)

**ELECTIVE COURSES**

Public Speaking I and II  
Debating  
Dramatics

While the members of the committee wish these courses to be considered co-ordinate and of equal importance, it is their wish that no one of the three, Public Speaking, Debating, or Dramatics, should be elected without the pupil's having completed the fundamental courses I and II.

**PUBLIC SPEAKING I AND II**

These courses have been planned with the distinct aim of giving to the student the power of presenting to an audience in a clear, direct, communicative, persuasive manner materials chosen and organized by the speaker according to specific rhetorical plans. (Drummond, p. 15)

**PUBLIC SPEAKING-COURSE I**

1. General principles of speech making  
   a. Choosing the subject  
   b. Gathering material  
   c. Forming the outline  
   d. Beginning the speech  
   e. Concluding the speech

2. Analysis and study of representative speeches, classic and modern

3. Composition and delivery of the following forms  
   a. The impromptu speech  
   b. The informal address  
   c. Everyday conversation  
      1. Business talks  
      2. Social conversation  
      3. Classroom discussion

4. Platform deportment

**PUBLIC SPEAKING-COURSE II**

1. Review principles of speech building  
2. Composition and delivery of following forms  
   Speeches for special occasions
1. The after dinner speech  
2. The presiding officer's speech  
3. The welcome address  
4. Speeches of presentation and acceptance  
5. The dedicatory address  
6. The nominating speech  
7. The oration  
8. The eulogy  

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS  
The functions of speech and composition outlines are not identical. Topical outlines suitable as sketches of articles to be fully developed in writing are not acceptable outlines for speeches. Speech outlines require complete statements.  

Ability to deliver a memorized speech with the spontaneity of impromptu utterance is an appropriate minor objective of the course.  

DEBATING  
This course aims to develop the logical faculties, especially in the field of opinion; to train in gathering, testing, and arranging evidence; to give practice in brief drawing and in the writing of arguments; to encourage concrete and vivid rhetorical presentation of an argument; to afford experience and instruction in fair-minded discussion and in oral debate. (Drummond, p. 17)  

1. Principles of debating  
   a. The proposition  
   b. The issues  
   c. The proof  
   d. The brief  
   e. Choice and use of evidence  
   f. Refutation  
   g. Speech composition  
   h. Delivery  
   i. How and where to read for information  
   j. Management of formal debate  

2. Practical work in debating  
   a. One formal inter-class debate  
   b. "Open Forum" debates  
   c. Impromptu and extemporaneous debates
GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

Attention to effective speaking should be constant.

Instruction should present debate as a process of arriving at compromise, or assent to action, or of attempting to arrive at truth.

Team debates should not be over emphasized; there should be opportunity for individual responsibility, for individual conviction and interest, and for play of individual ideas.

DRAMATICS

The aim of this course are to increase the student's ability to analyze, interpret, and assimilate the emotional and intellectual content of drama; to enlarge the capacity for true and vivid emotional reactions which can be expressed through speech and action; (Drummond, p. 21) to improve the agents of communicating this content in vocal and pantomimic expression; to study representative plays, their theatre and staging theories of dramatic and theatrical art, with practice in stage craft, and incidental presentation of plays. (Drummond, p. 22)

1. Fundamentals of production
   a. Work in pantomime
   b. Life study
   c. Voice development
   d. Scenery
   e. Costuming
   f. Lighting

2. Material: Two plays chosen from best plays available in English as mediums of interpretation with pupils as players.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

The work of other departments, manual training, art, design, etc., should be effectively co-ordinated with that of dramatics.

Some elementary instruction in the theories of the drama and of the theatre should be given, but as a necessary background only.

The plays and scenes of plays chosen for study should be chosen from the best plays available in English—plays which will widen the student's experience and improve his taste, as well as be instruments for developing his expression.
The Influence of Wise and Gray on The Curriculum. As has been suggested, when the state began supplying free textbooks, the city school system seemed to be content to accept also the prescriptions for teaching set up by the state. Under the influence of C. M. Wise, chairman, and G. W. Gray of the Department of Speech at Louisiana State University, the hold of Curry was broken in 1933 when State Superintendent T. H. Harris issued new courses of study for Louisiana High Schools. Speech was introduced as English V, and Harris acknowledged that:

Credit is due Dr. Claude M. Wise and Dr. G. W. Gray of the Louisiana State University, for their assistance in preparing the program of studies and course of study in English V. 37

It is significant that the four courses in English, each worth one unit of credit, were for full-year periods and that they practically ignored oral communication. English V was meant to be taken in the eleventh grade, which in 1933 was the senior year. In 1933 the state began to allow one-half unit of credit in Fundamentals of Speech (including Voice Training), one-half unit in Public Speaking and Debate and one-half unit in Interpretative Reading and Drama. The arrangement was for all students registered in Speech V to take a half-year of Fundamentals and then make a choice of the other offerings for the second half of the unit's credit. A ruling that "Not more than one unit in any combination of these half-unit courses will be accepted toward graduation" (p. 58) continues to be the rule, although three full years of speech training are offered in New Orleans. The state rule of 1933 that

37Course of Study for Louisiana High Schools, Bulletin No. 259, September 15, 1933 issued by T. H. Harris, State Superintendent of Public Education, p. 58.
speech must be taken in the senior year was never applied in New Orleans. Speech could always be taken in the New Orleans public schools in any year as an elective for points toward graduation, provided the state's minimum requirement of three years of English was met.

The Present Situation. The aims of speech education, so far as the state is concerned, have not changed basically from those set down by Wise and Gray in 1933. There have, of course, been modifications. Since there were no courses of study issued by the New Orleans system, it could be assumed that these aims were accepted by New Orleans teachers. But as has been explained, a good many of the teachers who received their basic training in local private schools, were doing individual jobs under little supervision. They therefore may be expected to have set their own values. It should be noted however, that in the more than two decades that have elapsed since Wise and Gray came to Louisiana State University, most of the private schools have folded, the New Orleans Normal School has been closed, and it has become a firm policy of the College of Education at Louisiana State University to require at least one course in speech of all persons registered for teacher training. Add to this the requirement for certification described earlier in this paper, and it will be seen that the influence of Wise and Gray has been almost overwhelming.

Aims in 1933. These points are made, so that a comparison of the 1933 aims of Wise and Gray as set forth in the State Bulletin No. 259 may be made with a projected course of study for New Orleans prepared by three high school teachers in 1954 under direction of the
Department of Instruction. Assistant Superintendent Malcolm F. Rosenberg, a recent appointee, gives credit for the 1954 Course of Study still being edited and not yet released, to Mrs. Dorothy King Peppard, Miss Edna May Strobel and Miss E. Virginia Camp. Mrs. Peppard and Miss Strobel are graduates of the private school conducted by Hanley and Miss Camp is a product of the Whitaker school. They are rated as excellent teachers.

In 1933, the general objectives and subject matter were set down in Bulletin 259 as follows:

The general aim of speech studies in the modern high school is to control environment through good speech. To control environment means essentially to induce individuals to react favorably toward one and to do as one would wish them to do. The ability to produce this reaction is often called effective personality. Effective personality, to put the case in reverse order, means that quality in an individual which arouses agreeable responses in people and so promotes the happiness and success of the one arousing these responses. Of all the instruments of effective control of environment, by far the most potent is good speech. Hence the importance of the stated general aim.

