Francis Wayland Parker: an historical study of the influences on his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts

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FRANCIS WAYLAND PARKER: AN HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE INFLUENCES ON HIS PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AS IT RELATES TO LANGUAGE ARTS/READING INSTRUCTION

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Gregory S. Johnson
June, 1973
This dissertation, written and submitted by

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is approved for recommendation to the Committee on Graduate Studies, University of the Pacific

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Chairman

Dated June 28, 1973
FRANCIS WAYLAND PARKER: AN HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE INFLUENCES ON HIS PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION AS IT RELATES TO LANGUAGE ARTS/READING INSTRUCTION

Abstract of Dissertation

PURPOSE: Francis Wayland Parker was one of the earliest American educators of national prominence to advocate what has come to be known today as progressive education. He was in total support of the common school concept, helped form the earliest, formal child study association in America, promoted the institution of kindergartens, and stressed the need for a child-centered, correlated curriculum organized around the natural and physical sciences. Through his work in the Quincy, Massachusetts, public schools and at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, Parker also made strong contributions to early language arts/reading instruction and methodology. Despite his influences on his contemporaries and on American education, few studies of any nature have been available to illuminate factors influencing Parker himself.

PROBLEM: There has been no historical study defining influences on Francis Wayland Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language/arts reading instruction.

PROCEDURES: In order to investigate the influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, Francis Wayland Parker's life was divided into three periods: (1) his early years, from 1839 to 1872, (2) his years of European study and travel, from 1872 to 1875, and (3) his later years, from 1875 to 1902. Within each of these time-spans, three types of influences were considered: the first were those influences of a general-personal nature, ones which would have occurred from practical, everyday experiences; the second were those influences of a formal-educative nature, ones which might have come from formal reading or schooling; and the third were those influences of an associative nature, ones which might have come from organizations or people with whom Parker associated and to whom he acknowledged some debt.

FINDINGS: The research indicates that the primary sources influencing Parker were found in America before he traveled and studied abroad. Specifically, Parker was influenced by the writing of the Britisher T. Tate, the work and writing of A.E. Sheldon, and through his association with Dyer H. Sanborn, one of his early teachers. Others who contributed to his ultimate philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction were his second wife, Frances Stuart Parker, Comenius, Thomas Gallaudet, George Farnham, J. Russell Webb, G. Stanley Hall, and his association with the Illinois Society for Child-Study.
I believe that the only consistency in this world worthy the name is constant change in the direction of a better knowledge of humanity and of the means by which humanity rises to higher levels. I believe that the art of teaching is the art of all arts, it surpasses and comprehends all other arts, and that the march of progress is upon the line of the realization of infinite possibilities for the good and growth of mankind.

Francis Wayland Parker
in his "Pedagogical Creed"
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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

General Background

For an individual credited by John Dewey as being "the father of the progressive educational movement,"¹ Francis Wayland Parker is perhaps one of the least discussed men in American educational history today. A practitioner, suggesting that "theory can only be kept within its proper limits by constant practice,"² Parker spent the majority of his life in public schools espousing the epitaph that "teachers had been teaching subjects when they should have been teaching children."³

Francis Parker has been commended for giving the forerunners of progressive education much of the practical expertise for the philosophical theory which has guided American educators to the present time.⁴ His contributions were many, but perhaps three stand out as having special significance. Firstly, he was one of the leaders in formalizing the child-study movement, helping to organize the Illinois Society for

³Dewey, loc. cit.
Child-Study in 1894 and serving as its first president. Secondly, he was spokesman for the new kindergarten movement and saw educational reforms in this area to be among the most important and far reaching of the nineteenth century. And thirdly, he strongly advocated the activity curriculum, which placed the child at the center of educative effort. With the child at the center, Parker believed that subjects should be coordinated to nature study, rather than centered on a core of history and literature. It was this belief that led to his philosophy of education as it related to language arts/reading instruction; the language areas were not to be subjects in themselves but means to an end—the development of the whole child.

Specific Background

Francis Parker's views on language arts/reading instruction are


7 Colonel Parker, "Discussion," in First Supplement to the Yearbook of the National Herbart Society, ed. Chas. A. McMurry (Normal, Illinois: Pantagraph Printing and Stationery Company, 1895), p. 182; hereafter referred to as "Discussion, First Supplement."

8 Ibid., pp. 156-157

most concisely stated in his two major works: *Talks on Teaching* (1883) and *Talks on Pedagogics* (1894). In both, he suggests that "if the teaching is real teaching—i.e., thought development—all the studies that now follow . . . , Geography, Arithmetic, and the Sciences, may be the best kinds of language lessons." He believed that, for children, "getting thought and giving thought by spoken and written words should be united at the start, and grow through future development as from one root." Thus, none of the language arts was to be taught as a separate subject in the curriculum, but all were to emanate from a correlation with nature study.

Parker's thoughts on language arts/reading instruction span the spectrum of encoding (speech and writing) and decoding (listening and

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13 See this chapter, page 11.


15 Parker, "Teaching," p. 86; see also Parker, "Normal School," p. 770.
reading) skills. As he saw it, all these skills began with thought and expression and their development paralleled the development of the human race. To Parker, language basically was speech, but speech as a medium of thought expression. A child, in acquiring speech, went through a process of hearing, of listening, and of applying the law of association and the law of functioning words. Once he was able to make verbal associations between objects and their corresponding names, then writing and reading were to be begun. Parker was a firm advocate of object education and saw the child first writing the names of objects with which he was familiar. Once these were written, they could then be read. Reading was the means by which the child was to unite all areas of the curriculum and which triggered his thought and imaginative thinking. But before one could read, he had to be ready, and this would entail, at the least, the teacher's knowledge of the child's "nascent" periods.

17 Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 175.
18 Ibid., p. 247.
19 Ibid., p. 194.
Francis Parker did not favor one method of teaching reading to the exclusion of others. Indeed,

... he [saw] the difficulty ... in using one method to the exclusion of all others. It is like using one power of the mind and leaving four others inactive. The fact is that the object, word, sentence, script, and phonic methods form one true method in teaching reading.25

It was the teacher's job to do as Parker felt he had done--to discover viable methodologies from history and apply these to current reading instruction.26

Statement of the Problem

In spite of strong indications that Francis Wayland Parker exerted considerable influence upon progressive philosophers such as John Dewey and G. Stanley Hall in both general educational-curricular and language arts/reading theory27 and that he is regarded by some as father of American progressive education,28 little evidence exists specifically to delineate influences, theoretical and practical, on the educational philosophy of Parker, as they relate to language arts/reading instruction.29 A problem exists in that there is no historical study

25Parker, "Teaching," p. 49.
26Parker, "Teaching," p. 50.
28Dewey, Education Today, p.217 ; see also Dangler, School and Society, pp. 370-371.
defining influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. Specific areas which need to be investigated are:

(1) What general-personal influences contributed to Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction,

(2) What formal-educative influences contributed to Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, and

(3) What associative influences contributed to Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction.

Rationale for the Study

Writing in 1969, Edward Power noted that "work on Parker is neither so good nor so complete as we might like." Practical considerations appear to bear this statement out, as few major studies of Parker exist. Campbell testifies that his place in American


educational history has generally been found in footnotes, rather than
prominently in the texts of material. 32

An historical study of the influences on Parker's philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction could contribute to the
development of a comprehensive history and science of American education, for, as Parker has said,

... not to understand the history of education and, through it, all that has in the past been done for schools; not to know its reformers, its heroes, who bravely and wisely fought battles for the masses; ... would have been
deprove of our inability to grapple with the problems of education. But gratefully recognizing the wealth of knowledge, experience, and method which the past has brought, and comparing the achievements of the past with present human necessities and possibilities, it seemed to us true that education as a science was in its swaddling clothes.33

G. Stanley Hall once pointed out that Parker was "one of the
greatest educators we have ever had. Elementary education in this country owes more to him during the past twenty years than to any other man." 34 And Fitzpatrick called him the greatest reformer of national scope, in the development of elementary schools, in the nation's history—surpassing even Horace Mann and E. A. Sheldon. 35 It seems

32 Ibid.
33 Parker, "Normal School," p. 753.
fitting, then, that additional studies pertaining to Francis Parker should be conducted to place him in his proper role as a reformer, a hero, one who fought battles for the masses, and thus, as Campbell says, remove him from the footnotes of history.

Treatment of the Problem

In order to determine the influences on Francis Wayland Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, this study is organized into chapters which will cover the material in the following manner.

Chapter 2. Chapter 2 is a brief biography of Parker's life. In totality, the chapter traces his development from a young boy in Piscataquog, New Hampshire, to the culmination of his life's work in Chicago, Illinois. The chapter is divided into four sections: the first section deals with his life from his birth, in 1837, to 1872, when he leaves for Europe; the second section deals with his life in Europe, from 1872 to 1875; and the third section deals with his life from 1875 to 1902, while he is in Quincy, Massachusetts, and Chicago, Illinois. In the fourth section, there is a brief discussion of Parker's published works—both major and minor.

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36 Parker, "Normal School," p. 753.
37 Campbell, loc. cit.
38 This tripartite division was selected by this writer since Parker's life was divided by his trip to Europe and various distinct influences appear to fall within each of these periods.
Chapter 3. This chapter draws from Parker's major and minor works to establish his philosophy of education, in general, and his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. It is divided into three sections, one dealing with Parker's general philosophy of education, one dealing with his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts instruction, and one dealing with his philosophy of education as it relates to reading instruction.

Chapter 4. In Chapter 4, this study deals with the influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the first period in his life, 1837 to 1872. It notes general-personal influences, formal-educative influences, and associative influences.

Chapter 5. In Chapter 5, this study deals with the influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the second period in his life, 1872 to 1875. It notes general-personal influences, formal-educative influences, and associative influences.

Chapter 6. This chapter of the study deals with the influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the third period in his life, 1875 to 1902. It notes general-personal influences, formal-educative influences, and associative influences.

In order to determine adequately the influences on a man's philosophy, it was deemed necessary to state this philosophy.
Chapter 7. Chapter 7 summarizes the research and terminates the study. In so doing, it reports the findings and suggests additional studies which might help clarify Parker's educational philosophies.

Assumption and Limitations

(1) This study is based on the assumption that Francis Wayland Parker was an influence, himself, upon American educational philosophy and that more research needs to be done on factors influencing his educational beliefs.

(2) This study is limited to an evaluation and presentation of influences effecting Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction only.

(3) This study is limited in Chapter 3 to stating Parker's philosophy of education, in general, and philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction from materials of a primary nature. Philosophies attributed to him, but not directly supported by a primary source, will be disregarded.

(4) This study is limited to using available information accumulated from Parker's own writing, biographies, contemporary newspaper accounts, testimonials, the general literature, and personal correspondence, where obtainable.

(5) This study is limited in its discussion of reading to the skills areas: decoding (phonics), vocabulary, comprehension, study skills, and flexibility (versatility).

Definitions of Terms Used

Analytic method: beginning reading by first learning whole words, which could then be built into sentences or analyzed into letters and/or sounds. 41

Associative influences: those influences arising from association with individuals who were contemporaries or colleagues of Parker's.

Curriculum: "All the experiences which pupils have while under the direction of the school." 42

Formal-educative influences: those influences which originate from formal schooling, tutorials, or the study of printed materials.

General-personal influences: those influences originating from practical daily experiences, such as classroom teaching or school visitations.

Language arts: listening, speaking, reading and writing. 43

Language experience method: an approach to beginning reading based on the child's oral-experiential background. 44 From the child's standpoint, it is summarized as "What I can think about, I can say. What I can say I can write. I can read

41Mathews, Teaching to Read Historically Considered, pp. 37-43, pp. 65-100.


what I have written. I can read what others have written for me to read." 

Phonetics: "that segment of linguistic science which deals with speech sounds, how these are made vocally, sound changes which develop in languages, and the relation of speech sounds to the total language process." 

Phonics: "a facet of reading instruction which (1) leads the child to understand that printed letters in printed words represent the speech sounds heard when words are pronounced; (2) involves the actual teaching of which sound is associated with a particular letter or combination of letters." 

Synthetic method: beginning reading by first learning the names of letters and/or sounds of letters and then combining these into words.

Words-to-letters method: the teaching of reading by providing children with a sight vocabulary which is then used, synthetically, by the children, who learn sight-sound relationships within the words.

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47Ibid.


49Ibid., p. 63.
Words-to-reading approach: the teaching of reading by providing children with a sight vocabulary which is then used, holistically, by the children to read prepared or spontaneously developed materials.  

Concluding Statement

There is a lack of information on those factors influencing Francis Wayland Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. An historical study should be conducted to determine what these influences might have been, for a study of this nature could contribute to a comprehensive history of the philosophy of American education.

Chapter 2 of this study presents a brief biography of Francis Wayland Parker and includes a summary of his published work. Chapter 3 presents Parker's general philosophy of education, as well as his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. Chapter 4 discusses the influences on Parker's philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the earliest period of his life.

Chapter 5 discusses the influences on Parker's philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during Parker's years in Europe. Chapter 6 discusses the influences on Parker's philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the later period.
of his life. Chapter 7 is a summary of the entire study and presents concluding remarks and suggestions for additional studies.
Chapter 2

BIOGRAPHY OF FRANCIS WAYLAND PARKER

The purpose of this chapter is to present biographical data on Francis Wayland Parker. The chapter is divided into four sections: the first deals with his life from birth to the time he leaves for Europe, the second covers his life while studying and traveling abroad, and the third discusses his life after his return to the United States. The fourth section contains a brief discussion of Parker's published works.

The Formative Years: 1837 to 1872

His parents named him after Francis Wayland, President of Brown University, an educator who was well known for his intellectual abilities in matters moral and ethical and who led the way as a pioneer reformer in educational methods at the tertiary level. Young Francis Wayland Parker knew of this namesake, for Wayland's book on the life of Adoniran Judson was an early source of Parker's reading enjoyment, and he "read it with great pleasure."  


It may be that young Francis had need of youthful reading enjoyment, for the descriptions of his childhood do not indicate that it was the happiest. At the age of six his father died and, by the age of eight, he was placed in the care of a family named Moore. With this family, he was supposed to live and work until he was twenty-one. The move from his mother and home necessitated his leaving the small, unpainted cottage, which he had known since birth (October 9, 1837) in Piscatauquog, New Hampshire, and settling in nearby Goffstown; here, on a farm, he spent his summers helping with chores and "riding the horses to plough." At night he slept up in a little bit of a garret, so low I could hear the rain pattering on the roof as I lay in bed. I always loved to hear the rain, because I knew on that day I would not have to work, and could go a-fishing in the Piscatauquog River.

And when the weather worsened to signify winter, it meant that young Francis could attend school, if he wished, for about eight weeks.

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3 For the most comprehensive biographies see Jack Keneagy Campbell, "The Children's Crusader: Colonel Francis Wayland Parker," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Columbia University, 1965); Ida Casa Heffron, Francis Wayland Parker: An Interpretive Biography (Los Angeles: Ivan Deach, 1934); and Marion Foster Washburne, "Colonel Parker, the Man, and Educational Reformer," in Francis W. Parker, Talks on Teaching, reported by Lelia E. Patridge (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1883), pp. 6-19. This later work is hereafter referred to as "Teaching."

4 Campbell, p. 25.

5 Parker, "Sketch," p. 112.

6 Ibid., pp. 112-113.
during the year; to him, this was not much, for he was "extremely anxious to become educated." 

At the age of thirteen, Francis Parker left the Moore's eight years before his bondage expired, and went off to Mt. Vernon, where there was an academy. He stayed here for five years: three at Mt. Vernon Academy and, according to Campbell, two at Hopkinton Academy, where he studied under Dyer H. Sanborn until the age of eighteen. During these later two years he also taught in local schools.