By good speech is meant the correct handling of the fundamental elements of voice and language, both in a general way and in the specialized skills herein later to be specified. Good speech in this sense is both a utility and an art: as a utility, it is the daily, even hourly, instrument by which an educated individual controls his workaday environment; as an art, it is the instrument of cultural control. Good speech implies unobtrusive ease, unstudied poise, and casual accuracy, as far removed as possible from the conspicuous artificialities once prevalent under the excellent but perverted titles elocution, expression, declamation, oratory, etc.

In the syllabi following, these principles of general aim will be expanded and restated in reference to the specific divisions of speech study outlined.
The textbook adopted for English V (Speech) is Craig: *The Speech Arts*, Macmillan. Since it is impossible for any single book to cover adequately the three half-units of work as completely as the modern study of Speech demands, the outlines following draw where necessary on a limited number of other books. In order not to make the supplying of books to the pupil an unnecessarily heavy burden, it is recommended that copies of the additional books referred to be placed in the high-school library. The teacher should by all means have copies of these supplementary books.

In connection with the outline of the work for each half-unit, there is added a list of selected references which may with profit find a place in the library of any high school, or of any teacher of speech.

**Texts and Reference Books for Teachers and Pupils**

808.5 Avery, Dorsey, and Sickles. *First Principles of Speech Training*. Appleton. $3.00

808.5 Craig, A. E. *The Speech Arts*. Macmillan. 1.20

808.5 Davis, E. H. and Mammen, E. W. *The Spoken Word in Life and Art*. Prentice-Hall. 3.00

808.5 Lockwood, F. C. and Thorpe, D. C. *Public Speaking Today*. Sanborn. 1.60

808.5 Phillips, A. E. *Effective Speaking*. Newton. 1.75

808.5 Woolbert, C. H. and Weaver, A. T. *Better Speech*. Harcourt. 1.52

808.5 Woolbert, C. H. *The Fundamentals of Speech*. Harper. 2.25

**Aims of the New Orleans Proposed Course of Study for 1954.** The objectives listed in the projected new course of study in speech in New Orleans are as follows:

**OBJECTIVES**

To train the student to think clearly, logically, intelligently.
To develop desirable personality traits such as self-assurance, poise, initiative, co-operation, responsibility, punctuality, self-control, patience, sportsmanship, tact, courtesy, animation, good listening habits, and a sense of humor.

To eliminate undesirable mannerisms of speech.

To develop in the pupil confidence to address an audience, and skill in communicating ideas.

To master fundamental speech techniques.

To acquire and maintain good posture.

To stimulate the imagination and deepen the sensitivities as they relate to interpretative work.

To develop leadership as well as the willingness and ability to be a good follower.

To develop ability in constructive criticism or oral communication.

To develop sound evaluation of "movies", radio, "T V", and plays.

To realize that a course in speech can be interesting and entertaining as well as useful.

To develop memory as a part of the learning process.\(^{38}\)

With exception that in New Orleans the term Expression gave way to Speech, there were no changes in the speech program in the state or in the city until 1937. A State Course of Study in English, Bulletin No. 307, issued in 1935,\(^ {39}\) was an exact duplicate of the 1933 version, but in October, 1937 a separate bulletin of courses of study in speech came off the press. It contained fifty-six pages of directions concerning the speech program, setting forth "the program of studies, the


\(^{39}\) Course of Study in English in Louisiana High Schools, Bulletin 307 issued by T. H. Harris, State Superintendent of Public Education, October, 1935, (pp. 38-57).
objectives, the courses of study, the textbooks and references, and the conditions and limitations governing high school credit in the courses in Speech offered in the schools of Louisiana.  

**Enlargement of Speech Courses in 1937.** Until 1937 the state was supplying only one basic text, the Craig book, which is divided into seven parts: Fundamentals of Speech, Fundamentals of Composition, Fundamentals of Interpretation, Platform Speaking, Group Activities, Platform Reading, Dramatics. In 1937 the state made available to teachers of speech six new textbooks to be used with the courses offered. At the same time, a new policy with regard to enrollment was introduced. In a circular letter, State High School Supervisor John E. Coxe, who soon after was elected Superintendent, wrote to parish superintendents and high school principals:

**Gentlemen:**

The purpose of this letter is to bring to your attention the State's program in the subject of Speech. This subject is now a separate elective study in the high-school grades. A complete syllabus of the course in Speech will soon be available.

A school may offer Speech for credit in addition to the required course in English in any high-school grade, and, in the fourth year, Speech may be offered in lieu of English IV; however, in meeting the requirements for graduation, no student may count more than six units in the regular courses in English and in Speech combined.

The course of study in Speech comprises the following elective subject:

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40 *Courses of Study in Speech for Louisiana High Schools*, Bulletin No. 357, issued by T. H. Harris, State Superintendent of Public Education (Baton Rouge, October, 1937).

Speech I: Fundamentals of Speech, one unit of credit;
Speech II-a: Interpretation (one-half unit);
Speech II-b: Drama (one-half unit);
Speech III-a: Public Speaking (one-half unit);
Speech III-b: Debate and Group Discussion (one-half unit).

Only a very small percentage of the high schools of the State can afford to offer more than one unit of Speech. Those schools which offer only one unit should devote the first semester of the course mainly to the study of the fundamentals (including voice training and correction of minor speech errors), with the second semester enriched with exercises in interpretation, drama, debate, choric speaking, etc. In schools providing for more than one unit in Speech, those students who have had the prerequisite course in Speech I may be allowed to enroll in the advanced courses. The semester courses in Speech II and Speech III may be offered in any desired order or sequence. Thus, a unit of credit may consist of any combination of half-units; for example, II-a and II-b or II-b and III-a.

School authorities who desire to offer courses in Speech carrying more than one unit of high-school credit must first submit their proposal to the State High-School Supervisor and secure the approval of the State Superintendent of Education. Information should be furnished concerning (1) the name and qualifications of the teacher of Speech, (2) the number of students to enroll in the advanced course, or courses (3) the time to be given to the study, and (4) the grade, or grades, in which the course, or courses, are to be scheduled.

The courses in Speech may be offered only by teachers who have had adequate special training in this type of work and who hold Louisiana teachers' Certificates carrying eligibility to teach such courses.

The State Board of Education has been asked to approve the following textbooks for the various courses in Speech:

**Fundamentals of Speech** (Speech I):

Gouch, Rousseau, Cramer, and Reeves: *Effective Speech* (Complete Course), Harpers, 1937.

**Interpretation** (Speech II-a):

Fuller and Weaver: *How to Read Aloud*, Silver, Burdett, 1935.

**Dramatics** (Speech II-b):

Omanney, Katherine Anne: *The Stage and the School*, Harpers, 1932.
Public Speaking (Speech III-a):


Debate and Group Discussion (Speech III-b):

Reeves, J. W.: The Fundamentals of Argumentation and Debate (Revised), Heath, 1928.

Yours very truly,

John E. Coxe,
State High-School Supervisor. 42

The textbooks supplied in 1937 remained the prescribed books and the Course of Study (Bulletin 357) has continued to be the guide for teaching speech since that time. In New Orleans speech classes began to meet five days a week, and in 1937 the Fundamentals Courses were required of all first year students, while the other courses were offered as electives. It was possible for a student to take a full three years of speech. To meet the added obligation of changing from a two-day a week subject to a five-day a week subject, the School Board appointed a number of new teachers who met the requirements dictated by the State Department of Education. Some of these teachers were graduates of Louisiana State University. Several were from Loyola University which was giving a strong course in public address in the Jesuit tradition and a considerable amount of work in dramatics and radio under the direction of Alfred J. Bonomo, educational director of Radio Station WWL, and others were from Tulane University where Monroe Lippman had

42Circular No. 881, September 18, 1937.
established a speech department and school of drama.

The 1947 Course of Study in Speech in New Orleans. By 1947 the Department of Superintendence in New Orleans had asked a committee of speech teachers to plan a course of study, and they devised an outline which was published in mimeographed form along with the other courses in the English Department in June, 1947.43 This outline showed an apparent penchant for using a single textbook in all the courses, and only occasionally using the other texts supplied by the state as reference sources. The committee which worked on the outline is not indicated. The outline is here included to show how the committee narrowed the program in speech a decade after it had been opened wide for them by Wise and Gray through the State Department of Education, as well as to show the variety and flexibility of the Gough, Rousseau, Cramer and Reeves book.

Speech Fundamentals

Text: Effective Speech — Gough, Rousseau, Cramer, Reeves

First Course

First Trimester: Chapters I, II; pp. 1-36

Second Trimester: Chapter III; pp. 37-89

Third Trimester: Chapter IV; pp. 90-133
Chapter V — Optional

Supplementary Material:

Discussion, Conversation, Oral Reports, News Items, Declamations

43Outline of the Course of Study In English, Department of Superintendence, New Orleans Public Schools, June, 1947. pp. 5-6.
Text: The Speech Arts -- Craig; Chapters II, III

Second Course

First Trimester: Review Chapters I, II, III; pp. 12-89

Second Trimester: Review Chapter IV; pp. 90-134
   Chapter VII -- Optional; pp. 215-235

Third Trimester: Chapter VI; pp. 200-214
   Chapter VIII -- Optional
   Review Chapters II, III, IV (As needed)

Supplementary Material:

Discussion, Conversation, Declamations, Oral Reports, News Items

Text: The Speech Arts -- Craig; Chapters I, II, III, XXII, XXIII

Interpretation (Speech III)

Text: Effective Speech -- Gough, Rousseau, Cramer, Reeves

First Trimester: Chapter IX; pp. 283-299

Second Trimester: Chapter IX; pp. 299-311

Third Trimester: Chapter IX; Review pp. 283-299; Review pp. 299-311 Selections for Practice; pp. 311-359

Supplementary Material

Text: Effective Speech; Chapters II, III, IV

Text: The Speech Arts -- Craig, Chapters I, II, III, X, XI

Text: How To Read Aloud -- Fuller-Weaver

Dramatics (Speech IV)

Text: The Stage and the School -- Katharine Ommanney

Course: Drama Appreciation

First Trimester: Chapters I, II; pp. 1-44

Second Trimester: Chapter III; pp. 45-60
It must be remembered that teaching speech in New Orleans has always been a matter of personalities as well as courses of study and textbooks. It would appear certain that each teacher emphasized in his classes the phases which interested him most, and that those who had seen
long service had their own ideas about content and method. Even the
newer teachers had their own thoughts in the matter. For example, at
the Behrman School in 1938, the school purchased enough copies of
Painter's *Ease In Speech* to use as an additional text with the Lockwood
and Thorpe text in public speaking. The Painter book seemed to do a
better job with such matters as outlining and the mechanics of construc­
tion than the older book. However, at Behrman the Wise and Gray in­
fluences was strong. Along with the Painter text was used a Workbook
in Public Speaking developed by Kantner and Gray at Louisiana State
University.

**Comparison of 1937 Course With Proposed 1954 Course.** To complete
the picture of the speech curriculum there remains now to review the
1937 *Course of Study*, and to compare it with the proposed new 1954
*Course of Study* in New Orleans, not yet officially released.

The 1937 *Course of Study* appears to have a strong therapeutic
approach to the teaching of speech. Immediately after the statement of
objectives there is a two-page discussion of speech correction. It is
suggested that while major defects must be treated individually and by
experts, nevertheless

... certain kinds of speech defects can be handled
profitably and adequately in the classroom situation,
if the teacher has a rudimentary knowledge of the

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44 Margaret Painter, *Ease in Speech*, (Boston: D. C. Heath and

45 Personal Experience.

46 Claude E. Kantner and Giles Wilkeson Gray, *A Workbook in Public
Speaking*, Department of Speech, Louisiana State University, 1936-1937)
(2 Vols.).
techniques of speech correction. Teachers of speech, certainly, and, if possible teachers of other subjects, especially English and the social sciences, should be selected partly on the basis of their ability to deal intelligently with the milder types of defective speech. (p. 10-11)

The proposed new Course of Study of 1954 in New Orleans ignores this phase of speech education. It must not be overlooked however, that the New Orleans public school system has a separate Department of Corrective Speech.

In The 1937 Course of Study, the Fundamentals are treated as large units taught within periods of six weeks. There are numerous drills for the correction of common errors in pronunciation and usage. The first six weeks are concerned with introductory material and visible symbols of speech. In the second six weeks, the physical basis of speech and conversation and courtesy are the units. The third six weeks deals with the physiological basis of speech and with informal discussions. In the fourth six weeks, breathing and voice production make up the first unit, and story-telling is the second. The fifth six weeks period is devoted to voice and word production, the correction of individual errors and choric speaking. The last six weeks period is devoted to usage and original speeches.

In the 1954 Proposed Course, the Woolbert influences is seen in the slightly out of phase sequence of thought, language, body and voice, described as "the four basic elements of speech" (p. 20).*

*It will be recalled that State Bulletin No. 384 of 1938 listed Four Basic Factors in the same order, Thought, Language, Body and Voice. (see p. 292).
The contents includes breathing, voice, posture, diction, phrasing, training for audience concept, emphasis, inflection, pause and timing (pp. 21-22). A separate list of suggested activities includes biography, short speeches, reading and learning poems, story telling, putting dialogue to pantomime, choral reading, extempore dramatics, conversation and good listening habits, the interview, radio, TV, and auditorium programs, group discussions and acquainting pupils with parliamentary procedure through discussion patterns of various types.

One thing stands out about the proposed 1954 Course of Study in Speech in New Orleans. There are no references of any kind to any textbook in the Fundamentals Course, the Oral Interpretation Course, The Public Speaking Course or the Debating Course. The only book that is mentioned is Stage and School by Ommanney, now more than twenty years old. Textbooks now adopted for use in the public school system, and the only ones available as free textbooks, are:

Hedde and Brigance: American Speech.  
Fuller and Weaver: How To Read Aloud.  
Ommanney, Katherine Anne: The Stage and The School.

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While the four fundamentals of Woolbert are not set down specifically in the 1937 Course, there is constant reference to Woolbert in the lesson outlines; and the Gough, Rousseau, Kramer and Reeves text says:

These elements - bodily expression, voice, words or language, and thought - constitute the Fundamentals of Speech, for they are the material out of which all speech is composed, from the simplest conversation to the most complicated dramatic interpretation of the loftiest oration.