From 1854 to 1872, Parker taught in schools in New Hampshire, Illinois, and Ohio. Between assignments in Illinois and New Hampshire, came marriage and the Civil War; according to Parker, the war strongly influenced not only his general life but his educational philosophies as well.

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7Campbell, loc. cit.
8Parker, op. cit., p. 117.
9Washburne, "Colonel Parker, the Man and Educational Reformer," p. 7.
10Campbell, p. 32. Mt. Vernon Academy could have been Appleton Academy, which later changed its name to McCollom Institute. Parker, on July 20, 1875, gave the "oration" at the "Twenty-Fifth Anniversary and Triennial Re-Union of Alumni." See Francis W. Parker, "Francis W. Parker Scrapbooks and Miscellaneous Papers," in Special Collections, Archives, The Joseph Regenstein Library, University of Chicago (hereafter referred to as "Scrapbooks"); this material is documented in Folder 2, Box 1.
11Washburne, loc. cit.
12See Washburne, p. 9; Parker met Phenie E. Hall when they were children at school. Phenie became a teacher and they corresponded on questions interesting to both of them. The two were married and had one daughter who died at an early age.
13Parker, loc. cit.
Parker's wife, Phenie, died in 1872. Restless and concerned with his educational outlooks, Parker decided to resign his position in Dayton, Ohio, and leave for Europe: "I had a little money at this time, coming from an aunt who left me $5000, and I took this and went to Germany, to Berlin, and studied in the University of King William in Berlin."\(^\text{14}\)

**Study Abroad: 1872 to 1875**

Neither Parker nor his biographers shed much light on his years on the continent. Evidence does exist to show that he attended the University of Berlin,\(^\text{15}\) which was founded during the reign of Frederich William III of Prussia.\(^\text{16}\) In Germany, Parker studied psychology, philosophy, history, and pedagogics\(^\text{17}\) at the University's School of Philosophy,\(^\text{18}\) while taking some private coaching on the side.\(^\text{19}\) He visited the schools of Berlin, especially evaluating the kindergartens.\(^\text{20}\) During his vacations, he traveled in Holland, Switzerland, Italy and France,\(^\text{21}\) and, after two-and-a-half years, returned to America in the winter of 1874-5.\(^\text{22}\)

**Post Europe: 1875 to 1902**

After returning to the United States from his travels abroad,

\(^\text{14}\)Ibid., p. 129
\(^\text{15}\)Ibid.
\(^\text{16}\)Campbell, op. cit., p. 230.
\(^\text{17}\)Washburne, op. cit., p. 11.
\(^\text{18}\)Campbell, loc. cit.
\(^\text{19}\)Washburne, op. cit., p. 12.
\(^\text{20}\)Parker, loc. cit.
\(^\text{21}\)Ibid.
\(^\text{22}\)Campbell, op. cit., p. 260.
Parker had difficulty finding work. Not until he applied for an opening in Massachusetts did he acquire the position which led to his national fame--the Superintendency of the Quincy schools. Here began what was known as the Quincy Movement:

The set program [in the schools] was dropped, then the speller, the reader, the grammar, and the copy book. The alphabet, too, was treated with slight deference; it was not introduced to the children by name, but they were set at once to work making words and sentences. The teachers woke up, and had to depend upon lively wits for success. No longer could they comfortably hear recitations from convenient text-books--there were not text-books. Other books there were in plenty, and magazines and newspapers. Teachers and pupils had to learn first of all to think and observe, then by-and-by they put these powers to work on the required subjects. These were few; the Quincy committee was determined that the children should be able to read well at sight, to write correctly, and to compute sums required in ordinary business transactions. They were to know geography, practically, and the leading events in history, and to have trained faculties and senses with which to acquire such other knowledges as they might desire later on.

The plan succeeded beyond the fondest hopes of its promoters. The quiet Massachusetts town became the goal for inquiring teachers from all over the country.


25 Washburne, p. 13; also, Heffron claims that "during the years 1878-1880 [while in Quincy] his new educational ideas were first formulated," p. 23; however, Campbell argues that the majority of Parker's ideas were conceived before he left for Europe, generally at Dayton, p. 2. Also, Parker, in "The Quincy Method," Annual Reports of the Department of the Interior, Commissioner of Education (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1903), clarified Washburne's textbook remark: "We did not banish text-books: we added to them," p. 240. Also see Parker, "Scrapbooks," No. 1. There are two informative articles on Quincy taken from newspapers: "The Schools of Quincy--Four Years of Innovation and Revolution," in the Boston Herald, September 15, [1879?], p. 11, and J. G. Murphy, "Language Development," in the Fishkill Standard, March 27, 1880, pp. 90-93.
In 1880, the opportunity arose for Parker to assume the position of Supervisor of one of Boston's school districts. He accepted the position, and remained there during a stormy tenure of three years.

The position was not, to say the least, what I wanted. I wanted to come in closer contact with the schools, that I might verify the suspicion of better things which I thought were in store for the children.

In 1883 he married Mrs. Frank Stuart, and then became the Principal of the Cook County Normal School of Chicago. Here, he was given full charge of the school, with the freedom to appoint his own teachers.

Evidently, though, Parker's work at the Normal School antagonized members of the school board, for the sixteen years he was at the Normal School seemed to be fraught with quarrels over admissions standards, finances, staff and class sizes. These arguments continued until 1899, when Parker resigned to take control of the Chicago Institute of Pedagogy, which had been founded and endowed by Mrs. Emmans Blaine, a daughter of Cyrus McCormick. His happiness at this position was diminished by the death of his wife of sixteen years, but

26 Parker, op. cit., p. 132.
28 Parker, op. cit., p. 130.
30 Parker, "Sketch," p. 133.
31 Washburne, op. cit., pp. 15-17.
32 Ibid., pp. 1-19.
he continued on, organizing the institute into two divisions: (1) an academic department for kindergarten through high school, plus two years of college work and (2) a pedagogic school for teachers and specialists. In 1900 the Institute joined with the University of Chicago and Parker assumed the role of Director of the School of Education. In 1901, he made one of his last appearances at the groundbreaking ceremonies for Emmons Blaine Hall; here, "he officially broke the ground . . . and delivered an address which ended with a quotation from Froebel: 'Come let us live with the children.'" Parker died on March 2, 1902.

Parker's Work

Throughout his life, Parker considered himself a disciple of the new education, whose followers

... believe that there is an immense margin between the known and unknown in education.

The followers of the new education count in their ranks every great thinker and writer upon education from Socrates to Horace Mann, 'who point to higher worlds and lead the way.' Thought that penetrates hidden forces in nature and expresses itself in wood, iron and steel, has within eighty years revolutionized the civilized world; is it then too much to hope for, that when the same mental energy is turned upon the evolution of thought and thought power, still more wonderful changes will be made?

The new education simply means the thoughtful teacher who has an ideal founded upon the vast possibilities of human development, an ideal far beyond himself, and outside the reach of methods he now uses.35

33Ibid., pp. 17-19.


Parker was attempting to reach for this idea and was formulating his educational thoughts from historical and contemporary studies which offered elements germane to him at a given time. \(^{36}\) He attempted to synthesize a philosophy which would be indigenous to America, while at the same time admitting that

I am simply trying to apply well established principles of teaching, principles derived directly from the laws of the mind ... I have introduced no new principle, method, or detail. \(^{37}\)

Despite Parker's reaching out for new ideas and scientific laws over the years, a study of his writings indicates, as Campbell says, that the threads of his ideology existed before 1872--before he left for Europe. \(^{38}\)

After his return from abroad, Parker began publishing; his works spread over a period of twenty-five years, beginning in 1877. His major publications \(^{39}\) are as follows:

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\(^{38}\) Campbell, p. 2; this writer has found few areas in which Parker changed his philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction (see Chapter 3). It appears that, for the most part, Parker, as he read and studied, selected philosophic ideas and strategies that complemented or supplemented the nucleus of a philosophy of education which he had formed by 1872.

\(^{39}\) Parker, "Teaching," cited on p. 16; Francis Wayland Parker, Talks on Pedagogics: An Outline of the Theory of Concentration (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1894). Neither of these elaborates on his philosophy of education, in general, or his philosophy of education, as it related to language arts/reading instruction, to the exclusion of the other; neither could stand alone in a discussion of the nature of this paper. The later work is more philosophic; the earlier work is concerned with methods.
1. Talks on Teaching (1883), reported by Lelia E. Patridge, and
2. Talks on Pedagogics (1894).

His minor publications include the following:
1. Supplementary Reading for Primary School (1880), with Louis H. Marvel,
2. Tracts for Teachers. Spelling (1882),
3. the "Preface" to T. Tate's The Philosophy of Education (1884), and
4. How to Study Geography (1889).

There are articles by Parker in numerous periodicals which supplement his philosophy as it is found in his books. Among the periodicals in which his work can be found are the following:
1. the New England Journal of Education,
2. the School Journal,
3. The Teacher's Institute,
4. The Practical Teacher,
5. American Journal of Sociology,
6. Course of Study.

Concluding Statement

Parker's educational philosophy is found interspersed

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Francis W. Parker and Louis H. Marvel, Supplementary Reading for Primary School (Boston: R. S. Davis and Company, 1880); Francis W. Parker, Tracts for Teachers. Spelling (Boston: W. Small, 1882); Francis W. Parker, "Preface" to T. Tate, cited on p.21; Francis W. Parker, How to Study Geography (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1889).
throughout all of his publications mentioned above. However, the nucleus of his ideas exist in his two major works, and they are elaborated upon in Chapter 3.41

Chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7, which follow, make use of the critical materials from secondary sources which were (1) contemporary to Parker and which are (2) found in current books and periodicals.

41Chapter 3 of this paper is limited to using only primary sources in setting forth Parker's philosophy of education and his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction; thus Chapter 3 draws heavily from his major works. See Chapter 1, p. 10.
Chapter 3

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

This chapter provides an outline of Parker's philosophy of education, in general, and of his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. The three sections—general philosophy, language instruction philosophy, and reading instruction philosophy—are based substantially on primary sources.

General Philosophy

Francis Parker never claimed originality for his educational philosophy. However, he adamantly declared that he was no man's, and no school of thought's disciple: "mere discipleship closes the way to progress, instead of opening it." Besides, it would never do, in America, to be a "follower." Despite this attitude from Parker, Cremin writes that his philosophy "ends up more Rousseauan than anything

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3 Quoted in Campbell, p. 456.
DeGarmo sees Herbart and Ziller in his work; Curti emphasizes his transcendentalism and pantheism; and Campbell notes his similarities to Froebel and Pestalozzi. From his studies, Parker attempted to synthesize his findings to accomplish what he considered to be his overriding purpose: "If I should tell you any secret of my life, it is the intense desire I have to see growth and improvement in human beings."

To this end, Parker worked in the role of the great American democrat. He championed the young American system, claiming "Democracy is the one hope of the world; we must maintain and extend the democratic principles to all phases of our daily lives."

In a democracy Parker saw a society founded on responsibility of the individual, not only for himself, but for his fellow men. Only by improving man could society be improved;

A fundamental principle of democracy is the responsibility of each for all, and all for each. If one is weak in the government, if one is weak who has the ballot, who has choosing power, it means the weakness of all; and

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4 Cremin, op. cit., p. 134.
7 Campbell, op. cit., p. 455.
8 Quoted in Cremin, pp. 128-129.
10 Quoted in Curti, p. 354.
it becomes the imperative duty of all to present the needed conditions to awaken the feeling of responsibility. 11

Disdainful of aristocratic societies which, Parker felt, oppressed the masses, he saw in democracy the opportunity for freedom—the goal of humanity. Democracy gave man liberty, which was his right; but freedom came from individual initiative. 12

The highest personal right a community can afford to an individual is the liberty and the means to become free . . . . The means of acquiring freedom may be summed up in one word—education. 13

But the development of individuality through personal freedom was to be cherished, not only because of the divine character of every human being, but also because "personal liberty is the one means of making the individual of worth to the mass." 14

As his vehicle to accomplish the development of individual responsibility and thus social growth, Parker chose the common school. For it was here that the members of all social classes, nationalities, sects, rich and poor alike, could work and learn together. 15

In America we are bringing together all peoples from all parts of the known world, with all their prejudices born of centuries, each naturally having its own customs, rooted in earliest times and growing with the national growth . . . . Here they come into our broad continent, and we propose to have them live together, and legislate together for the


12Ibid.

13Ibid.

14Curti, op. cit., p. 385.

15Parker, op. cit., p. 420.
best good of the whole . . . Amalgamation of interests and ideas is the key-note of the situation: if any people or sect, no matter what, comes to America, lives by itself, speaks its own language, refuses to learn the genius of American citizenship it weakens all. 16

The common school was to prevent this type of pluralism from occurring, for it was not only educational in nature but explicitly democratic, integrating all social classes. And, this social factor was the greatest factor of all: children could learn from each other by mingling, blending, fusing, and could give substantial force to the building of democracy. 17 Thus, the school would be a "germinal republic, the embryonic nation." 18

The child. The center of the curriculum for Parker was the child, and he was particularly concerned with two realms of its becoming. Firstly, he was interested in the mental-physical realm, and secondly, he was interested in the moral realm. In the former, the constraint of heredity was his guide; the child was an organism with inherent bone, muscle and brain determinants. Parker did admit, however, that "no human being ever had the external conditions for growth

15 Parker, op. cit., p. 420.
16 Ibid., p. 422.
17 Ibid., p. 421.
by which the full responsibilities ... have been realized."¹⁹ This child, basically controlled by heredity, was to be seen as an organic central energy unit into which external energies reached via this child's senses. No external energy could enter the child's brain without passing through the senses, and even then some energies reaching the brain came to rest below the plane of consciousness. Just how energies reaching the brain were to be interpreted by the child organism depended upon "the passive power and delicacy of the organism itself."²⁰ Parker believed that the child-organism developed naturally, under motive, directing self activity, which had "no overpowering consciousness of the means or forms of expression."²¹ "Childhood is full of activities of every kind, stimulated by external energies and shaped by internal power. The child experiments until it gains its ends."²²

The moral component in children, as Parker saw it, was inherent: children were intrinsically moral. So, "with inherent 'interest' as the motive of educative work, and with love as the essence of teaching, children would work out God's design of a moral and democratic life. In

¹⁹Parker, op. cit., p. 4.
²⁰Parker, "Pedagogics," pp. 4-5; see also F. W. Parker, "Talks on Psychology," School Journal, XXXI (June 26, 1886), in which he claims "the ego sees and hears only that which is in the consciousness, and that which is in the consciousness comes directly from unconsciousness; nothing comes in the consciousness directly from the external world. The immediate effect of externality upon the consciousness through any and all the senses is to make the ego conscious of ideas already in the mind," p. 408.
²²Ibid.
seeking truth they would be free." The proper character development would occur from the correct educational environment.

That order, harmony, and brotherly love grow from within and develop under proper environment and inspiration into spiritual life . . . [and] that these inherent attributes become organized in character as necessities derived from the relationship of the outer demand to the inner needs,

was a tenet of Parker's Chicago Institute and also a philosophical basis of much of his earlier work.25

Thus, children needed freedom in order to seek truth, to learn freedom and the responsibility of democracy. Since, in the past, the curriculum had been tied to a tradition of regimentation which presented children with separated and isolated subject matter, Parker "organized a curriculum based on the hypothesis that there was a natural unification of subject matter, just as there was a unity of action and expression in the child, a unity of 'mind, body and soul.'"26 His curriculum, however, needed teachers who were trained artisans in applying a science of education.27


25Ibid.

26Campbell, op. cit., pp. 420-421.

27Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 541. See also Parker, "Pedagogical Creed," where he says "I believe that man is the demand, God the supply, and the teacher the mediator, and when the day comes that this mediation shall approach perfection the human race will enter into new life," p. 56
Progress in education means a knowledge of the science of education and its application; it means that teachers must be educated, cultured, and trained into the most important of all professions.  