In the use of the terms the Physical Basis of Speech and the Physiological Basis of Speech, and in the numerous references by page number, the influence of Gray and Wise's Bases of Speech is even more pronounced.

The 1937 Course is its treatment of the study of drama and the proposed Course of New Orleans in 1954 are similar. Both are based on the textbook by Ommanney, but whereas the material in the state course is supplemented and enlarged by numerous references to other works, there is no mention of any other reference in the proposed course. A list of Suggested Activities in the new 1954 Course seems to go far back into the transition period, and suggests reliance on elocutionary techniques.


SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

I. Presentation of weekly or bi-monthly programs (sic) in the classroom consisting of:

A. Story-telling
B. Pantomime
C. Dramatized scenes
D. Oral reading
E. Radio skits

II. Group activities—presentation of one act plays or scenes from longer plays in which the pupils:

A. Direct the try-outs
B. Select the casts
C. Act as directors, stage managers, prompters, property agents, etc.

III. Record individual voices at various intervals during the course in order that pupils may hear their voices and diction. This stimulates the desire for self-improvement and self-correction of errors.

IV. Deep breathing exercises to develop tone quality

V. Drills for pronunciation, enunciation, phrasing, emphasis, projection of voice, vowels, consonants, diphthongs

VI. Exercises for letter substitution and dropping of final consonants

The New Book: Personality in Speech. There does not now exist, nor is there anywhere contemplated, a course of study which has the new textbook, Personality in Speech in mind. From the New Orleans 1954 Course of Study, it appears that the older textbooks were the guides in Public Speaking and Debate. The treatment of these courses is fairly consistent with the earlier state Course, except that "Soap Box Oratory" (in quotes) is advocated as "learning or developing material" and the impromptu speech is proposed as offering the student a splendid change to "take his feet, pull himself together mentally, and using the ideas
and words that come first, express himself as best he can." (The quotes are in the text, but no source is given).

It is not clear how the textbook, Personality Through Speech, came to be adopted and no one could say how much use was being made of the book. It seems to be a book based on the so-called Progressive philosophy, but it does not seem to fit in with traditional essentialist views of the New Orleans system. The point of view of the book is expressed in the opening sentence of the preface:

That education is the development of the whole personality is a philosophy constantly receiving wider acceptance.^54

The authors of the book state clearly:

Personality Through Speech has been designed primarily as a text for a required course in elementary speech for the ninth or tenth year. However, by omitting certain chapters in the book, it may be adopted to eighth-grade needs.^55

Oral Interpretation. The course in Oral Interpretation in 1937, and the New Orleans 1954 Course are nearly alike, with one interesting exception. In the 1954 Course of Study one of the objectives is stated as follows: "To aid the student to re-create life from the printed page, to get the thought, to hold the thought, to give the thought to others."

The catch phrase had persisted in New Orleans for half a century, for almost the exact wording is found in the New Orleans Reading Course of Study for Elementary Schools of 1905. On page 41 of the 1905 Course the following sentence appears enclosed in quotation marks, but without

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^54 Atkinson and Nelson, op. cit., Preface, p. iii.

^55 Ibid., Preface, p. iv.
any reference to source: "To read aloud, we must get the thought, hold
the thought, and give the thought."

Summary of Comparisons. While the 1937 State Course of Study in
Speech leans heavily on the correction of errors and the application of
phonetics to the study of diction, the New City of New Orleans 1954 Course
neglects this phase of speech training. While the 1937 Course divides
the work of the teacher into specific units of six-week periods, the 1954
Course lists content in general and suggests activities, but leaves the
organization of the class work entirely to the teacher. While the 1937
Course cites textbooks and references, the 1954 Course makes no mention
of source material at all.

In the teaching of Oral Interpretation the two courses of study
seem to have parallel objectives, but whereas the state Course refers
specifically to two textbooks and gives a bibliography for the Objectives
of the course as well as others for Types and Sources of Materials and
Techniques, the city Course gives no references. Similarly the courses
in dramatics parallel each other, and again the matter of references to
sources show a major difference between the two. The only references
given in the 1954 Course are contained in the following sentence: "Who's
who in theatre, motion pictures, radio, TV and in local theatre movements
might also come in for consideration." The 1954 Course also gives a
list of Suggested Activities without sequence or order. Practically the
only difference in the Debate outline in the two Courses is that in the
1954 New Orleans Course, Discussion is presented before Debate, while in
the State 1937 Course formal debating is treated first.
Semi-Curricular and Extra-Curricular Influences. To add to an understanding of speech education in the New Orleans public schools, the additional influences of semicurricular and extracurricular programs should be now considered briefly. That there were many activities related to classroom work, but separate from it, has already been indicated. Class plays, for which the budgets of the schools specifically allow, have long been standard in all New Orleans public high schools. Book reviews, often planned in cooperation with other departments, also have been regularly broadcast over radio and television stations for the past decade or more. Most of the white high schools continue to enter contestants at the State Rally in Baton Rouge. The American Legion Oratorical Contest is an annual event of considerable interest.

Auditorium and stage activities form a major part of the speech teachers' routine work. Except for the Alcée Fortier High School, every high school in the New Orleans public school system is equipped with a stage and auditorium. A description of the Behrman High School Auditorium is given in an original history of the school prepared by Miss Cornelia L. Windelkin with her class in journalism in 1944. She wrote "The new Martin Behrman High School with its big clock tower, its forty-six classrooms, and its auditorium which is the largest in the city, having a seating capacity of 1300 people, opened its doors to welcome the new student body, January, 1931." 56

The article describes the sloping floor of the auditorium, the eighty-foot stage, the heavy red velvet curtains, "the splendid lighting system and the sound amplification system." The stage was well enough equipped to give such plays as Mid-Summer Night's Dream in May, 1937, and The Tempest in May, 1944. On May 29, 1942, the Joseph Jefferson version of Rip Van Winkle which required five changes of scenery, was presented.

Behrman High School established in 1940 a chapter of Masque and Gavel, national honorary speech society. This writer, then a speech teacher at Behrman, became one of the national vice-presidents. For the fifth anniversary edition of Masque and Gavel, the group's monthly magazine, he wrote:

Five years ago when the Behrman High School Chapter of Masque & Gavel became the first organized group to receive a charter in Louisiana, neither I nor any member of the club could foresee the far-reaching influence in the school as well as the community that has resulted.

During the five years, the club membership quota has always been full, and a waiting list has been available from which to select the best. Every student body president during the last five years has been a member of Masque & Gavel, and most of the other officers have too. The Student body president is always selected for his stage presence, ability to speak and to conduct the school assemblies.

From an original membership of 15 the limit has been gradually pushed up to 25. From small beginnings the club has developed into an organization which sponsors and develops a radio program every two weeks over a local professional station as well as a national broadcast over the Columbia System each year. The members of Masque & Gavel at Behrman are actors, speakers, debaters, stage hands, and directors. They sponsor an annual state-wide debate tournament when travel is possible, and they prepare and present practically all programs and assemblies of the school. Invariably the young person selected to
represent the school in the American Legion Oratorical contest is a member of Masque & Gavel. Whenever local organizations call for speakers, volunteers from Masque & Gavel go.

Not so long ago the young people managed to secure a bus to make a trip to Lake Charles, Louisiana, to initiate the chapter there.

While the boys and girls are enthusiastic about their work, they do not forget to have purely social gatherings too. For instance, last Sunday pledges to the club were entertained at a picnic in City Park. Initiations of new members always include a party as well as a solemn ritual and ceremony.

In spite of a depleted school population because of the war and a lack of transportation facilities, the club is stronger and the activities are more vigorous that they have been in previous years. Alumni come back to visit with us sometimes and they are as proud of our organization as we ourselves are.

The debate tournament described in the article was a semicurricular activity in which the debate class joined. It was first held on March 29, 1941, with six boys' teams and four girls' teams participating. A copy of the first invitation to the schools of New Orleans and in the state is here reproduced to show how the tournament was conducted:

First Annual Masque & Gavel Debate Tournament
Behrman High School
New Orleans, La.

March 29, 1941

Dear Debate Coach:

In an effort to help promote Speech for use in the high schools of this state, "Masque & Gavel," national honorary Speech society, is sponsoring an invitational debate tournament to be held at the Behrman High School in New Orleans.

57Masque and Gavel, Fifth Anniversary Number (Evanston: 1945) Vol. 6, No. 1, p. 6.
You are invited to bring one team of 4 members each of boys and girls

There will be an assembly at 1:00 P.M. on Saturday, March 29, 1941, in the Behrman auditorium. The tournament will open at 1:15 with the first round of three rounds of debate.

"Masque & Gavel" will provide trophy for the winning team of each division, as well as some entertainment.

There are no fees and no expense connected with the tournament itself. Contestants provide for their own travelling expenses etc.

If you wish to accept the invitation, please fill out the enclosed blank and return to Sam Sherman at the Behrman School not later than Saturday, March 22, 1941.

Sincerely yours,

Sam Sherman
National Vice-President

There were similar experiences in other schools, in more or less degree. Warren Easton High School had active chapters of the National Thespian Dramatic Honor Society and the National Forensics League.

Under the direction of Earl W. Blank, of Berea College, Kentucky, the National Thespian Society was especially active during the years of World War II. Blank sent out a Wartime Playlist which he explained would be "an impetus to correct thinking about the war-time problems before us and about the traditions and ideals for which we are fighting."^58

Easton, under the guidance of Ben Hanley, was also especially strong in the American Legion Oratorical Contest. To find the school's

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representative for the contest, Hanley conducted an elimination contest within his classes and sent out invitations to all the boys. For eighteen years this semicurricular activity has always aroused considerable interest in the school. A description of the American Legion Oratorical Contest as it is conducted in Louisiana was written by James B. Trant, Dean of the College of Commerce of Louisiana State University in 1946. He wrote:

It is of great importance from the point of view of these young people studying citizenship, and it is of importance because of the opportunity they have of competing for a very large scholarship. The winners of the four national prizes will receive the following scholarships.

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<td>1st</td>
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The contest is open to any boy or girl in 8th, 9th, 10th, or 11th grades in the seven-four plan schools or in the 9th, 10th, 11th, or 12th grades in the eight-four plan schools.

The subjects to be used in this contest may be any topic of citizenship but preferably those listed in the pamphlet issued by the National Americanism Commission of the American Legion on the "National High School Context," a copy of which has been sent to the parish superintendents and the principals of every high school in the state. Each student should select a subject and prepare an original essay on it to be delivered in the form of an oration of not less than ten minutes nor more than twelve minutes in length.

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59 Personal experience.
The order of the contests is for each high school to conduct a contest for the selection of a representative of that school. The winner from each high school will then compete in a parish in a parish-wide contest. Each parish winner will then compete in a district contest, and the district winners will compete in the state contest to be held in the Law Auditorium, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana at 7:30 Friday evening, March 29, 1946.60

Dean Trant described state and local awards which included scholarships to Louisiana State University and cash awards.

**Speech Work In The English Class.** The New Orleans public school system has six senior high schools and eight junior high schools. Of these there are four senior high schools which according to the Directory of The Public Schools, have a total of six teachers designated as speech teachers. Four junior high schools are listed as having speech teachers.61

From the foregoing it might be observed that many of the high school children are being denied the opportunity for speech education. This observation however, would be misleading, for a look at the courses of study in English and an examination of the textbooks in use for the past decade will show that there is opportunity for speech training in all the schools. This opportunity is to be found in the new stress being placed on oral communication in the high school English program. It should be remembered, however, that until comparatively recently the entire emphasis was on grammar drills and written exercises and compositions.


A review of the courses of study in English since 1928 will reveal that there have been changes in attitude with regard to oral communication. The New Orleans high school course of study in English for 1928 was divided into three sections, Composition, Rhetoric and Literature. 62

While there was some recognition of the place of oral communication in the program it can be seen from the following reproduced from the course of study that the emphasis was on grammar and construction in written work:

ENGLISH

Composition

GENERAL AIMS

1. To awaken and train a language conscience that shall give to pupils power and skill in the use of the English language as a medium of expression for every occasion.

2. To awaken and stimulate an admiration for clear, correct, forceful English speech as a means of self-expression.

SPECIFIC AIMS

1. To train to systematic thought-habits through organization of material by means of outlining.

2. To train to practically automatic habits in punctuation, spelling, sentence structure.

3. To insist on certain well-defined minima of attainment for each course.

Rhetoric

GENERAL AIMS

1. To instruct in clear and exact expression, both oral and written.

2. To collect and organize material for informal and formal discussion.

3. To develop habits of weighing and judging ideas and subject matter with a view of preparing individuals for intelligent citizenship.

SPECIFIC AIMS

1. To make grammar and rhetoric supply effective tools of expression.

2. To increase the vocabulary and to give the best command of language possible.

Having set up aims which included oral communication, the English Course of Study for 1928 immediately veered off from the stated aims and set up minimum requirements for promotion which mentioned only such matters as recognition of parts of speech, rules of punctuation, usage and the application of grammatical principles. In Rhetoric, the topics of study were listed as:

First Year

Construction of Single Words
Aiming at a Goal in Themes
The Parts of Simple Sentences
The One Topic in Each Theme.

Definite assignments in word-study, and practice in the spelling and use of difficult words in common use. Lists should be made from the classics studied or from the pupil's own compositions.

Second Year

Picture work, oral expression, and the principles of composition are given throughout the book, practically
in every chapter. In most of the chapters of Part I, myths, stories from the Old Testament, from the Iliad and the Odyssey, stories from King Arthur and Robin Hood, and the Foland and Siegfried stories serve as background for the exercises. The numerous suggestions offer a wide latitude of choice to teacher and pupil. Part I deals with correctness of expression and with getting material and using it effectively, while the four chapters of Part II deal with letter-writing. A study of the figures, personification, simile, and metaphor, pages 401-405, is included for correlation with the work in literature and as a basis for additional work in figures of speech in Course IV.