Parker's teachers were to be "quality teachers," having possession of "a wholesome personality, a pioneering spirit, a scientific attitude, and a faith in the improvability of the human race." Francis Parker saw that the society of tomorrow was influenced to a large degree by the teachers of today.

The common schools, then, were to be the recipients of progress; here was to be implemented scientific laws where quality mental action--as opposed to quantity mental action--would occur. It was quality mental action that led to the development of mental and moral power; students gaining these attributes would have "character" and become responsible citizens in a democracy.  

"The progress of the common school imperatively demands the application of the science of education." To better understand this "science of education," one should look to Parker's theory of concentration.

The Theory of Concentration. Jack Campbell, writing in 1965, points out that Parker's theory of concentration was "an attempt in the synthetic tradition of Compte and Spencer to unite all knowledge. It

29 Danger, School and Society, p. 355.
30 Ibid., pp. 355-356.
32 Ibid., p. 445.
was also an attempt, in the line of Kant and the Transcendentalists, to unite the two worlds of nature and spirit.\textsuperscript{33} Parker himself admitted this when he emphasized the principle upon which his theory was built: "Unity of body, mind, and soul, unity of educative effort, unity of action, unity of thought and expression are the aims of the theory of concentration."\textsuperscript{34} To achieve his end, and as a point of departure for his theory, Parker turned to the concept that design was a fundamental principle in all that exists.\textsuperscript{35}

There is a design in each individual being. Another term for design is possibilities to be realized. The working out of the design of a human being into character is education; the realization of all the possibilities of human growth and development is education. In the presentation of conditions for the working out of that design, or the realization of possibilities, consists the art of educating. All mental and moral development is by self activity. Education is the economizing of self effort in the direction of all-sided development. Economy of energy is the intrinsic mark and sign of all progress in nature and art.\textsuperscript{36}

This design originated with creation and could be discovered only in the search for truth. The child, by his intrinsic self action and natural striving for truth, when presented with certain central subjects of study, would come closest to discovering the truth of creation.\textsuperscript{37}

\textbf{The central subjects of study.} Parker's curriculum consisted

\textsuperscript{33}\textsuperscript{Campbell, op. cit., p. 458.}

\textsuperscript{34}\textsuperscript{Parker, op. cit., p. 25.}

\textsuperscript{35}\textsuperscript{Ibid.}

\textsuperscript{36}\textsuperscript{Ibid.}

\textsuperscript{37}\textsuperscript{Ibid.}
of the sciences of inorganic matter (the central subjects of study) supplemented by "modes of motion" or "laws of change": physics and chemistry and sciences pertaining to organic matter or to life. The central subjects of study were geography, meteorology, geology, mineralogy; the sciences pertaining to organic matter or to life were: botany, paleontology, zoology, anthropology, ethnology, and history (which was in turn united with geography). All these subjects were to be considered as one, for several reasons. First, they were all related by form; each object in the universe has form (which is the surface limitation of a body of matter) and this form is the product of energy. Second, they were all related by number; all matter has size, and "number, as a mode of judgment, is common to the study of all the central subjects." Third, they are related by function; there is a dependent interrelationship between one study and another. "Leave out the subject of one study, and none of the others could exist." And, fourth, there is the relationship of cause and effect, or law. "Initial study is always the study of effects." This relationship is the end aim of all studies as it leads to the Infinite, or creation.

Form and number. Form and number are modes of human judgment and hold a central place in Parker's theory. All objects, or forms, were known to man by their shape, which was determined by energy.

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38 Parker, "Pedagogics," pp. 34-35. 39 Ibid., pp. 43-44.
40 Ibid., p. 44. 41 Ibid.
42 Ibid., p. 46.
Educative knowledge was based upon man's ability to judge objects with some degree of accuracy. This accuracy was dependent upon man's sensual impressions--external energy from objects entered the brain through smell and taste, hearing, sight and touch; the tactile sense was the "greatest intellectual" one. Through the senses, the nearer the approximation to adequacy a concept of form corresponding to an object comes, the higher or more valuable our knowledge of that object may be, or our comprehension. A knowledge of form, then, is the great entrance hall to all knowledge; without knowledge of form, other knowledge is not possible.

A child's initial concepts were elementary--vague, crude; they provided the beginning of education but their development had to be supplemented with other elementary ideas to form concepts so analyzation, inference, and generalization could occur. It was possible, however, for the mind to form new concepts without the use of elementary ideas from objects, per se. When this occurred it was called "imagination" and was the direct result of geometry, the science of imagining forms lying beyond the limits of the senses.

A person with crude ideas of form can never by the imagination construct anything but crude forms... the only educational value that crude or obscure elementary ideas and imperfect individual concepts have, consists in the fact that they are the germs

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43Ibid., pp. 47-51.
44Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 54; see also Parker, "Talks on Psychology," p. 408.
45Parker, op. cit., pp. 55-58.
or potentialities for development. . . . On the other hand, a good observer may not have a highly trained imagination.46

The study of objects was to be a means to an end, not an end in itself. Only by coming to know objects could one better hope to learn the truth; geometry, by providing imagination, brought one a step closer to creation. This science, said Parker, should probably be taught in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, "then the direct study of conventional or typical forms becomes necessary in order to imagine the real forms which lie beyond the senses."47

Through the knowledge and use of number (arithmetic), the child would come to judge such items as weight, mass and size; in this way he could more realistically evaluate objects in his search for truth. Parker saw children learning number by natural, spontaneous activity, such as walking and crawling, grasping and handling. He frowned on number being taught as an end in itself in the curriculum, for hard, cold facts are not meaningful.48

Attention and observation. In order for the modes of judgment to act, to be effective, Parker suggested that attention and observation were necessary. Attention was the "mental process immediately caused by the action of the attributes of external objects."49 Basically, it was the proper attitude of external energies to enter the mind and, in an unconscious and automatic fashion, form concepts. Attention

48 Ibid., pp. 63-80. 49 Ibid., p. 107.
allowed this process to occur without the volition of the ego; "most of the mistakes in the science and art of teaching have risen from the false notion that the ego itself can directly create fundamental ideas or individual concepts." However, the more receptive the organism, and the more self effort and motivation exercised by the will (or ego), the more effectively the external and internal energies act in conceptual-educative formations.

The cultivation of the habit of attention is the main factor in education,--the habit of observing closely, listening intently to language, and of reading intensely are the fundamental means by which self-activity is induced and developed.

These areas, then, observation, hearing-language, and reading were the three modes of attention. The first of these, observation, was "the mental or conscious activities aroused by the continuous action of external objects." Here, the mind was cognizant of external objects and overtly attending them; objects entered the mind and formed concepts as an approximation of themselves, for "the arrangement of the individual concept must be vastly inferior to the arrangement of the attribute in the object. . . . An adequate individual concept is purely ideal." However, the stronger the motive to observe, the better the chance for intellectual action and educative growth through proper concept formation.

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51 Ibid., pp. 112-115.
52 Ibid., p. 132.
53 Ibid., p. 141.
54 Ibid., p. 144.
55 Ibid., p. 148.
Theory of Concentration criticized. Often Parker was criticized for his ideas. Two of the most respectable and vocal of his critics were Charles De Garmo and William T. Harris.

Charles De Garmo, an Herbartian scholar and contemporary of Parker, compared Parker's philosophy to that of Ziller, who was strongly influenced by Herbart and who created a theory of concentration oriented around history, literature and religion. De Garmo quickly pointed out, favorably, that Parker's "concentration based on the philosophic unity of all knowledge is a distinctly American contribution to the theory of education," but he hastened to add that there were several major deficiencies in the plan. These generally arose from the standpoint that to make a philosophical unity of knowledge the basis of the theory required a philosopher-teacher as well as a philosopher-student. This, De Garmo felt, was an impossibility. Continuing, he noted that Parker's theory neglected the cultural side of education in lieu of emphasizing material facts of knowledge in the sciences; "the savage," said De Garmo, "even, learns much of nature, but his savagery exists because he knows so little of man and his institutions." Furthermore, De Garmo criticized Parker's methods of teaching the modes of expression, feeling that leaving these to the incidental was the

56 De Garmo, Herbart and the Herbartians, pp. 221-224. However, theologians as early as St. Bonaventure were building on the work of Plato and Aristotle, maintaining a structured unity of knowledge; see Efrem Bettoni, Saint Bonaventure, trans. Angelus Gambatere (Indiana: University of Notre Dame Press, 1964), pp. 29-36.

57 De Garmo, op. cit., p. 225.
equivalent of not teaching them at all; \(^{58}\) Parker had always supported the idea that the language arts should be taught when needed—in a psychological fashion, rather than in a logical, goal oriented progression. \(^{59}\) Finally, De Garmo saw Parker's belief that psychological sequence was more important than logical sequence to be contradictory to his own basic philosophical belief.

A philosophical unity of knowledge as a basis for concentration leads inevitably to an emphasis of the LOGICAL at the expense of the PSYCHOLOGICAL principle of sequence. It is only after the separate sciences are well developed individually that their philosophical interrelations are clearly perceived. \(^{60}\)

Thus, the scholars criticized Parker, not so much for his attempt at a philosophy but because they saw what they believed to be glaring inconsistencies. Parker was not kindly treated by William T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, either. Harris was in disagreement with Parker's philosophy in that he believed the schools' responsibilities followed those of the "family, church, and state in the formation of character and citizenship." \(^{61}\) He was not pleased with the idea of the school usurping the duties of these other institutions. But Harris' criticism went even deeper. Fundamentally he saw society as the center of the curriculum and would induct children into the society rather

\(^{58}\)Ibid.

\(^{59}\)Parker, op. cit., p. 299

\(^{60}\)De Garmo, op. cit., pp. 225-226.

\(^{61}\)Campbell, "The Children's Crusader: Colonel Francis Wayland Parker," p. 433
than using Parker's method of adapting social factors to children's needs. 62 Parker rejected Harris' criticisms, stating that "the prejudices and traditions of society outside the school make ideal society, as an immediate proposition, impossible." 63 The argument between the two men was taken further as Harris called for a curriculum correlated around five parallel area studies; he believed correlation, in this respect, to provide logical sequencing while at the same time providing a psychological symmetry through the exercising of the faculties of the mind. 64 Parker was more concerned with a plan of organic unity, which he felt his theory provided.

Throughout his life Parker was confronted with negative criticisms of these types. It wasn't until Pierce gave the name "pragmatism" to the philosophical revolt against formalism that the "new education" (to which some of Parker's ideas conformed) became respectable. Pragmatism gave intellectual support to Parker and helped pave the way for education based on helping men towards democratic self-government. 65

Language Arts

As did many of his contemporaries, Francis Parker saw language

62Campbell, p. 433. Parker often reflects a Kantian viewpoint, one which he may have acquired from his study in Europe.


64Campbell, op. cit., pp. 435-436.

65Ibid., pp. 432-448.
development paralleling the development of the human race.

The relation of a language to a people who created it has much the same relation as has the body to the mind. A language is a body created, not by one individual, but contributed to by all of the individual units of a people and their progenitors from the beginning. The creation or development of a language is an absolute necessity to thought development, following the laws of all forms of expression. The general thought of a people, whatever the degree of civilization to which it has arrived, is indicated by the language of that people.66

Language, then, emanated from expression, which in turn began with thought. Parker saw, here, a hierarchy of action which developed in an expression continuum: (1) there needed to be a motive as a basis of the expression. Parker called this the "intrinsic quality of the soul."67 (2) there was a demand, due to motive, for certain, deliberate mental action which continually reshaped the expressive act. (3) the will exerted a continuous "pressure" for the execution of the motive. (4) expression became manifest in physical actions,68 due to the striving of the will to make skill in expression adequate to the thought, and

66Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 175.

67 Ibid., p. 228.

68 See Francis W. Parker, "Francis W. Parker Scrapbooks and Miscellaneous Papers," in Special Collections, Archives, the Joseph Regenstein Library, University of Chicago (hereafter referred to as "Scrapbooks"); in "Scrapbooks," No. 9, there is an article attributed to the Journal of Education (April, 1888), by Parker, stating that "All mental action has a physical basis. Each nerve cell and each fibre has its appointed office. Each mode of expression has in the brain a brain-mass, a certain number of nerve cells. The disuse of any part of the brain affects all the rest. There is an order of development, at certain times certain sets of activities are ready for use. no pagination.
expression depended upon either attention or reflection or both, for attention was based on the motive of expression and the trend of all human thought was toward expressive action. 

According to Parker, there were nine modes of expression:


The most elementary and fundamental of these was gesture, which carries its influence over to the conceptive modes, enhances their power, and even remains an incomparable means of thought and feeling. Voice is embryonic speech; its finest qualities are displayed in vocal music. Music in turn, makes speech beautiful and breathed its rhythmic sweetness and power through poetry. The conceptive modes of expression develop concentration of thought; speech and writing expand and broaden thought.

In essence, then, expression was giving form and action to thought. Once expression of some type had occurred, then it could be modified or elaborated by other thoughts and/or other modes of expression, but "the correlation of thought with all modes of expression is a great pedagogical truth." Language, to Parker, was a consequence of expression—it began with gesture and manifested itself in the expressive modes of voice, speech and writing. But in its most functional form, language was speech, for speech was the means for growth and the stage of growth of a people.

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70 Ibid., p. 224.
71 Ibid., pp. 250-251.
72 Ibid., p. 250.
73 Parker, "Art in Everything," p. 772
By this is not meant accuracy and polish of speech, but its power as a medium of thought expression. The motive of speech is the immediate conveyance of thought to others; the controlling impulse is to move others to a complete understanding of one's thought.  

Language was a means, not an end:

It is an extravagance of time to require a child to make a sentence with this or that word in it. If you develop the thought necessary for the pursuit of . . . other studies the words and sentences required will be sufficient for the learning of the language.

Initially, children were seen by Parker to make their own language; it was one of gesture, of babblings, and one which had vague but significant meanings for the child. Eventually he learned the language spoken around him.

The secret of a child's learning words is that they come to him in the white heat of his conscious activities. When he most wants to know what an object is, the name is given him and he learns it for life.

Then that marvelous mechanism of the physical organization, the voice, is called into existence to give expression to the word he has heard. He tries to express it exactly as it is formed in his concept.

Parker believed it was a mistake to minimize, though, the difficulties in speech acquisition. In fact, he saw the relationship between hearing for speech, which was of course necessary, and speech, itself, while quite close, also quite complex. Hearing language and speaking language were "two things entirely different in themselves and

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76 Parker, "Scrapbooks," No. 9, in an article entitled "Expression by Correspondence," attributed to Journal of Education (1888), no pagination.
in acquisition; hearing is learned by a series of acts of attention; speaking, by practice in uttering thought. In anything like scientific investigation the two must be kept separate.\textsuperscript{77}

**Hearing language--listening.** Oral language aroused in children mental activity through the law of association:

When two activities, either simple or complex, follow each other immediately in consciousness, the reappearance of one of these activities in an after state of consciousness has a tendency to recall or arouse the other.\textsuperscript{78}

In making this association, children were helped intuitively by parents, who encouraged hearing when allowing their child to observe objects and then by pronouncing the object's name for the child. Parents, Parker said, wisely did not divide the oral word into component parts but used a holistic-associationist technique which allowed natural auditory acquisition. The word which a child heard, and thus acquired, was adapted to immediate necessity of thought--and, in the context, became his own. It conformed with thought and with speech to exist as a unit derived from intrinsic self interest.\textsuperscript{79} The law of association, as applied to hearing speech, led to a second important law, one which was also important in hearing-speech acquisition; this was the law for functioning words:

\textsuperscript{77}Parker, "Pedagogics," pp. 178-179.

\textsuperscript{78}Ibid., p. 193. Also see Campbell, who maintains that "a school of 'associationists,' deriving inspiration from the empiricism of Herbart, were denying the rationalist contention that specific mental faculties . . . existed. Parker was so intrigued by this new psychology that he insisted it was the central basis of the new education," p. 452.