Third Year

Poetry and Drama

Effective Argument
Effective Debate

Fourth Year

Style
Requisites of Effective Style

No new course of study was produced in English in New Orleans until 1946. But by 1933 the State Department of Education had published Bulletin No. 259 which not only contained the first state course in speech, but also emphasized oral communication in connection with the English courses. Under the heading, Art of Communication, the following instruction was given:

The Art of Communication. In order that habits of correct, clear, truthful expression may be insured, there should be offered a carefully graded course in oral and written composition resulting in a thorough grounding in the practical essentials of grammar and rhetoric. In all written work constant attention should be paid to spelling, punctuation, and good usage in general. In all oral work there should be

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63 Bulletin 259, pp. 24-57.
constant insistence upon elimination of such elementary errors of personal speech defects, foreign accent, and obscure enunciation.

a. Objectives in Oral Composition. As immediate classroom objectives in the instruction in oral composition, there should be included:

(1) Ability to answer clearly, briefly, and exactly a question on which one has the necessary information.

(2) Ability to collect and organize material for oral discourse on subjects of common interest.

(3) Ability to present with dignity and effectiveness to a class, club, or other group material already organized.

(4) Ability to join in an informal discussion, contributing one's share of information or opinion, without wandering from the point and without discourtesy to others.

(5) Ability to read aloud in such a way as to convey to the hearers the writer's thought and spirit and to interest them in the matter presented.

(6) Ability to address an audience or to conduct a public meeting with proper dignity and formality, but without stiffness or embarrassment. This is done for those who have, or hope to develop, qualities of leadership.

All expression in speech demands distinct and natural articulation, correct pronunciation, the exercise of a sense for correct and idiomatic speech, and the use of an agreeable and well-managed voice. Ability to think on one's feet and to express one's thoughts clearly, forcibly, and persuasively should be the aim.

The following exercises will afford valuable drill in the achievement of the above-stated objectives in oral expression:

(1) Repeating fluently and naturally sentences from literary selections.
(2) Telling the facts of a paragraph or the contents of a selection studied.

(3) Describing mathematical processes, not in parrot fashion, according to set formulae, but briefly in the words of the pupil.

(4) The separation of sentences in a paragraph into complete subjects and complete predicates without using technical terms, affording practice in judging sentences by the standard of their essential parts.

(5) Reciting from memory good prose and good poetry.

(6) Drill in explaining the meaning of words, keeping in mind the distinction that the putting of words into sentences is not a method of teaching the meaning of words but a method of determining whether or not the meaning of a word is known.

(7) The oral reproduction of history and literature stories.

(8) Conversational exercises.

This lengthy and detailed copy of the 1933 program in the Art of Communication was taken from the prescription of work to be covered in regular English classes by English teachers, not in speech classes by speech teachers. It was introduced here to show the increasing amount of speech education being demanded by the Course of Study in English. By 1941, while the teachers of speech were using Bulletin No. 357, the 1937 Course of Study in Speech, the English teachers were being influenced by State Bulletin No. 466, which used the term Language Arts as a title instead of English. The following taken from Bulletin No. 466 will show the trend away from grammar and written composition.

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64 Course of Study in Language Arts, Grades Four to Eleven, Bulletin 466, State Department of Education, Issued by John E. Coxe, State Superintendent of Education, August, 1941.
Those who read the English Journal and the Elementary English Review are aware of the progress being made in experimentation in the field of language arts. English teachers, so frequently thought of as unwilling to yield to new ideas, are experimenting widely. To many who fear for the future of this important subject a refreshing outlook will come from the knowledge that no standards are being lowered but that there is a new viewpoint concerning the teaching of English. The English room is being metamorphosed into a workshop of tables, stage, and library, into a laboratory of maps and charts, of pictures and drawings, of anthologies and encyclopedias, into an attractive center of activity, guidance, and creative expression.

Grammar is seen as a tool which is as necessary as ever but which, instead of being isolated, must be taught in connection with oral and written expression. It is generally recognized that great literature can wield more influence on instilling ideas and on educating for the happy use of leisure than any other one subject. However, instead of being dissected and analyzed, literature is taught from the viewpoint of developing appreciation and causing boys and girls to want to read more.

In spite of these trends, the instruction remained predominantly instruction in grammar and written composition in New Orleans. A new high school course of study in English was developed in 1946. It was based on the textbook series English in Action by Tressler. The Tressler point of view is expressed in the Preface to Course Two. With regard to Speech, Tressler points out:

**Speech**

An English textbook should furnish training in the language activities ordinarily carried on in school and also in well-selected activities paralleling present and future out-of-school experiences. Because the average person talks approximately one hundred times as much as he writes, speech training

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65 Course of Study in English for the Public High Schools of New Orleans, March, 1946.
is vitally important in the preparation for life. Course Two places major emphasis on the types of language activities most frequently used: interviewing and talking business; speaking and listening; reading, studying, and answering questions; making reports; conversing; writing business and social letters; thinking, discussing, and debating; desribing.66

The Division of Instruction is at present engaged in editing and revising a new course of study in English. This plan of procedure will need to take into account a state bulletin, Improving Communication,67 issued by State Superintendent Shelby Jackson in 1949, and the fact that the Row, Peterson series of English textbooks has been adopted.68

In the introduction to Improving Communication, it is explained that "Special attention is directed to the importance of providing for balance in the English program through giving students practice in writing, speaking, reading and listening" (p. v). The contents of the bulletin itself is divided into sections devoted to:

WHAT WE BELIEVE

ORAL COMMUNICATION

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

GRAMMAR

SPELLING

LITERATURE


There are fourteen pages of outlined copy devoted to Oral Communication. The topic headings include:

- Experiences in Oral Communication ..................... 14
- Social Conversation ................................... 14
- Introducing Persons .................................... 15
- Telephone Etiquette ................................... 16
- Telling Stories ....................................... 17
- Asking for and Giving Information and Directions ...... 18
- Interviewing .......................................... 18
- Reading Aloud ........................................ 20
- Short Prepared Talks .................................. 21
- Parliamentary Procedure ............................... 23
- Formal Discussion ..................................... 24
- Debates .................................................. 26

Corresponding with this new course of study in English, the new textbook, Building Better English, is divided into three parts, which are explained in the Preface to the text for grade ten:

Building Better English, Grade Ten, is divided into three parts -- Oral Communication, Written Communication, and Mechanics of Communication-- thus giving speech the recognition it deserves. This division does not mean that all oral work is confined to the first part or that all writing is relegated to other parts of the book; it simply means that in Part I basic instruction in speech receives the emphasis it should have. In Part II, Written Communication, the emphasis is on writing, but students necessarily use speech skills as an aid in learning. Part III, Mechanics of Communication, is devoted mostly to grammar as it serves both speaking and writing. In addition, there are sections on reading, spelling, and vocabulary building. Critical listening as an aid to learning is definitely taught throughout the book. All three parts of Building Better English, Grade Ten, are closely integrated by frequent cross-references. (p.5)

Summary and Recommendation. To sum up the new philosophy in English instruction, it seems clear that the intent is to give more attention to speech now than in former years. How well English teachers, trained in the earlier tradition of written activity, will
do in integrating speech into their work can only be a matter of speculation. It would seem reasonable, however, to expect that if the current trend continues, teachers preparing to teach English will find themselves in need of considerable training in the oral aspects of language and in speech. It would seem reasonable to expect the certification requirements for teachers of English to be revised and to take into account the need for speech education. The discrepancy between certification requirements for English teachers and what they are expected to teach is obvious. A teacher of English is not required to have any credit in speech. A twelve hour minimum in English above general education requirements is the only requirement for English teachers. On the other hand, teachers of speech are required to have a minimum of eighteen hours in the specialized subject.69

Perhaps the teachers of English should not be expected to teach speech. It may be that a reappraisal of courses of study and certification requirements in English and speech and a survey in the schools of what actually is being taught in English and speech classes will lead to the same conclusions here that were reached by J. M. O'Neill and sixteen other members of the National Council of English Teachers who "seceded" from the Council and formed the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking, now the Speech Association of America, in 1914.