\textsuperscript{79}Parker, "Pedagogics," pp. 183-184.
The effect of the word or its correspondence must be succeeded immediately in consciousness by the appropriate activities which the word was made to arouse; or, conversely, the appropriate activities must be immediately succeeded by the effect of the printed word upon the consciousness. 80

As a child grew, Parker envisioned two obstacles to hearing:

1. The artificial analyzing of the pronunciation of words, including enunciation, articulation, pauses, accent and rhythm.

2. The mastering of idioms and various syntaxes. Parker felt these were arbitrary and should be learned by thought association with the conscious effect of the idiom. 81

Speech. As seen by Parker, speech development began with

... articulated voice, the skillful cutting or manipulation of qualities or elements combined, and associated in the pronunciation of words. Pronunciation consists of enunciation of distinct sounds, and the articulation of these sounds into words. Each enunciated sound in the oral language is a quality of voice made by the breath as it passes through the vocal cavity. The distinct shape of the vocal cavity determines the sound made. 82

In "Pedagogics," Parker acknowledged that the basis of articulated sound, the motivating factor, could have been the "bow-wow" impulse. 83

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80 Ibid., p. 194. See also Francis W. Parker, "Reading," in Practical Teacher, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (September, 1884), p. 2.

81 Ibid., pp. 179-180. See also Parker, "Scrapbooks," No. 9 an article entitled "The Question of Economy," and attributed to the Journal of Education (May, 1888), in which he says "teaching a child false syntax, for instance, is a lamentable wast of time; for whatever enters into consciousness has a tendency to stay there," no. pagination.

82 Ibid., p. 245; also see Appendix A for a more formal delineation of Parker's mechanics of speech.

83 Ibid., p. 245.
The theory associated with this held that "man through his power of imitation of natural sounds suddenly hit upon the device of using these sounds as a means of representing the external objects imitated." But Parker refused to accept this theory in total. In fact, he admitted that "the enunciation, articulation, and accent of spoken languages [were] all extremely complex," and not traceable to one theory. Instead, he decided to concern himself with the mental aspects of speech development, which he saw following a sequential process. First, there was sensual acquisition of ideas from the external world; second, thought development for the ideas in their relations occurred; third, words were associated with ideas, fourth, idioms or forms of sentences were associated with thought; fifth, the will was exercised in control of thought and expression; and, sixth, there was articulation of words and idioms in order to express thought. Thus, as a result of the association process, the child developed the habit of oral language. Once the oral language habit was established, it only could be changed with

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85 Parker, "Scrapbooks," No. 9, an article entitled "Expression by Correspondence," and attributed to the Journal of Education (1888), no pagination.

86 Francis W. Parker, Talks on Teaching, reported by Lelia E. Patridge (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1883), p. 23, hereafter referred to as "Teaching."

87 Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 311.

88 Parker, "Teaching," p. 23.
the greatest difficulty.\textsuperscript{89} In fact, Parker saw the six year old entering school with more knowledge of language than he would ever afterwards learn.\textsuperscript{90} And, if he were allowed to express his thoughts in speech naturally, he would never make a mistake in emphasis.\textsuperscript{91}

The thought and emotion which impel to vocal expression manifest themselves in emphasis, rhythmic cadence, melody and harmony, varieties of force, pitch, and quality, by which the thought is discriminated and the character of the emotion demonstrated.\textsuperscript{92}

In school, the methods of speech instruction should be those consistent with nature's methods, for the way in which children acquired speech naturally could not be improved upon. However, Parker did see nature's way as being enhanced by new matter and varied conditions.\textsuperscript{93} Nothing should be done to help the child's speech until he could talk with great freedom; but after he could do this, the child should not be allowed to use non-grammatical forms. The best way to correct improper speech was to provide the child with opportunities to use proper speech patterns. This, of course, would be done with the use of objects.

If, for instance, the child uses is for are, lead the child to talk about numbers of objects before him, using the word are. . . . All new idioms should be learned in the oral language and not in the written. All the modifications of

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\textsuperscript{89} Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 310.
\textsuperscript{90} Ibid., pp. 185, 311. See also Parker, "Reading," Practical Teacher, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (September, 1884), p. 2.
\textsuperscript{91} Ibid., p. 312
\textsuperscript{92} Ibid., p. 311.
\textsuperscript{93} Ibid., p. 312.
\end{flushright}
subject and predicate may be taught objectively. For instance, the adverbs and adjectives. Objects could be placed in various positions and then questions asked to elicit prepositional exposition, comparisons and contrasts, and qualities. After oral language is progressing well, then reading instruction should begin.94

Writing. Following speech, writing was

. . . the second great means of language expression. It should be put into the power of the child just as soon as possible, in order that he may express his thoughts as freely with the pencil as with the tongue.95

Parker saw writing as "talking with the pencil"96 and found it to be a greater means of learning to read than the numerous books of supplementary reading.97

When the child writes the first word, the unity of all language-teaching is begun. Getting thought and giving thought by spoken and written words should be united at the start, and grow through all future development as from one root.98

Over the years, Parker's ideas as to the correct method of beginning writing changes.99 In "Teaching," his earliest major work, Parker outlined his methodology as being based on the teacher instructing students from the blackboard. She would write a word which corre-

95 Ibid., p. 37.
96 Ibid., p. 39.
97 Ibid.
98 Ibid.
99 See F. W. Parker, "Spelling," Practical Teacher, Vol. II, No. 10 (June, 1879). In this early publication he suggests a method
sponded to an object, and, at the same time, pronounce the word. The children would write the word on their slates. However, while the word remained on the board, they might, first, following the teacher, write the word in the air, or they might trace the word, or they might write the word line by line as the teacher wrote it, or they might, without help, copy the word from the board several times on lined slates. The child should be encouraged no matter how badly he had done and if he didn't try, then he should not be discouraged. Once words were written and learned, then sentences should be taught in like manner. By use of the blackboard, continual associations could be made and the child would have repeated visual, associative practice. It was imperative that the first one hundred words should be learned thoroughly.

By the time "Pedagogics" was written, however, Parker's methods of teaching beginning writing had changed back. The teacher still wrote the word (and eventually sentences) upon the blackboard, but she immediately erased it. The child was then asked to rewrite the word from memory on the blackboard. The philosophy behind this method was that

of beginning writing that he later comes back to in "Pedagogics:" "At the end of the first year, quite a number of distinct mental word-pictures will be stored in the mind, ready for reproduction. Begin carefully; after a word has been copied from the board, erase it, and have it reproduced without copy. Do the same with two words, then three, and so on. Write a sentence, erase part of it,--and then cause the whole to be written," p. 150 (emphasis mine).

Parker, "Teaching," pp. 37, 39. Also see Francis W. Parker, Tract for Teachers. Spelling (Boston: Willard Small, 1882).

Parker, "Teaching," p. 39
the child held the word in his mind by an act of will before producing it. This, in turn, caused rapid writing and forced the child to think quickly: "slow writing cannot be the expression of immediate thought." Parker saw this latter method as conforming to Dewey's "organic circuit" theory; "when a child writes a word, he gives back what he has received and just as he received it; it passes over the optic nerve tract, and is immediately 'discharged' through the arm and hand."

Two techniques supplemented whichever of the above methods was employed. The first of these rested in Parker's belief that writing should begin with script, rather than print. He saw print as being temporary and not a means of writing used after the first few months or year. It was uneconomical, wasted time, and probably would not be considered "quality" teaching. The second supplementary feature consisted of an emphasis on whole-arm script writing which was called American, or Spencerian. This method followed not only the law of "the easiest movement consistent with legibility, and, at the same time, with the greatest economy of physical action;" but it also allowed for quickness and speed of writing which emanated from intuitive and

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103 Ibid., p. 323.
106 Ibid., p. 316.
spontaneous thought. 107 Parker here fell back upon his dictum that "unity of action requires the minimum expenditure of physical energy for intelligible expression." 108 Opposed to this American method, the popular finger method should not be used because it did not lend itself to an initial line of 51 degrees to 52 degrees and did not square with unity of action. 109 Furthermore, Parker saw justification for his stand in the work of G. Stanley Hall: "nerve currents ... are, distributed very slowly from the spinal cord to the bodily extremities." 110 The constraints of the finger-method of writing "reacts upon that centre [the spinal cord], weakening and crippling the whole body." 111

In writing exercises, teaching methods associated with oral language could be used, too. Parker suggested using pictures of objects about which the children could write. However, he admonished that children should not be forced to see all the teacher did; the child's perception would not be that of the mature mind. The rule should be, according to Parker,

... place the object before the child, let him see what he can, and write what he sees. Then by questioning and devices lead him to see more. ... Follow the child, and not make the child follow you. 112

107 Ibid., p. 325.
108 Ibid., p. 315.
109 Ibid., pp. 317-318.
112 Parker, "Teaching," p. 82. See also Francis W. Parker, "Language," Practical Teacher, Vol. VIII, No. 3 (November, 1884), pp. 34-36.
After the child had completed his writing assignment, he should read everything which he had written. And whenever and wherever a part of speech, a fact of etymology, a definition, explanation, rule, or general direction, a lesson in parsing or analysis, will directly assist pupils in comprehending or adequately expressing thought, any and every detail of grammar should be freely presented and freely used.

There are two fundamental uses of the grammar of language. The first is to enhance, to deepen and to broaden the understanding of speech and printed language; the second is to make language, both spoken and written, an adequate means for the expression of thought; both motives are a unit in the action and reaction of language, in the intensification of conscious activities.

A primary dictum of writing was to make sure the pupil had the thought in his mind before he was asked to express it. This, according to Parker, was the main concern in writing.

In speech there is an immediate demand for expression, the impulse being quickened by the desire to make the person or persons addressed understand; in writing this immediate stimulus is lacking. Speech may be fragmentary, disconnected; writing demands connection and relation. Speech may be brief; writing calls for sequence of thought. The motive in speech is immediate understanding; the written page is to be read after the work is done. The speaker watches the effect of his words; the writer must imagine the effect. The motive in writing is, in general, far stronger than that in speech; in the former there must be a steadier and more

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113 Ibid., p. 58.


continuous action of the will in controlling thought power. Speech is strongly enhanced by the attributes of voice; writing stands alone in dead, cold forms.116

But if the thought were there, and it was communicated well, it could serve a supreme purpose—that of developing individuality. "In written expression we find a means of reaching individuality through the mass."117

Reading

In "Teaching," Parker defined reading as "getting thought by means of written or printed words arranged in sentences."118 In an article written in 1899, one which elaborates on his theory of concentration as implemented at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, Parker regarded reading as the process of "thinking, imagining."119 He saw both of these as part and parcel of the same process—communication. Reading was a means to an end and a unifying element which helped to tie together the central subjects:

We were teaching nature, geography, history, literature—subjects full of interest—to which reading could be correlated. The theory stood the

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116 Ibid.
118 Parker, "Teaching," p. 23.
119 Francis Wayland Parker, "An Account of the Work of the Cook County and Chicago Normal School from 1883 to 1899," Elementary School Teacher and Course of Study, II (1901), p. 770. Hereafter referred to as "Normal School." See also Francis W. Parker, All the Mono-syllables
test, and one step in correlation was taken. The time given to learning to read became time given to study.120

Reading, just as the other expressive modes, served to help children on the path to discovering the unity of mind, body, soul. Parker apparently saw reading not as a key to knowledge, but as "the corridor beyond the broad door swung open by observation."121

A reader does not think the thoughts of an author, he simply thinks his own thought. By the action of words upon the mind ideas arise above the plane of consciousness; individual concepts and judgments that have formerly been in consciousness reappear, and are recombined as associated; new units are formed and fresh judgments suggested; but the mental results of written or printed words upon the mind are predetermined by the mind itself.122

Words on the printed page were to serve as function words to trigger appropriate actions and to stir imaginations. Parker saw the teacher's role as one of providing the best conditions under which words could function.123

There was, also, a difference to Parker between reading and studying; he found the latter action to be a more intense act, for here various states of consciousness were held under the power of the will, while in reading these states moved on with rapidity. In study, the

in the English Language Phonetically Arranged for Use in Teaching Reading (Chicago: Cook County Normal School, 1896), p. v. Hereafter referred to as "Mono-syllables."


123 Ibid., p. 192.
will held various thoughts and allowed the reader to exercise the imagination upon them. Thus reading served as a means to imagination and the first step in study. "Ordinary reading is the essential preparation for study, as the exercise of the senses is for observation."124

Reading, then, depended, as did the expressive modes, on object-thought association. Parker would teach reading as a function of expression and would align it with both speech and writing. In fact, he could not divorce the teaching of reading and the teaching of writing: they "should be taught together, the one assisting the other at every step."125 As was seen in the section on writing, the emphasis in language education was to be based on the principle of association.

Parker's desire to coordinate the art of teaching with a science of education led him to delve into those methods of teaching reading which were in vogue in the late 1800's, and which had held credence in earlier years. His discoveries led him to comment that his philosophies, as they pertained to reading education, were eclectic.

The object, word, sentence, script and phonic methods of the art of teaching reading have been discovered in the past and been applied by different teachers as the only true method. The script method is the youngest of these and the phonic is the oldest... Each one of these methods was discovered in the action of some mental law. So far as they go, and used in their own proper place and proportion, they are all natural methods. The difficulty is in using one power of the mind and leaving four others inactive. The fact is that... [all] methods form one true method in

124 Ibid., p. 190.

125 Parker, "Teaching," p. 66.
teaching reading. Each should be used in its own time, place, and proportion, in such a manner as to arouse and strengthen five faculties of the mind instead of one. 126

Readiness for reading. That Parker was cognizant of the principle of readiness is evidenced by his emphasis on early concern with physical, mental, and social development. First, he stressed the importance of the interdependence of body and mind. He came to the conclusion that physical training should have a major place in the school curriculum; he found play the best physical training and the best preparation for study, and he believed that the child most skillful in physical exercise was the strongest in all other school work. 127 He saw, further, that the concept of "nascent periods" was one of immense importance to teachers.

The term ... means that the kind and direction of a child's activities, mental and physical, are determined, stage by stage, by the growth and development of the body and brain. Creeping, walking, talking are activities aroused and sustained by the different stages of physical development. The inferences are of exceeding value in teaching. The time for the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, etc., is determined by the physical and mental power which the child is able to bring to bear upon these activities. If the child is forced, the result is weakness. If the time is put off too long, there is a loss of power. 128

Finally, Parker acknowledged that the child's readiness might depend upon his role as a social being. He recognized that peer influence

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126 Ibid., pp. 49-50.
128 Ibid.
and the influence of the individual upon the mass and the mass upon the individual contributed substantially to human growth. 129

Beginning reading. Since all studies served as a unity for learning, reading began with hearing and speech and writing and with the principles associated with the learning of words. Beginning reading, after considerations of readiness, was boardwork with the teacher. The major question, of course, was to be: What words should be taught? Parker believed that the initial writing and reading vocabulary should consist of those words which the child had already gained. 130 He favored the beginning vocabulary to have about 200 words, but stressed that twenty well-learned words were more important than all 200 known in an imperfect manner. In selecting the list of words, four things were to be taken into account:

1. The favorite words of the child,
2. The arrangement of words in phonic order with short sounds first,
3. The selection of the names of common objects, like fan, cap, hat, cat, mat, rat, bag, rag, flag,
4. The words of the first book(s) the child would read. 131

129 Ibid., pp. 762-763.
130 Parker, "Teaching," p. 50.
131 Parker, "Teaching," pp. 51-52. See also Parker, "Reading," Practical Teacher, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (September, 1884), p. 3.
No First Reader extant furnishes repetition enough for the thorough learning of the words. It is better to select the vocabulary from the first parts of three or four different readers. If this is done when the child begins print (after 150 or 200 words have been taught in script), he can read with great ease and delight 150-200 pages in print.132

The first lesson in reading would begin after the teacher had selected her initial vocabulary and ability grouped the children; she would begin with the brightest group--five or six students--around her at the blackboard. The first step would be to present an object which represented a vocabulary word:

... she says, 'hear the chalk talk,' and slowly writes the word. ... The articles a, an, and the should always be written with the words, and the article and word should be pronounced as one word.133

After writing the name of the object several times, the teacher would put down the object and ask a child to bring the object to her, pointing at the written word on the board; she could also hold up an object and have a student point to the word on the board which corresponded to the object. The exercise was to last no more than a few minutes. At the following lesson, a new object was presented and the child

132Parker, "Teaching," p. 52. Parker did not specify of which First Reader he was speaking. He could have been referring to Webb's The Child's First Reader (1846), see Chapter 6, p. 128; or he could have been speaking of Appleton's The First Reader (1877), which encouraged an analytic-synthetic approach, see Harold Boyne Lamport, "A History of the Teaching of Beginning Reading," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1935), p. 382; or he could have been speaking of Peter Parley's First Reader (1830's), see Rudolph R. Reeder, The Historical Development of School Readers and Method in Teaching Reading (New York, 1900), p. 49. There were numerous First Readers and Parker was not specific.

133Ibid., p. 53.
compared objects from lesson one and lesson two as their names were put on the board. This type of lesson continued until ten or fifteen words were taught. Parker suggested that review of the lessons should follow a set procedure:

... let the teacher point to the different names and have the pupils bring the objects; then the teacher holds up the objects and lets the pupils point to the names; and last, have the pupils point and give the names without the objects.\textsuperscript{134}

At this point the first sentence could be taught. The child was to pick up an object and verbally say a complete sentence about it, such as "This is a rat." The teacher would then write the sentence on the board, replying that the chalk said what the student said; she would then ask, "What did the chalk say?"\textsuperscript{135} The child would reply, correctly, with the object in his hand. All objects taught were then substituted in the sentence for the word "rat." The students would select an appropriate object and then read the sentence which had the object in it. The teacher would then make changes in other words: this to that, that to here, here to there and the students would repeat the sentence holding or selecting the appropriate object. Then, singulars could be changed to plurals and sentences could be turned into questions. At all times, the pupils had to reply correctly using complete sentences. Following these procedures, objects would be placed together on the table and a question written on the board; after the question was answered orally, the answer was written after the question and read by

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{134}ibid.
\textsuperscript{135}ibid., p. 54.
\end{footnotesize}
the pupils. After twelve sentences or so were on the board, the pupils would read the whole group successively. When new object-words were needed, they were to be introduced as described above.136

Next, prepositions and qualities were taught using the schedule related above. Objects could be placed in different positions and sentences written describing these; here, "little exclamatory sentences may be introduced with good effect, as 'Oh, what a pretty fan!'"137 Also, directions could be written on the board with which the children could comply: "Put the fan in front of the rat."138 About this time, too, the writing of stories could begin. Parker suggested than an excellent way to begin this was for the teacher to sketch a picture of an object on the board; this was one of eventually several objects. The pupils would discuss the object, sentences would be written on the board about it, students would be motivated to see what objects would come next. Eventually many objects would lead to an entire picture, and the story could be continued from day to day. A large picture could be used as well.139

When students had command of 150 or more words, learned in script, the teacher would write a script lesson on the board and have them read it; after the day's session, she would erase the script and print the same lesson in the same place. The next morning pupils would be asked to read the lesson, which was now in print. After this

136Parker, "Teaching," pp. 53-54. 137Ibid., p. 55
138Ibid., p. 53. 139Ibid.
was done two or three times, the pupils were ready for the chart or book. Parker believed the chart should be taken first. Students were thus transferred from script to print.

In my experience of several years in changing many classes from script to print this simple process has sufficed. One rule should be strictly followed: Never point out or allude in any way to the difficulty in learning print. You should have besides a good chart . . . at least five or six sets of First Readers. . . . Read one book until the sentences become difficult, and then take another. (Never let the children point to words with their fingers, and train them from the first to find their places for themselves.)

Parker saw two years as being necessary for teaching the "average" child to learn to read the First Reader. The third year should be spent in Second Reader materials. Parker felt that there was economy in going slowly: "if the primary work is thoroughly done, there will be little or no need of teaching reading as reading after the fourth grade." Parker saw two years as being necessary for teaching the "average" child to learn to read the First Reader. The third year should be spent in Second Reader materials. Parker felt that there was economy in going slowly: "if the primary work is thoroughly done, there will be little or no need of teaching reading as reading after the fourth grade."

Phonics. Recognizing, by 1894, approximately forty-two distinct sounds in the English language, Parker noted that children entered school with knowledge of each and the ability "to combine them in pronouncing all the words that he knows." He envisioned children

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140Ibid., p. 62.

141Ibid. See also Parker, "Reading," Practical Teacher, Vol.VIII No. 2 (October, 1884), pp. 15-19. Also by the time Parker had been at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School for a number of years he began to acknowledge the reading difficulties of secondary and normal school pupils. See "Mono-syllables," pp. i-iv.


143Parker, "Teaching," p. 42.
as acquiring words, however, as wholes and believed the child to be unconscious of the elementary parts of a word. Parker's ideology as to teaching phonics was based on his theory of articulation, which in essence was the same as his ideas on the mechanics of speech.\textsuperscript{144} He saw phonics as being incorrectly referred to by teachers as spelling by sound and preferred to associate it with slow pronunciation instead:

\begin{center}
I prefer to call the art of articulating each sound with a perceptible suspension of the voice between two sounds—slow pronunciation. Following the German term—langsamer ausprache.\textsuperscript{145}
\end{center}

Parker feared that the application of the phonic technique of teaching reading, the synthetic or parts to whole approach, would train children to pronounce words without really knowing them; a word, as we have seen, was important only for the idea it carried—its thought value. Analyzing words to tear them apart and build them up absorbed too much attention and prevented the act of association from taking place.\textsuperscript{146}

Parker also discouraged the use of the popular phonetic method, which taught reading by changing traditional orthography by modifying or adding letters. In a study, Parker had surveyed a number of popular primers, charts, and readers and discovered that, out of 456 words, 205 were purely phonetic, 216 were words whose pronunciation was

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{144}See Appendix A.
\item \textsuperscript{145}Parker, "Teaching," pp. 43-44. See also Francis W. Parker, "Reading," \textit{Practical Teacher}, Vol. VIII, No. 1 (November, 1884), pp. 32-33.
\item \textsuperscript{146}Parker, "Teaching," p. 46.
\end{itemize}
indicated by their form, and only thirty-five were unphonetic. From this, Parker deduced that learning phonetic pronunciation by the phonetic method for only seven and a half percent of the words was needless. "What . . . is the use of burdening the child with mangled and twisted print or diacritical marks." He saw that the English language did have nearly a consistent code which could be partially broken by generalizing sight units in a phonemic order.

Parker could see, however, two methods--whole word and phonic--supplementing each other and closely following mental laws. He suggested this being accomplished by training children to pronounce whole words slowly; children would understand whole words pronounced slowly nearly as well as when pronounced quickly. The child could be trained to pronounce slowly before any direct association was made between articulate sounds and the word which they built to.

When a child was ready to correlate sounds and letters, the law of analogies could be employed.

If the word method were used . . . the child's unconscious mental activity would seek out and use the analogies of the language in associating new written words with the same sounds he has learned to associate with them. When we teach words in phonic order, as, for example, rat, fat, cat, mat, sat, pat, this law of like coming to like in the mind is made more effective. But when at the proper time the articulate sounds are consciously associated with the letters that represent them we use this mental activity in the most economical way.

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147Ibid., p. 45.
148Ibid., p. 47; see also Parker, "Mono-syllables," pp. 1-16.
149Parker, "Teaching," p. 46.
150Ibid., p. 47.
The formal process which was to be used in applying Parker's phonics was:

1. Train the child to recognize words when pronounced slowly;
2. Train the child to pronounce slowly by imitating the teacher's voice;
3. After a few words are taught, the teacher should write the articulated sounds as she pronounces the word and makes the representative character. Children should not be required to imitate the teacher but will eventually do this of their own accord;
4. Children should be encouraged to pronounce articulated sounds slowly as the teacher writes without encouragement from her.151

The emphasis on phonics usage was to be on spontaneous action from the child. Once a child had pronounced a word slowly he should not pronounce it immediately in the ordinary way, as in a spelling exercise, "because they should have the feeling that when they have once uttered the sounds they have pronounced the word."152

Children who had defects in articulation were to be given special drill, based on showing them the correct position of the vocal organs. Mispronounced words were to be corrected by imitating the teacher and by repetition until the correct habit was formed.

Preliminary exercises in phonics were to be graded from simple to more difficult and these were to be short, five to ten minute reviews, often on the sound chart.\textsuperscript{153} Always the emphasis was to be on using phonics as a means to the end—the whole word and its corresponding thought, for "if the child comes to believe he 'reads' by just pronouncing words and by tricks of phonic and phonetic methods there is a danger that he will never acquire the 'habit of thinking.'"\textsuperscript{154}

**Vocabulary.** As we have seen, vocabulary development was to occur through the act of association and the use of functioning words. Reading words allowed a child to get through the eye that which he missed through the ear.\textsuperscript{155} The teacher's job was to know how best to associate words with ideas in order for thought to occur, and through the grades she was to continue to use objects to build vocabulary until the child would associate new words and ideas without the presence of objects or object pictures. "No teacher who watches the faces of her little ones will fail to note when this time has fully come."\textsuperscript{156} The teacher should not hesitate to introduce long words, like temperature and aquarium, for the child would learn these as easily as short ones if the intensity of interest were there; "it is the mental energy that impels the acquisition of the word."\textsuperscript{157}

**Comprehension.** Parker's sole concern in education of any type

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\textsuperscript{153}Parker, "Teaching," p. 59. \hspace{1cm} \textsuperscript{154}Parker, "Pedagogics," p.218.  \\
\textsuperscript{155}Parker, "Teaching," p. 26. \hspace{1cm} \textsuperscript{156}Ibid., pp. 29-30.  \\
\textsuperscript{157}Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 221. 
\end{flushright}
was comprehension: thought was comprehension, and getting thought, comprehending, led to character development.

We have seen, too, that he recognized, as John Carroll has pointed out, the necessity for an emphasis on syntax and grammar in gaining meaning. Particularly in writing he stressed these, encouraging their use in this mode of expression with the intent of facilitating meaning in the other modes.

Study skills. Since Parker believed that the formal teaching of reading should not continue beyond the fourth grade, he said little directly about teaching study skills. However, he touches on this area in How to Study Geography, where he sets forth various suggestions for improving students' ability to improve their learning. Foremost among these were learning to read geometric figures in order to understand river basins, the use of tables to supplement concepts, the use of the dictionary, and the use of locational skills:

One direction stands above all other in importance: it is the formation of the habit, on the part of the pupils, of locating every place, natural feature, and country mentioned in reading and study. This habit should be sedulously cultivated from the beginning to the end.160

The best way for students to learn geographical locations was by making maps of a relief nature; when they had none of these, then they were to

158Parker, "Teaching," p. 34.


use maps in their books.\textsuperscript{161}

Parker's approach to the teaching of geography was "inductive;" children learned how to make maps as well as how to use them.\textsuperscript{162}

Whereas he did not set forth basic tenets for teaching study skills, Parker's concern, nonetheless, was to aid students in any way possible to improve their understanding and facilitate thinking.

**Oral reading.** The major purpose of oral reading in the classroom was to help the teacher see thought in the child's mind and to determine the thought's usefulness, strength, and intensity. She could also use oral reading to diagnose whether a child had been properly taught beginning reading, for if he stumbled and attempted to pronounce letters, then the teacher knew help was needed.\textsuperscript{163}

Since oral reading did correlate with speech,\textsuperscript{164} children were to be allowed to read orally, using their own mode of expression. In 1888, Parker wrote that

\ldots economy of action comes from the intensity of the thought. Here is the secret in teaching reading. The child reads orally that he may read to others, and this should be taught as the motive for reading.\textsuperscript{165}

The child was to be encouraged not to imitate; he was to have the

\textsuperscript{161}Ibid., pp. 84-85.
\textsuperscript{162}Ibid., p. xxxi.
\textsuperscript{163}Parker, "Teaching," p. 24.
\textsuperscript{164}Parker, "Normal School," p. 771.
\textsuperscript{165}Parker, "Scrapbooks," No. 9, an article entitled "Expression by Correspondence," and attributed to the Journal of Education (1888), no pagination. I do not believe Parker means that reading orally
thought before he gave it. 166 The best principle to follow in oral reading was for the teacher to allow the class to read the passage or assignment silently before reading it aloud. 167

Remedial reading. Parker did not use the term "remedial reading." However, he did make a special point to note that children who had been incorrectly taught should have special help with their reading skills. 168 To aid them, he would first put them into the easiest material available--despite their grade. Then, he would give them the most interesting material possible to read, mostly dramatic pieces. He would drop oral reading and allow them to develop object associations; these he would have them verbalize, in their own words, to the teacher. When the poor reader was interested and was talking well, Parker would have him read a short sentence aloud, believing that the pupil would experience success and become motivated from this experience. 169

Parker felt that continual diagnosis of all students should take place by use of comprehension questions on material which the pupils had read. Once a child attained his reading level, he should, like the rest of the class, be continually "tested" by having to read

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is the purpose of reading, but that he means communication is the purpose of reading. See this chapter, pp. 52-54.

166 Parker, "Teaching," p. 33.


169 Ibid.
selections without preparation—at least once a week. In reading, if a sentence were too long, the child should be encouraged to express the thought by phrases or clauses; the pupils were not to know who was to be called upon to read at any given time, and they were not to read lessons over and over. A diagnostic technique which Parker found to be successful was to have students read material and then write one, then two, then three, things remembered from the selection. Or, the teacher could write things about the story on slips of paper and diagnose thought by having the students correctly arrange the papers in sequence. If the children could not show adequate comprehension from these methods, then the teacher could begin corrective help of some type.

Concluding Statement

To Francis Parker, the purpose of language was to "be made a means of arousing thought in the child's mind and making new units or combinations by apperception of that which is already below the plane of consciousness." To achieve this, and to have adequate scope for language development, it was necessary for opportunities to be provided which would enhance the impulses of intrinsic thinking. Parker saw two primary factors which could inhibit this goal: first, self-consciousness, which was a product of over-practice or over-emphasis on "correct" ways and which led to pressure being applied to a child who

170 Ibid., pp. 63-65.  
171 Parker, "Teaching," p. 65  
173 Ibid., p. 293
did not perform as the teacher thought he should, and, second, self-
conceit, which arose from the same source and was the result of quan-
tity teaching as opposed to quality teaching. Self-conceit occurred
when a child performed as the teacher wanted and not in a manner natural
to his personality. Poor teaching rewarded and encouraged this.

There were several major ways of discouraging a communicative
unity of thought and action. Parker listed seven as being of utmost
importance and suggested that teachers refrain from these practices:

1. Employing the alphabet, phonic and phonetic methods
   without proper regard for thought,

2. Using copy-books to develop penmanship and object
   association,

3. Imitating meaningless forms on paper,

4. Modeling without adequate motive,

5. Artificial oral reading,

6. Formal exercises in voice and dramatic expression, and

7. Repetitious memorization dissassociated from thought.

In his philosophy, Francis Parker saw "hearing, reading, speak-
ing, and writing . . . [as] the formal model of learning language." If
they were allowed to work together with the help of the artisan
teacher, who applied the "laws" of scientific education, they would
lead man to a more perfect democracy and the truth of God's creation.