69 See Certification Bulletin No. 746, p. 11.
The causes and events leading up to the separation of speech and English are described by Gray:

In 1912 The National Council of English Teachers set up an Oral English Committee, headed by James F. Hosic of the Chicago Teachers College, to provide for programs in oral English at its annual meetings. But because the committee could not appreciate the distinctive character of public speaking— to them it was simply another aspect of English— agitation was begun for the complete separation of the two disciplines.  

Gray credits O'Neill with taking the initiative in bringing about the split:

... O'Neill presented a paper at the March, 1913, meeting of the Public Speaking Conference on "The Dividing Line between Departments of English and Public Speaking", in which he urged that there should be complete separation of the two lines of work, including choosing of the instructional force, the planning of the courses, division of work, prerequisites, and the relation of the department to extracurricular activities in public speaking.  

Gray records that O'Neill carried the issue further into the National Council of English Teachers in a speech entitled "Public Speaking and English," delivered at the annual banquet on November 8, 1913, and that the following year the new organization was formed with O'Neill as president (p. 442).

It is suggested here that a survey of oral language habits of children in the New Orleans public schools and a re-examination of the curriculum in English and speech classes probably should be made. These

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71 Ibid., p. 442.
would be useful in determining the needs of the children and in discovering how much speech education is in fact being given in the New Orleans public schools today.
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APPENDIX A
Account of an Elocution Lesson of 1850 from

*Old Louisiana* by Lyle Saxon pp. 34-39.

After supper we would gather in the parlor, where candles burned under hurricane shades on the mantel and at either end of the square piano. Miss Seena, wearing a rippling black gown, would seat herself at the keyboard and after a few tinkling chords would sing "Twickenham Ferry" in a strong, though cracked voice. If we applauded—or even if we didn't—she would oblige us with the Shadow Song from "Dinorah", ending with such a shower of vocal fireworks that Tennis and I would choke with suppressed laughter. When the song was ended she would remain motionless, her face upturned, her gray hair silver in the candle-shine, her wrinkled hands lying on the yellowed keys. "Beautiful, sister...beautiful...." But Elaine, whose poetic tendencies did not preclude a debased taste in music, would speak pettishly from her corner: "Play 'The Frolic of the Frogs' Aunt Seena."

When the music was over, Miss Nelly would recite for us. There were dreadful times when she would attempt to teach Tennis and me to deliver some poem "suitable to young gentlemen" of our age. At these times she would elucidate to us the secrets of elocution. It seemed simple enough as she explained it, for only five positions were necessary to portray the whole gamut of human emotions—or at least those emotions suitable for the drawing-room. I shall never forget those positions, nor shall I forget the names of them.
"This" she said, "is the first position." She stood erect, peering at us with her black, short-sighted eyes, and holding up her long spirrged muslin gown so that we could observe her feet.

"You see, it is very simple. Right foot forward, left foot back, with left toe turned out. The weight rests upon the left foot. You must lean back in repose." She suited the words with the proper gesture. "The hands must hang at the sides or be folded loosely before you. This is the first position, and it is called The Lady, the Gentleman, or the Speaker."

Tennis and I agreed that perhaps we could do that much, and she went on with the lesson.

"Now," she continued, "suppose that some one opened a red velvet box and showed you a beautiful string of pearls. What would you do?"

Tennis and I said that we didn't know what we would do.

"Why, you would lean forward, throwing the weight of the body upon the right foot, and raise both hands level with your elbows, palms turned out, indicating surprise and pleasure." She assumed the posture and announced, "This is Gentle Animation."

"Must you always do that when you are surprised?" Tennis wanted to know.

"Yes, always," said his aunt.

"I'd rather clap my hands," Elaine announced.

"That would be very unladylike," said Aunt Senna. "But you mustn't interrupt your Aunt Nelly any more. She is teaching you a valuable lesson--something that you can use all of your life, when speaking in public. Go on, Nelly."
"The next position is a very dramatic one. You'll like this, Tennis. Now tell me, if you saw a child run over by a carriage (or a street-car, if you happened to be in New Orleans at the time), what would you do?"

"Scream", said Elaine, but her aunts ignored her.

"I'd pull it out from under the wheels," Tennis boasted.

"Exactly!" said Miss Nelly, "or failing that, you would make a gesture of appeal, like this!" And she fell upon one knee, with both arms extended before her, simulating horrified abandon.

"Explosion!" she cried.

"I thought you said it was a child under a street-car," said Tennis.

"Explosion is the technical name for the gesture," said his aunt, still on her knees. "And the one that follows is called Prostration". She sprang erect and held her clasped hands toward heaven, her head was thrown back, her eyes closed. "The child has been run over, you see, and you are powerless to help it. Your gesture signifies despair, and at the same time it is an appeal to the Almighty."

She stopped; the child under the street-car was abandoned to its fate.

"And is that all?" asked Tennis.

"No, there is another necessary gesture, but it has no part in tragic recitation. It is called Vulgar Ease. Like this!"

She stood with feet wide apart and her hands on her hips. Tennis and I could not restrain our laughter, the gesture was so unlike her. We expected to be reproved for levity, but she seemed gratified.
"You're right," she said. "This is a comic gesture. It is used to denote a person in one of the lower walks of life. Rustic amazement, you might say."

"I know, said Elaine. "You'd use that if you wanted to pretend that you were that bad old woman in 'The Tale of Two Cities.' You know who I mean. She sat under the gallows and knitted all the time when the French aristocrats were having their heads chopped off."

"That was the guillotine, not the gallows," said Tennis grandly. "Trust you to get it wrong."

His aunts reproved him for teasing his little sister, Elaine put out her tongue at him, and Miss Nelly continued to talk of elocution.

"Suppose we have Elaine recite Tennyson's 'Lady Clare,'" she said. Tennis groaned as Elaine got heavily up on her feet, pleased to show her airs and graces. She begun in a singsong voice, and Miss Nelly prompted from her arm-chair:

"It was the time when lilies blow,
And clouds are highest up in air,
Lord Ronald brought a lily-white doe
To give his cousin, Lady Clare."

"That's right, Elaine, The Lady, The Gentleman, or the Speaker."

"I trow they did not part in scorn:
Lovers long betroth'd, were they.
They two will wed the morrow morn:
God's blessing on the day!"

"Gentle Animation, Elaine, on the last line."

"All right, Aunt Nelly," and Elaine tilted forward dangerously and held up her hands, palms outward, as though she were saying, "Do tell!"
"God's blessing on the day!
'He does not love me for my birth,
Nor for my lands so broad..."

"Gesture, Elaine!"

"Yes'm."