175 Ibid., pp. 269-270.
176 Ibid., p. 186.
In the following chapters of this paper, an attempt is made to determine the influences on Parker's educational philosophy as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. Chapter 4 is concerned with Parker's formative years and early teaching experience; Chapter 5 covers his years abroad, and Chapter 6 is concerned with his truly productive years--from Quincy to Chicago. Chapter 7 summarizes the findings of this study, presents concluding statements and makes suggestions for additional investigations.
Chapter 4

THE FORMATIVE YEARS: 1837 to 1872

This chapter is concerned with determining the influences on Francis Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction during the earliest years of his life and up to his trip to Europe in 1872. It deals respectively with influences in the general-personal, formal-educative, and associative realms. Each of these areas of influence may have contributed to Parker's ultimate philosophy of education.

General-Personal Influences

Parker noted, as a mature man, that the best thing in his education was "the five years on the farm, and the four years in the army. The five years on the farm gave me my love for study, and the work gave me my physical strength, and the army gave me some measure of self-control."

Growing up: Goffstown, New Hampshire. As a young man on the farm, Parker made the elements of botany, geography, zoology, mineralogy, and geology the basis of his immediate education and his future

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theories.\textsuperscript{2} At night in his garret he wrote compositions about these, recording elements which he had observed. He recalled taking one composition with which he was very pleased to a lady who had taught school; she rejected it with haste, saying that "if she could not write better than that she would not try to write."\textsuperscript{3} "I never afterwards in my life . . . could be compelled to write a composition, and I lay it to that influence."\textsuperscript{4} Perhaps this is why, in later years, one notes Parker's instructions: children should not be forced to see all the teacher sees,\textsuperscript{5} for a child "must give his own thought in his own way, thus developing individuality."\textsuperscript{6} One might speculate, also, that the writing of his observations was the foundation for Parker's integrating language arts/reading instruction with the rest of the curriculum.

It was at Goffstown, too, that he learned another practical lesson which was to serve him in the future.

When he got to school he said he was in the 'first class,' which had been the highest in Piscatauquog, but was the lowest in Goffstown. He was so humiliated when put in the lowest class that he took the advice of the Moores and stayed home to

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{2}Ida Casa Heffron, Francis Wayland Parker: An Interpretive Biography (Los Angeles: Ivan Deach Jr., 1934), p. 20.}

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{3}Parker, "Sketch," p. 113.}

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{4}Ibid.}

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{5}Francis Wayland Parker, Talks on Teaching. Reported by Lelia E. Patridge (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1883), p. 82; hereafter referred to as "Teaching."}

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{6}Parker, "Teaching," pp. 37-38.}
work during the rest of the term. 7

Campbell sees this experience strongly influencing Parker's later tendencies towards grading students according to attainment rather than age. In Manchester (New Hampshire), after the war, and again in Dayton (Ohio) and Quincy (Massachusetts), Parker stressed "ranking" which discouraged artificial "lines" in learning. 8 This, of course, would have strong ramifications for language arts/reading instruction; for instance, Parker knew his alphabet before beginning school, 9 and, by attainment, should not have been taught beginning reading according to age.

Sometime during these very early years (he claims it was before the age of three 10) Parker was encouraged to "declaim," or recite orally from memory, pieces which were in vogue. "This part of my education I believe to have been very damaging upon my success in after life. The declaiming cultivated an extreme self-consciousness." 11

As has been seen, Parker's instructions on language education makes

7Jack Keneagy Campbell, "The Children's Crusader: Colonel Francis W. Parker" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Columbia University, 1965), p. 25. See also Mitford M. Mathews, Teaching to Read Historically Considered (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966), who says that "this way of numbering the grades or classes, beginning with the fourth and advancing to the first, shows German influence. Germans reasoned, logically, that 'first' connotes best, and should be worked up to from the lowest," p. 61.

8Campbell, pp. 15, 26.

9Parker, "Sketch," p. 111.

10Ibid., p. 119.

11Ibid., pp. 119-120.
particular note of the damage which might be done a child's expression from exercises based on any unnatural oral discourse; he saw this as the doorway to self consciousness and/or self-conceit, and, drawing from his past, he perhaps hoped to prevent others from suffering disadvantages such as those he believed accrued to him.

Early teaching: the status quo. By the age of twenty, Parker had taught in four country schools—all in New Hampshire: Corser Hill, Auburn, Piscataquog, and Hinsdale. Evidently at these he was following the precept of teaching as he was taught:

In all my country teaching . . . I simply did what my teachers had done before me, nothing more, but I had a way of getting along with the pupils. I had spelling schools and evening schools, and declamations, and other things of that sort.

His success appears to have been from the affective standpoint, rather than from purely academic or pedagogic ones: at Corser Hill, "it was only the love and sympathy of my pupils that I managed to teach out the winter," and at Auburn, "I had a way of governing by getting the goodwill of my pupils." When he moved to Illinois, at the age of twenty-

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12See Chapter 3, pp. 68-69.
13See Francis Wayland Parker, "Francis W. Parker Scrapbooks and Miscellaneous Papers," in Special Collections, Archives, The Joseph Regenstein Library, University of Chicago. In Scrapbook No. 1, there is an article from the New Hampshire Sentinel, October 23, 1879, in which Parker claims he also taught in Keene, New Hampshire, p. 18.
15Ibid.
16Ibid., p. 120.
two, to take up his first principalship, he was "still teaching in the same old way, teaching the rules of Grammar and Spelling in a perfectly perfunctory manner." After three years in Carrollton, Illinois, in 1861, Parker enlisted as a Lieutenant in Company E, Fourth New Hampshire Volunteers, and went off to the Civil War.

Maturing: the Civil War. According to Campbell's research, Parker's adjustment to the service was anything but smooth. Not only was he confronted with the psychological adjustment to human devastation but he was disliked by those around him. In 1862, seventy-nine men of his company petitioned to have him removed from his command, charging he was drunk and unfit and that he gave liquor to a sentry. In August he was acquitted. Then, in 1863, he was again courtmartialed for disobedience of orders and neglect of duty; he was found guilty and, after an appeal was rejected he was reprimanded by a general as punishment for his actions. In December of this same year he was accused of being away without leave, but these allegations were dropped. Just before his discharge, trouble arose again, for Parker and his men were reported to be keeping a house of "ill fame" on a portion of land assigned to their contingent. Upon investigation, these charges were dropped too. So, combined with actual battle duty, on the one hand, Parker had to resolve personal battles on the other. Campbell suggests that Parker was often fighting to protect his name during this period--more often for political reasons, rather than personal, and sees this

17 Ibid., p. 122.
time as a period of growth for Parker in that it led to his ability to adjust to adverse circumstances in later life.\textsuperscript{18} Parker, himself, supports Campbell in this contention, saying that the army "gave me some measure of self-control, not very much, by the way, but enough to steady me."\textsuperscript{19} The army had matured Parker, in fact, he claims that "all through the army I thought a great deal of which I would do in my school, and planned how I would change things."\textsuperscript{20}

Early changes: Manchester, New Hampshire. The war over, now married,\textsuperscript{21} and at the age of twenty-eight, Parker became principal of North Grammar School in Manchester, New Hampshire.

And there was where I began my discipline. I had everything in good shape, I had battalion drill and marching, and everything went like clockwork. I also believed in ranking, and I had the idea of emulation as an incentive for school work. I ranked my scholars, changing their places from week to week. . . . This was the first time in my life that I had departed from the regular routine of school teaching. Up to this time I kept the law and gospel of the old fashioned teaching with a great deal of strictness.\textsuperscript{22}

The influences of the service can readily be seen here. But, in addition, the thinking which began to occur in the service also began to be related to education. Parker appears to begin to be struggling with

\textsuperscript{18}Campbell discusses this period of Parker's life in great detail, pp. 6-134.

\textsuperscript{19}Parker quoted in Campbell, p. 60.

\textsuperscript{20}Parker, op. cit., p. 125.

\textsuperscript{21}Parker seldom mentioned this first wife, and his relationship with her is a mysterious feature of Parker's early years.

\textsuperscript{22}Parker, op. cit., p. 126.
pedagogic problems: I

... had seen the little children [in Manchester] studying their A B C's, and doing their work, and they did not seem happy in it as I thought children should. ... I could not be reconciled to the fact that these little children were in such ... deplorable state.23

He also found the penmanship to be unacceptable and encouraged a new method of handwriting, termed "systematic" by the Superintendent of Public Instruction.24 Perhaps the most significant development was Parker's continuing "studying for my profession."25 It may be that the success which had come from throwing out some of the old at Manchester was encouraging the young teacher to look for new methods and strategies which might also be educationally rewarding.

More innovation: Dayton, Ohio. In 1868, Parker and his wife left Manchester and moved to Dayton, Ohio. Campbell has pointed out that Parker did not find in Dayton the educational backwardness at the school or district level that he had found in other places. Under Superintendent Caleb Parker, Dayton's schools were implementing "a progressive course in 'object teaching' beginning with the cultivation of the perceptive faculties, and rising finally to the exercise of the reasoning powers."26 There was a system in use similar to Francis

24 Campbell, pp. 129-152.
25 Parker, op. cit., p. 126.
26 Campbell, p. 159.
Parker's own "ranking," and more positive disciplinary measures were being encouraged.²⁷ Parker "immediately went to work and studied the primary school question,"²⁸ for "my whole idea was to learn to teach school."²⁹ As a result, he attempted to encourage the teaching of reading first by the phonetic plan and then by the word method.³⁰ At this time, too, he apparently criticized the school books in use; the book companies "scented him as an enemy, and openly declared that, this man must be suppressed or they would all be bankrupt."³¹ With criticism from all sides, Parker developed

... a great fear that I might be wrong in my teaching. In fact almost everybody, all the teachers at least, said I was wrong, and the criticism was very strong. They also said that I had not a good education, that I had not been to college.... They accused me of being an illiterate man, and all that.³²

His wife having passed away, Parker resigned his post, in 1872, and took what money he had recently inherited from an aunt and went to Germany to study at the University of Berlin.³³ Campbell writes that, in Dayton, Parker had "picked up threads that were at loose ends"³⁴ and would be weaving them, with others, into that which would be waved as "the battle standard of the 'new education."³⁵

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²⁷Campbell, pp. 159-160. ²⁸Parker, "Sketch," p. 127. ³⁰Ibid.
²⁹Ibid. ³¹Ibid., p. 128-129. ³²Parker, op. cit., p. 2.
Formal-Educative Influences

Parker's formal education, upon his arrival in Dayton, was spotty and undisciplined. He was aware, however, that he did need to gain knowledge and insights and was determined to do something about this.

Early reading. Parker tells us that his first formal reading occurred during his farm days at the Moore's. When not in school, he often could be found reading everything he could get his hands on.\(^{36}\) This included almanacs, back to 1794, the Bible (several times), Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" (once a month), and Wayland's book on Judson.\(^{37}\) While providing information of a practical and moral nature, these books would have had little to offer in the way of educational strategies or methods—the tangibles a future teacher would need. Even when he took classes under Dyer H. Sanborn at Hopkinton Academy (New Hampshire) and was introduced to grammar by a "new method,"\(^{38}\) one cannot be sure that the material he learned was transferrable to practical classroom use. What these experiences do indicate are that Parker did have at least a minimal education, one on which he could build at a later time in his life.

Professional literature—definitive influences. Two firm pieces of evidence give us knowledge of Parker's earliest readings in

\(^{36}\)Parker, "Sketch," p. 116

\(^{37}\)Ibid.

\(^{38}\)Ibid., p. 118
educational literature. The first of these is found in the "Preface" to T. Tate's Philosophy of Education (1884). Here, Parker states that

When I was a young teacher with some aspirations for a situation in Boston, that distinguished educator, J. D. Philbrick, then Superintendent of the Boston Schools, told me that there was a Science of Education founded upon mental laws, and that the way to true success in teaching could only be found by a close study of that science.

I took his excellent advice, obtained a list of the best works on pedagogics and sent to England for them, as they could not be bought in this country. At the head of the list stood Tate's Philosophy of Education (sic.). In re-reading the book I recognize the fact that it has given me more substantial aid in teaching than any other English work I ever studied.39

The second piece of evidence is found when Parker writes in 1899 of his Dayton experiences (1868-1872). He says that

I got hold of some work or other that gave me a list of juvenile books that were published, but I could find none of them in this country except 'Sheldon's Object Lessons.'40

So Parker openly dates only two of his early educational readings. Of these, the first published was Tate's, in England, in 1854, 1857, and 1860; it was published in the United States in 1884, but

39Francis Parker in "Preface" to T. Tate, The Philosophy of Education, ed. Col. Francis Wayland Parker (New York: C. W. Bardeen, 1884), p. iv; J. D. Philbrick was Superintendent in Boston prior to and during the period that Parker was in Dayton, Ohio. It may be that before Parker accepted the Dayton position he attempted to gain employment in Boston. Also, Washburn, in "Col. Parker, the Man, and Educational Reformer," in "Teaching," notes that Parker did read Tate; she also states he read Stowe's Gallery Lessons and Wilderspins' Infant Education, p. 11. However, these last two books have not been found by this writer to be acknowledged by Parker in any of his works.

Parker would have had to have read one of the earlier editions. The theme of the book is basically that education is a science and that the approach to teaching should be based on scientific precepts. Quite prominently mentioned are Jacotot, Pestalozzi, Richter, Rousseau, Woodbridge, Fellenberg, and Darwin. The importance of Tate cannot be minimized, in that it shows us that Parker had at least an early reading knowledge of Pestalozzi and Jacotot.

Pestalozzi's approach to teaching was "scientific," being founded on the "natural and orderly development of the instincts and aptitudes of the growing child." 41

It is based upon the fundamental conception of what education is: namely the continuous development of the mind through appropriate exercise, so selected that there will result a harmonious and progressive functioning of the mind in all its capacities of action or expression. The result at any stage should be a symmetrical and complete organic life. The fundamental endeavor was to analyze knowledge in any particular line into its simplest elements, so these present themselves naturally to the attention of the child. These were to be acquired not simply in their form, but in their real inner meaning, by the process of observation or sense impression, and developed by a progressive series of exercises graded by almost imperceptible degrees into a continuous chain. Such exercises were to be based primarily upon the study of words. The object, then, was the core of the method; but the object lesson not as often employed for the mere purpose of obtaining a knowledge of the object, or even of developing powers of observation. Its real use was as a basis for the entire mental development of the child. This training in observation was the beginning only. 42


It was up to the teacher to direct the child's powers and faculties and provide their development. Pestalozzi's ideas encouraged object education, gradation of materials and individualization. Step by step one can see Parker employing Pestalozzian-like ideals in his approach to language instruction. First, the emphasis on object education is there—students should learn the word for its thought content; second, the emphasis on gradation is there, especially in Parker's eventual inductive approach to grammar and phonics, which emphasizes going from simple to difficult; and, third, emphasis on interest as a motivating factor is there—a child learns best that which he naturally and spontaneously desires to know.

Jean Jacotot was a French professor who developed what is known as a holistic approach to reading, one which would be suitable to object education. Jacotot believed that the "whole" should be learned before the parts, even if this required repetition. His methodology began with the learning of words, which were then built into sentences; the sentences were built into paragraphs and paragraphs into chapters and even books. After the "whole" was attained, it was then analyzed into its component parts. "Wholes" were thus broken into words which were broken into sounds and letters. The approach was essentially analytic-synthetic. Whether Parker drew specifically from Jacotot

43 Ibid., p. 157.
44 Parker, "Teaching," p. 111; Parker here acknowledges Pestalozzi's excellence in this regard.
45 See Chapter 3, pp. 60-64.
46 Lamport, pp. 99-100.
cannot be determined; he did favor an analytic-synthetic approach but his was, if anything, a modification of Jacotot's rather laborious process. We do know that by 1889 Parker was disagreeing with a general contention of Jacotot's, that one could teach something he didn't know by using an analytic-synthetic methodology, or deductive as opposed to inductive strategy. 47

Finally, T. Tate, himself, had a theory for the teaching of reading. His, too, began with an emphasis on reading for intelligence, or for thought comprehension. He felt that the holistic (whole word) approach was "certainly the best, especially when it combined with some striking principles of the phonic method." 48 Tate encouraged supplementing the whole word approach with the teaching of phonemic patterns which could be modified by changing initial and terminal consonants: bad, lad, say, sat, shut, shark. 49 This is essentially what Parker recommends in "Teaching," and he would further agree with Tate when he admonishes that "to follow out the phonic system of reading, in all its details, is neither practicable nor desirable. The fact is, this system requires the pupils to make analyzing sounds, which we ourselves never do in the practice of reading. . . . By the practice of reading, on the look and say system. . . , the child gradually and sensibly


49 Ibid., p. 289.
acquires the pronunciation of words.  

Tate also suggests that grammar should be taught in connection with the reading lesson; he saw the best strategy to follow was inductively to move from teaching (1) the simple to complex and (2) the concrete to abstract aspects of grammar.  

In Chapter 2 of this paper, Parker's suggestions parallel Tate's to an amazing degree.  

The second influence from the educational literature was A. E. Sheldon's book, which was published in 1870, and drew directly from the work of Elizabeth Mayo, who had studied and taught abroad. In his "Preface," Sheldon acknowledges the debt to Pestalozzi and emphasizes that areas in his volume had been "adapted to philosophic views of the 'laws of childhood.'"  

The author carefully pointed out that the lessons were designed as suggestions and models to guide the teachers in working out their own plans and methods. Teachers who confine themselves simply to the lessons presented in this book, and to their exact minutiae, can but fail in their work. To be truly successful, they must catch the spirit and philosophy of the system.  

What Sheldon had supplied, then, was Pestalozzi with structure. The method reported was currently in use in Oswego, New York schools,

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50 Tate, p. 189; see also Chapter 3, pp. 60-64.  
51 Tate, p. 290.  
52 See Chapter 3, p. 51.  
54 Sheldon, p. 7.
where it had been working for four years. Strategies reported in the book included lessons for teaching color, form, objects, number, size, weight, sound, language, reading, geography, human body, animals and morals. Interestingly, Sheldon stresses the phonic approach to reading and has a fairly detailed section on phonic instruction; it is graded, as Pestalozzi would have it, and is very similar to that of Tate. It begins with visual card work and blackboard exposition. Children move from letter to letter by imitating the teacher and combining various sounds to form words: "a" plus "t" for at. Initial consonants were then taught placed before this two letter combination: c at, b at. Eventually the child progressed to modifying the phonemic unit with terminal sounds, initial blends (bl, br,) and so on. All in all, the phonics work was to move from vowel sounds, through double and short vowels, consonants, and atonic elements to various consonant patterns and then to irregularities.

Parker could have been more specific in his mentioning of attempts at "phonetic" and "whole word" reading instruction as he employed them in Dayton. Lamport points out that during Parker's time there was often a distinction between "phonic" approaches and "phonetic" approaches; since we have no evidence as to whether Parker's "phonetic"

55 Sheldon, p. 7; according to Campbell, in the 1890's Parker claimed that Sheldon was the most important man for improving teaching methods, p. 442.

56 Sheldon, pp. 239-264. Sheldon encouraged moving from print to script, see pp. 265-267.

57 Lamport, p. 264; both approaches consider the powers of the
was really "phonic," it cannot be assumed he was working under the influence of either Tate or Sheldon in this regard. 58

Possible influences: Mann and the periodicals. Parker was always fond of Horace Mann's educational ideas, saying late in life that he was one of the two imposing figures among the heroes of education. 59

It could be that Mann's ideas on reading education reached Parker in Dayton; Mann had spent the later years of his life in Antioch, Ohio. He was instrumental in encouraging American educators toward the whole word method, being influenced himself by Keagy, Palmer, Gedike, Jacotot, and importantly, as we shall see, Gallaudet. 60 As early as 1841, when Parker was four years old, Mann was advocating that

The advantages of teaching children by beginning with whole words are many. Nothing has to be untaught which has once been well taught. What is to be learned is applied to what is already known. The course of the pupil is constantly progressive.

The acquisition of the language, even from its elements, becomes an intelligible process. The knowledge of new things is introduced through the

letters and the blending of sounds. The distinction lies in that the phonetic method employs additional characters and either diacritical marks or special letters to designate certain sounds.

58Francis Wayland Parker, Talks on Pedagogics: An Outline of the Theory of Concentration (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1894); Parker here testifies that he had knowledge of Pitman and Leigh's phonetic programs. These were current during the mid and late 1800's and very popular in many areas of the United States. Parker also mentions Leigh in Francis W. Parker, "Looking Backward," The School Journal, Vol. LIX (August 12, 1899), p. 118.


60Mathews, p. 79.
knowledge of familiar things. At the age of three or four years, every child has command of a considerable vocabulary, consisting of the names of persons, of animals, of articles of food, dress, furniture, etc. The sounds of these names are familiar to the ear, and to the organs of speech, and the ideas they represent are familiar to the mind. All that is to be done, therefore, is to lead the eye to a like familiarity with their printed signs. But the alphabet, on the other hand, is wholly foreign to a child's existing knowledge. Having no relation to anything known, it must be acquired entirely without collateral aids. In learning words, too, the child becomes accustomed to the forms of the letters, and this acquaintance will assist him greatly in acquiring the alphabet when the time for learning that shall arrive.

I do not see, indeed, why a child should not learn to read as readily as he learns to talk, if taught in a similar manner. . . . There seems no reason to doubt that a child will learn printed words as fast as spoken ones. Indeed the advantage in facility of acquisition and permanence of impression is always supposed to be on the side of the eye, when compared with any other of the senses. . . .

When we wish to give the child the idea of a new animal, we do not present successively the different parts of it,—an eye, an ear, the nose, the mouth, the body, or a leg, but we present the whole animal as one object. And this would be still more necessary, if the individual parts of the animal with which the child labored long and hard to become acquainted, were liable to change their nature as soon as they were brought into juxtaposition, as almost all the letters do when combined in words.61

So Mann's ideas, which could have been found in Parker's area, might have supplemented what he found in the formal-educative influences of Tate and Sheldon, and thus perhaps Jacotot and Pestalozzi. And, we shall see at least one other local factor which might have been an influence upon Parker in the next section.

Parker has remarked that in both Manchester and Dayton he was studying hard for his profession. Since he has mentioned but one list of books--Philbrick's--one can only speculate what materials were available at that time to be studied. It may be that a ready source for Parker was the educational periodicals which began to be prominent in the early 1800's. Among these were Barnard's American Journal of Education, The Teachers' Guide and Parents' Assistant, and the American Annals of Education.\(^{62}\) That Parker was at some time familiar with the American Journal of Education is evidenced by an article of his in 1901; in "Henry Barnard As An Educational Critic" Parker lauds his work as editor of this magazine: "It is acknowledged that there is no cyclopaedia, no other work upon education in the world, that offers so much for all-around study."\(^{63}\) It is not known whether Parker was reading this periodical before 1872, however, articles on Jacotot, Leigh, Fellenberg, Gallaudet, Comenius and Pestalozzi all appear in volumes before this year.\(^{64}\) The American Annals of Education was published between the years 1831 and 1838 by William Channing Woodbridge, who spent much time in his magazine's pages elaborating on the works of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg.\(^{65}\) Both of these men were known to Parker via Tate and he

\(^{62}\)Lamport, p. 219.


\(^{65}\)William Channing Woodbridge," Appleton's Cyclopaedia of
could have acquired older copies of this magazine for his studies. An added incentive for his reading of this journal was the fact that its publisher was a distant relative.66

Between 1830 and 1850, several new educational periodicals were initiated, among them the Common School Assistant, the Journal of Education, the Ohio Common School Director, and the Connecticut Common School Journal.67 Parker could have had an ample opportunity—especially at Dayton—to read these latter two magazines, and, indeed, he does mention a Connecticut School Journal, Vol. I, 1838, in his "Henry Barnard" article in reference to Gallaudet and Fellenberg.68

Lamport also mentions that in addition to the increasing number of periodicals available from the 1830's and 1840's on, there were also


66 "John Woodbridge," Appleton's Cyclopaedia of American Biography, eds. James Grant Wilson and John Fiske, Vol. VI (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1888), p. 599; according to this writer's calculations, this article makes Parker and Woodbridge fifth cousins. See also W. A. Allcott, "William Channing Woodbridge," in Henry Barnard, American Educators (New York: Arno Press and the New York Times, 1969), pp. 268-280; Channing's "Annals" also incorporated a small weekly paper for teachers entitled "Education Reporter." This was published originally by Asa Rand before Channing merged it. It may be that Rand was a relation of Parker's too, through his mother's side of the family.

67 Lamport, p. 219.

68 Parker, "Henry Barnard," p. 407; this journal and the Connecticut Common School Journal are probably the same; whether Parker read it before 1872 is not determinable by this writer.
numerous professional books for teachers. Among those published during these years were: Dwight's *The Schoolmaster's Friend* (1835), Palmer's *The Teacher's Manual* (1840), Alcott's *Slate and Blackboard Exercises* (1842), and Page's *The Theory and Practice of Teaching* (1847).\(^{69}\)

Parker, in "Pedagogics," did acknowledge a familiarity with David Page's work in the New York schools;\(^{70}\) however, he does not mention specific pieces written by him.

A study of the formal-educative influences on Parker appears to indicate that, while he had no formal schooling beyond age eighteen, he was literate and familiar with the current mainstream of educational thought. Tate and Sheldon gave him adequate scope and breadth on which to build his studies, and the magazines prevalent before his travel in Europe could have supplemented and built on these two books to a substantial degree.

**Associative Influences**

Few notations of associative influences on Parker's work in any period have lasted to the present. One, however, which has survived, is traceable to his early school days, prior to his move to the Moore's.

When Parker was seven years old,

\[\ldots\] [his] teacher friend was moved to a larger academy planned for boys of ten years of age and over. Francis Parker put his head down on his desk and literally 'cried himself' into that academy. As a matter of fact, the teacher asked the Board to allow the little boy to go with him to the new school, saying that he

\(^{69}\) Lamport, pp. 219-220.

\(^{70}\) Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 430.
would be responsible for him; and he was, for many of the years ahead, directing the reading of the boy and helping him to obtain books.71

Campbell, Parker's biographer, claims that "no other mention of this mysterious influence on Parker's life was noted.72 By moving to the Moore's, Parker must have left the immediate influence of his teacher friend; however, Flora Cooke, from whom Campbell gets his information, claims the man was responsible for him educatively for many years. The early teacher-child association could be related to an incident which happened when Parker was sixteen, and thus shed light on the teacher's identity. At this age, Parker disobeyed his uncle and left for an area with a school (Hopkinton Academy73) which was under the charge of Dyer H. Sanborn, the one teaching grammar by a "new method." Speculation leads one to ask if Sanborn could have been Parker's former teacher-friend in Piscataquog? It may be that this man was in some way close to Parker's family, for at least one thread takes him to a distant relative.

The "new method" of grammar of which Parker spoke was elaborated by Sanborn in a book he published in 1836, under the title An Analytical Grammar of the English Language.74 In his "Preface," Sanborn stated that "This grammar professes to combine both the Inductive and

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71 Flora Cooke quoted in Campbell, pp. 20-21.
72 Campbell, p. 21.
73 Ibid., p. 32.
Productive methods of imparting instruction, of which much has been said within a few years past.\(^{75}\) Goold Brown, writing in 1861, claimed that the productive method of which Sanborn spoke and which influenced him came to him from William Channing Woodbridge in an article entitled "English Grammar on the Productive System: a method of instruction recently adopted in Germany and Switzerland."\(^{76}\) This is the Woodbridge who was related to Parker and who published the American Annals of Education. If Sanborn had indeed been influenced by this man, he might have been very interested in Parker, a relation of Woodbridge's, if he had discovered him in his school. Speculating farther, could Sanborn have known Woodbridge and could Woodbridge have helped him to find a job in Piscataquog? This is not too far out of the question, for Parker's uncle was on the local school committee and his grandmother owned a share in the academy.\(^{77}\) Both of these people would have had a voice in the hiring of the school master, and if Sanborn owed his job to the Parkers and was strongly influenced by a branch of their family there would be a double reason for his interest in the boy and for the boy's interest in him. It is conceivable that Sanborn was the unnamed schoolmaster—and it is interesting that when Parker mentions his name he does so in connection with a grammar tracing to a work of one of his antecedents. Goold Brown notes that Sanborn's grammar followed the

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\(^{75}\) Ibid.

\(^{76}\) Brown, pp. 108-109; the inductive influence came from a book by Roswell C. Smith.

\(^{77}\) Campbell, p. 20.
inductive approach to teaching grammar on the principles put forth by Bacon. This inductive approach to teaching grammar was supported by Parker throughout his life and in both "Teaching" and "Pedagogics." That Parker did know Sanborn, that he did know of his new grammar is true; and it may be safe to surmise that he did know of his book, which might, then, be the first formal-educative influence on Parker's language arts/reading philosophy. One should realize, too, that Woodbridge's grammar was influenced by Pestalozzi and Fellenberg's work at Hofwyl; it may be that Parker's introduction to these men, and Woodbridge, began long before Tate was known to him. The interesting thing is that Parker did not employ the new grammar in his teaching during his early years, but preferred to stay with the old methods.

Concluding Statement

As we have seen, by the time Parker left for Europe he did have a knowledge of numerous educational theorists and practitioners through the works of Tate and Sheldon, and perhaps Sanborn. Which of these men exerted the strongest influence on Parker's philosophy of education as it related to language arts/reading instruction during his earliest years is not definitively clear. However, later chapters will indicate

78Brown, p. 108.
79See Chapter 3, p. 51.
80Brown, p. 110; see also "William Channing Woodbridge," p. 600.
81See this Chapter, p. 75.
how the names of several of them reappear and how their ideas seem to assert themselves in Parker's efforts during the Quincy and Chicago years.

Chapter 5 will cover the predominant influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction while he is abroad; the major influences during this time seem to be formal-educative and general-personal. Chapter 6 presents a discussion of these same influences, including associative, during the last twenty-seven years of his life after he returns from Europe. Chapter 7 will conclude the paper by summarizing the study, presenting conclusions, and suggesting additional research in areas collateral to this paper.
Chapter 5

STUDY ABROAD: 1872 to 1875

This chapter presents a discussion of the years which Parker spent studying and traveling in Europe. The influences which he encountered abroad were primarily of an educative-formal and general-practical nature. He has left no available record of associative influences during these years.

Berlin

Parker arrived in Berlin in 1872, in the midst of a period which has been called by some "the boom years." The Prussian army, in September of 1870, had defeated Napoleon III, and by January 18, 1871, a new German empire was officially proclaimed at the Royal Palace in Versailles. Money from French sources, reparations, and low interest rates flooded the country and a speculative furor of optimism seized the Berliners: "Everyone figures he had been born with a silver spoon in his mouth which his mother had failed somehow to mention and which he now hastened to retrieve." According to Masur, growth, development, expansion were the keywords of the day: the stock market soared and

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2 Ibid., p. 59.
3 Ibid., p. 63
land speculation was rife. The boom, which was only slowed by a "crash" in 1873, saw the appearance of the metropolitan press, the garment industry, and apartment complexes. As a result of the industrial expansion, there was a change in the social stratification—a bourgeoisie capitalist class began to emerge, and a visitor to Berlin evaluated society as "upper class good; middle class not very good; lower class very good." An 1880 diplomat remarked that "nowhere is there a greater differentiation between the classes which compose the nation ..., than in Berlin." This is perhaps not so strange, as the constitution of the new empire was set up as "a compromise between princely and popular sovereignty, and 'insurance against democracy.'" It is interesting to note, below, that this "insurance against democracy" did not extend, at least in theory, to the University.