"Nor for my lands so broad and fair;
'He loves me for my own true worth,
And that is well,' said Lady Clare."

"No! No!" cried Miss Nelly, "No Explosion yet!"

Undaunted, Elaine rose from her knees and continued to recite. When she came to the entrance of "old Alice, the nurse," Miss Nelly ordered Vulgar Ease, and each remark of Alice's that followed was treated in the same way. Lady Clare, as befitting her station, went forth and back between The Lady, The Gentleman, or The Speaker and Gentle Animation, with occasional departures into Explosion and Prostration. Poor Elaine was taxed hard when the dialogue became dramatic, and bounced heavily from character to character and from gesture to gesture:

"Are ye out of your mind, my nurse, my nurse?'
Said Lady Clare, 'that ye speak so wild?"

"Explosion!"

"'As God's above....'"

"Vulgar Ease!"

"....said Alice, the nurse,
'I speak the truth: you are my child."

Elaine struggled on, but when she came to the verse about tearing off the brooch of gold and flinging away the diamond necklace, Miss Nelly kept crying out: "Explosion! Prostration! Explosion! Prostration!" until the poor girl was so mixed up that she forgot the lines completely.
However, with a little prompting and encouragement, she finished triumphantly on Gentle Animation (a sad anti-climax, I thought) and stood waiting for our applause. Then she acknowledged our plaudits with a curtsy (also learned from Aunt Nelly), and retired to her chair, bathed in happiness and perspiration.
APPENDIX B

Reviewed by Hoyt H. Hudson, Princeton University.

There is no use in saying a word about this voluminous textbook on vocal expression for use in high schools, normal schools and colleges, unless one is prepared to say something about the kind of book which has as motto on its title-page, quoted from an author unnamed, "Thought is immortal; expression is the voice of Thought." A capricious use of capitals and of quotation marks is peculiar to the mystical school. In this book the words "spoken thought" arecapitalized and put in quotation marks almost every time they are used. Why? Presumably spoken thought is a very real and important thing; why suggest that these words constitute an expression to be uttered with a hushing and mellowing of the voice, like "that blessed word, Mespoptamia"? Here is another specimen:

"The inspiration of the "Life of Christ" has converted millions to the religion of love."

So far as the context shows, no book of this title is meant, but rather the life Christ lived. Why not?

This is also the kind of book wherein one reads:

"The simple melody of the untrained human voice singing in the fields, the patter of little feet on the floor, the sublime music of the
"silver-toned orator" all lift our hearts and make us love nature in the epitome of God's work--Man."

Or again:

"The newborn enthusiasm of the Grecian patriot lifted high the standard of oratory over the classic walls of the Parthenon where the stuttering, stammering boy blossomed into the king of oratory.--Demosthenes, and the response has echoed down the highroad of time, even until today. It lifted its touch (presumably its torch) against tyranny in the Roman Forum, flamed out in irresistible power on Bosworth Field and in the English House of Commons, and with a mighty bound crossed the great Atlantic where it stamped freedom on the flag of America."

Among the questions at the end of a chapter on oratory are these:

1. **Define oratory?**
2. **What is its age?**

Looking back in the chapter the reader finds as an answer to the second question:

"It may be said that oratory is the oldest of the arts, for before God painted the trees and wild flowers, before He tuned the throats of the forest choirs, before He raised the gigantic mountains or smoothed the grass-covered valleys He addressed a spoken thought to chaos when He said, "Let there be light!"

These passages suggest other characteristics of the mystical school,--notably, fuzziness and inaccuracy in thinking and a willingness to let sweetness prevail over light. Whatever the kind of training represented by this book may do, it does not sufficiently form the taste
to prevent the author's including many of her own poems in groups of selections along with poems of Shakespeare, Tennyson and Byron. Yet the author's poems are a little better, if anything, than those she includes from such authors as H. Waithman, Mary E. Ireland, M. B. N., Emma Playter Seabury, anon; Unknown, and Unidentified. Anon. and Unknown are drawn upon very heavily; but in spite of this fact, many selections are printed without even so much of a signature. Why not give Elijah Kellogg credit for "Spartacus to the Gladiators"? The poem on p. 283 which should be called "Caliban in the Coal Mines", is Louis Untermeyer's. On p. 219 Anon. gets the credit for a passage from Edgar Lee Masters' "Silence."

Two quotations on p. 86 are assigned to the authorship of King Arthur himself. A certain number of proof errors can be forgiven--such, perhaps, as printing Caleb Young Rice for Cal Young Rice and Mary Caroline Davies for Mary Carolyn Davies, but it is too bad that Rienzi is made to open his address to the Romans with the sentence, "I come here to talk", thereby robbing him of a stock oratorical device. Surely the publishers could have corrected "De Cerventes", seeing that a better form is used elsewhere in the book; and why have John Harrington cited as the author of one selection and Jno. Harrington of another? Why the jocularity of Alf Kreymborg? Dryden's Song for St. Cecilia Day is reprinted entire and attributed to Pope.

The song from "The Lady of the Lake," "Hail to the Chief who in triumph advances," is attributed to Campbell. Pope is misquoted on p. 212; Henry Van Dyke on p. 270; and Shakespeare on p. 471. Printing the word "lessened" for "lessoned" in the fortieth line of "My Lost Duchess" is an especially subtle and confusing error.
Let it be said that the school of teaching here being discussed it not without very real claims to our regard. One can love a bit of poetry and can express its values (or some of them) without knowing its author or the date of its composition. And there is indeed something to be wondered at, with perpetual admiration, in the gift of speech, in the embodiment of thoughts in words. Hiram Corson and S. S. Curry probably must be classed as belonging to the mystical school; they were not afraid to talk about spiritual values in speaking and reading. Yet something has happened to the doctrine of these great men if books like this one can appear in the same tradition. Somebody has failed--and probably all of us who ever have caused a reluctant schoolboy to recite, "Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!" must share the blame--if, within the past twelve months, an American publisher could put out as a text-book in the field of vocal expression a work which raises questions of taste and of elementary scholarship on almost every page, which definitely gives the impression that spoken thought is vague and sentimental thought, and which is in general the sort of book one wishes one's enemy had written.
BIOGRAPHY

Sam Sherman was born in New Orleans on April 15, 1910. He attended elementary school in New Orleans and was a graduate in the 1928 June class of Warren Easton Boys High School. He entered the Louisiana State University in the fall of 1928 and received his B. A. degree in 1932.

Sherman received his Master's degree in 1933, and then served on the staff in the speech clinic of the Department of Speech at Louisiana State University while working for additional credit toward the doctorate until he went to the University of South Dakota as an exchange instructor in 1935. He came into the New Orleans Public School system in the fall of 1937. Since that time he has been a teacher in the Behrman High School, the Warren Easton High School and the McDonogh Senior High School of New Orleans.

Sherman is a life member of the National Education Association and a sustaining member of the National Speech Association. He is married to the former Faye Barton, who now writes a daily column for the New Orleans Item. They have one daughter, Bette, 19, a sophomore at Louisiana State University.
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Major Field: Speech

Title of Thesis: A History of Speech Education in New Orleans Public Elementary and Secondary Schools

Approved:

Major Professor and Chairman

Dean of the Graduate School

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Date of Examination:

July 27, 1955