Formal-Educative Influences

Founded in 1809, the University of Berlin was, in Parker's day, one of the youngest of Prussia's tertiary institutions. Sitting at the back of a large park of grass and fronting the avenue, the main university hall was housed in an old palace. On one side of it was the

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4 Ibid., p. 85.
5 Ibid., p. 87.
6 Ibid., p. 59.
8 Masur, p. 21.
Royal Library and on the other side the Opera House; the entire complex was known as the Forum Fredericianum. 9

The founding principle of the university, under Wilhelm von Humboldt, who was head of the Prussian school system, was to be

... not unity and subordination, but freedom and independence. The teachers were not to be teaching and examining state officials, but independent scholars. Instruction was to be carried on not according to a prescribed order, but with a view to liberty of teaching and learning. The aim was not encyclopedic information, but genuine scientific culture. The students were not to be regarded as merely preparing for future service as state officials, but as young men to be trained in independence of thought and in intellectual and moral freedom by means of an untrammelled study of science. 10

Thus, the students were to be trained as independent thinkers and, whenever possible, as cooperating scholars. 11 This philosophical framework extended to the years in which Parker was in Europe, for G. Stanley Hall, who was there at the same time, remarked that "the years just following the Franco-Prussian War were marked by an almost marvelous outburst of intellectual energy." 12

Despite the emerging currents of interest in natural science in the nineteenth century, Friedrich Paulsen, who taught at the university,

9Ibid., p. 124.


11Ibid., p. 63.

12G. Stanley Hall, Founders of Modern Psychology (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1924), pp. v-vi; Hall studied in Berlin from 1870 to 1873. No evidence can be located as to whether he knew Parker while there.
pointed out that the philosophy faculty stood above all in "its influence upon the entire intellectual life, as well as upon the pursuit of knowledge and the form of instruction." It is probable that Parker was admitted to this philosophical faculty, whose intellectual traditions were founded on the lives and works of men such as Kant, Hegel, Fichte, Wolff, and Ritter. Here, Parker would have had the freedom to select courses and professors suitable to his interests and personality, although no "evidence exists to indicate what specific courses Parker proposed to pursue." Mathew Arnold, writing in 1892, listed a schedule of courses offered at the University of Berlin during the winter semester of 1865-66; it may be that this list of offerings is similar to the one Parker could select from seven years later. There were 175 courses presented by the school of philosophy; among them, those which might have appealed to Parker were (1) Psychology,

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13 Paulsen, op. cit., p. 55.
15 Paulsen, pp. 55-56; Parker spoke of most of these men in Francis W. Parker, Talks on Pedagogics: An Outline of the Theory of Concentration (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1894), pp. 393, 411, 412, and Francis W. Parker, Talks on Teaching, reported by Lelia E. Patridge (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1883), p. 122; Parker was impressed with Ritter, who "raised geography to a science and added it to the university curriculum, where it now [1906] forms an important link between the natural and historical sciences," Paulsen, p. 56; Parker claimed that one day he read Ritter and "the veil was lifted," in "From the General Discussion," Transactions of the Illinois Society for Child-Study, Vol. II (1896-97, p. 200.)
16 Campbell, p. 231.
(2) Pedagogy, (3) Mineralogy, (4) General Geology, (5) Lectures in English Language, (6) Psychology and Anthropology, (7) Philosophy of Language; General Grammar, (8) Theory of Geographical Phenomena, and (9) Systems of Modern Philosophy since Kant. Hall tells us that while Parker was at the University of Berlin several eminent scholars were lecturing in classes of the above nature. Among them were Eduard Zeller, Lotze, Fechner, Hartmann and Helmholtz. During his first period at the university, Hall took

... the complete course of Dorner in theology...

attended Trandelenburg's seminary on Aristotle, heard Delitzsch's biblical psychology, logical courses by Lasson, recent psychology by Pfleiderer, comparative religions by Lazarus.

As far as Parker's formal study went, evidence supports only the fact that he had first-hand experience with the words of Hegel; Washburn claims that "he took a two years' course in the Hegelian philosophy under a private instructor, because he was himself of a markedly un-Hegelian type mind." Parker loved the study of philosophy, and believed that one could not live without it. Hegel's philosophy was

17 Matthew Arnold, Higher Schools and Universities in Germany (London: Macmillan and Company, 1892), pp. 238-245. See also Marion Foster Washburne, "Col. Parker, the Man, and Educational Reformer," in Parker, Talks on Teaching, who maintained that Parker studied psychology, philosophy, history and pedagogics in Germany, p. 11.

18 Hall, op. cit., pp. v, 4, 247.

19 Ibid., pp. vi-vii.

20 Washburne, p. 12.

21 Francis W. Parker, "Discussion," in Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Educational Association (Salem,
prominently associated with the University of Berlin and Parker would have been aware of this.

When not in class, Parker could have been visiting the weekly philosophical club. He was also extending his practical study, for he was busily traveling to local schools, where he evaluated their programs and attained first hand concepts of the theory of Pestalozzi, Froebel, Herbart and Hegel in practice. And, when he got a chance on vacations, he traveled to other countries to evaluate their educational systems.

**General-Personal Influences**

While Parker was in Germany, he could have found both private and public schools. That he visited both these types is clear, for he found that in German district schools (public) there was better

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26 For a comprehensive discussion of these schools see Joseph Payne, Lectures on the History of Education with A Visit to German Schools, Vol. II (London: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1892), pp. 236-275: Payne visited these schools in 1874, at the same time Parker was in Germany. Also, when Parker edited The Practical Teacher for Amos M. Kellogg in 1886, he included A Visit to German Schools as one of the articles.
teaching than in American schools\textsuperscript{27} and he "went into the Kindergarten Schools [private], and became acquainted with the Kindergarten work in Berlin."\textsuperscript{28} In both the public and private schools, he could have discovered the guiding principles in the majority of them to be those of Pestalozzi.\textsuperscript{29} It would have not been until he reached the schools of Saxony that he would have found implemented the spirit and ideas of Froebel;\textsuperscript{30} in later years in Chicago "the ideal of Froebel became the ideal of the school."\textsuperscript{31}

Froebel based his philosophy of education on the self-activity concept of motivating children:

... for the school, self-activity means the desire of the child to enter into the life of others and the life around it; the desire to help, to find out, to discover, to participate in common activities, to create, to discover the identity or connection between itself and the activities of others, the discovery which constitutes knowledge. These are all forms of self-activity, and are

\textsuperscript{27}F. W. Parker, "European Correspondence, A Review of the Vienna Exposition," \textit{Dayton Journal}, Dayton, Ohio, October 14, 1873.

\textsuperscript{28}Parker, "Sketch," p. 129. See also Payne, who mentions that through 1874 the Kindergarten's were privately run, as the State was only concerned with providing education beginning at age six. "Whatever instruction . . . may be given to children before they are six years old, is properly no affair of the Government, which, therefore does not reckon the Kindergarten as part of its system," pp. 204-205.

\textsuperscript{29}Payne, op. cit., p. 271.

\textsuperscript{30}Campbell, loc. cit.

\textsuperscript{31}Francis Wayland Parker, "An Account of the Work of the Cook County and Chicago Normal School from 1883 to 1899," \textit{Elementary School Teacher and Course of Study}, II (1901), p. 763. Hereafter referred to as "Normal School."
to be seized as the sole motives to those school processes that the teacher wishes to make educative. In whatever form it may take, this desire of the child to become a part of the life around him, and thus realize his own being, is the beginning of all instruction.\textsuperscript{32}

On this general premise Froebel based his philosophy of language arts/reading instruction, relying heavily on the phonic method of instruction.\textsuperscript{33} Conversation was the foundation of his approach and it was to be encouraged by the teacher, who emphasized the slow, clear pronunciation of words. Beginning with his own name, the child learned to identify sounds and to associate them with stick letters; drills were devised to help a child accomplish this. After the child learned his name, then the word \textit{vater} (father) was taught, and then the word \textit{mutter} (mother), until the basic sounds had all been developed through words which were judged to be pleasant to the child. Froebel integrated reading and writing by having a child begin writing with a letter to a parent. This served as motive, which demanded a method (writing), which led to learning additional words, and thus broadened reading vocabulary and comprehension. Froebel's subject, Lisa, first read her own written letters, and then return letters sent to her by her father. Eventually she began reading a book, learning to adjust from print to script.\textsuperscript{34}


\textsuperscript{33}Lämpert, p. 82.

\textsuperscript{34}Friedrich Froebel, \textit{Pedagogics of the Kindergarten}, trans.
Like Bache, who visited Germany to study the schools in the 1850's, Joseph Payne found the methodology of German school's language arts/reading instruction to be heavily oriented to phonic instruction, and known as the "laut" or "sound" method. Both of these men did note, though, that language arts/reading instruction was correlated to other subject matter in the curriculum, with writing experience evolving from assignments in different subject areas. Apparently, the German stress on writing bordered on being a cultural custom; indeed, one German advocated that "it will even be convenient to begin with writing . . . before the reading."  

Thus, in the German schools visited by Bache and Payne, the methods of instruction in language arts/reading were apparently of a synthetic nature, stressing the parts to whole approach. This, as was seen in Chapter 3, was not that favored by Parker, who favored a word to reading, or holistic, approach. Parker would have approved of correlating the language arts and reading to the subject areas, and he would have favored the stress on writing, which the Germans employed.


36 Payne, A Visit to German Schools, p. 243.

37 See "Public Schools of Berlin," p. 445; see also Payne, pp. 236, 264-266.

38 Lamport, op. cit., p. 283.

39 Ibid.
He did mention, too, that when phonics was used supplementary to the whole word approach, it should be implemented through the technique of "slow pronunciation," much as Froebel had his Lisa learn to pronounce her name and subsequent words. 40

While abroad, Parker traveled in France, Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. 41 In these countries he may have found the influences of Pestalozzi and Froebel, too. In France, the work of Marbeau, who founded the creches, was still to be seen, and Madame Mallet's influences--Froebelian in nature--were to be found throughout the country. 42 Lamport suggests that Victor Cousin's trip to Germany in the 1830's, and his subsequent report of this trip, encouraged the French government completely to reorganize its schools along the German lines, "with Pestalozzian principles dominating the new scheme." 43 The Dutch, meanwhile, as Germany's neighbors, were feeling the influence of Pestalozzi, too, especially through the work of Von Dapperen, who was once Pestalozzi's pupil, and who taught at the Royal Teacher's Seminary

40 For an excellent discussion of contemporary reading instruction in West Germany see J. Marc Jantzen, "Teaching Reading in West Germany," Elementary English, Vol. 41, No. 6 (October, 1964), pp. 640-642.

41 Parker, "Sketch," p. 129. According to a travel permit issued to Parker by the University of Berlin, he may have been in France for "pleasure" around May 1, 1873; see Francis W. Parker, "Francis W. Parker Scrapbooks and Miscellaneous Papers," in Special Collections, Archives, The Joseph Regenstein Library, University of Chicago (hereafter referred to as "Scrapbooks"); this material is in "Reise-Erlaubnifs-Schein," Folder No. 1, no pagination.


43 Lamport, op. cit., p. 225.
at Haarlem.\(^44\)

In 1873, Parker was in Vienna where he reported the Vienna Exposition for the Dayton Journal.\(^45\) It may be that at this time he was able to travel to Switzerland where he could have viewed the remnants of the work of Pestalozzi, at Unterwalden, Hanz, and Berne,\(^46\) and Fellenberg, who established the school at Hofwyl.\(^47\) It was Hofwyl that was visited by William Channing Woodbridge, who wrote the article on productive grammar, and who influenced Dyer H. Sanborn's work in the United States.\(^48\) From Switzerland, a trip to Italy could have been feasible for Parker, and here, too, the educational system was based on that of the German schools. Prior to 1851, Dr. Luigi Parola and Professor Vincenzo Botta had visited the principle states of Europe and upon their return published a report on public instruction in Germany. It included suggestions for improving the schools of Sardinia through the employment of current German methodologies. By 1859, elementary instruction throughout Italy was based on that of Sardinia.\(^49\)


\(^{49}\)"Public Instruction in the Kingdom of Italy," American
Concluding Statement

The study and travel abroad must have presented Parker with innumerable ideas with which to build his educational concepts. Those that he selected from this trip, whether they were formal-educative or general-practical, were not formally delineated by Parker as contributing to his philosophy of education as it related to language arts/reading instruction. One must surmise from circumstantial evidence that perhaps more tangible influences surfaced during his last period—that following his return from Europe. Chapter 6 recounts those influences which apparently came into play during this time and which might have effected Parker's educational philosophy during the last twenty-seven years of his life. Chapter 7 outlines a summary of the study, presents conclusions drawn from the study, and makes suggestions for further research.
Chapter 6

POST EUROPE: 1875 to 1902

During the years 1875 to 1902, Francis Parker made his greatest contributions to American education. No less an educator than G. Stanley Hall labeled the period as Parker's "magnificent ferment;"¹ throughout the United States, from New York to California, from Massachusetts to Florida and Texas, Parker became known as a champion of the "new education."² Discussed below are those influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction which surfaced during this later period in his life. Because it is difficult to draw a firm line between associative influences and formal-educative influences during these twenty-seven years, these influences will be discussed under one heading. General-personal influences will be discussed in a separate section.

Associative and Formal Educative Influences

¹G. Stanley Hall, "A Magnificent Ferment," in Francis W. Parker, Talks on Teaching, reported by Lelia E. Patridge (New York: E. L. Kellogg and Company, 1883), p. 22; Parker's book is hereafter referred to as "Teaching."

²See Francis W. Parker, "Francis W. Parker Scrapbooks and Miscellaneous Papers," Special Collections, Archives, The Joseph Regenstein Library, University of Chicago. The scrapbooks, Nos. 1-13, all contain numerous articles from newspapers throughout the nation pertaining to Parker and his work. They are hereafter referred to as "Scrapbooks."
Child Growth and Development

Although in his earliest works Parker emphasized the use of language arts/reading as expressive modes to help develop individuality of thought, his theory in these areas was continually being supplemented through intellectual currents predominant at a given time. Thus, the theories developed as the years passed. Campbell believes that it was not until 1894, "after his theory of concentration had gone to press, that Parker became aware of the experimental developments of child study," which would have had a bearing on his language arts/reading philosophies, especially in the area of language development and readiness. Campbell could be correct if he is speaking predominantly of child study in the United States. However, before 1894, Parker was reading and quoting research in child study which was being conducted, or had been conducted, abroad by such men as M. Taine, Charles Larwin, Max Muller, W. Preyer, and G. J. Romanes; he mentions these men, as a matter of fact, in "Pedagogics." The evidence indicates that Parker was delving into matters connected with child growth and development before 1894 and some of this was incorporated

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3Parker, "Teaching," p. 86.
5Ibid., p. 452.
6Francis W. Parker, Talks on Pedagogics: An Outline of the Theory of Concentration (New York: E. L. Kellogg, 1894), pp. 173, 178. Hereafter referred to as "Pedagogics." See also Edwin A. Kirkpatrick,
into "Pedagogics," too.\(^7\)

To obtain information on the genesis of expression and language and on the child's readiness for learning, which would complement and expand his general educational philosophy, Francis Parker turned to the work of the above men--Taine, Preyer, M. Muller and Romanes.\(^8\) These men were concerned with tracing human development from birth to later stages of growth. Frequently, their work contributed material of a scientific and biological nature to theories, such as that of culture epochs, which were in vogue through the 1800's.\(^9\) Often their work led


\[\text{7For instance, in the United States, even, he was already familiar with Dewey's "organic circuit" concept; see "Pedagogics," p. 323 and Chapter 3, p.49.}\]

\[\text{8Parker, "Pedagogics," pp. 173, 178.}\]

\[\text{9See John Dewey, "Culture Epoch Theory," in Cyclopaedia of Education, Vol. II ed. Will S. Monroe (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915), where he says the "fundamental ideas of this theory are (1) that there is a general parallelism between the development of the human race and of the individual; that (2) this parallelism is of fundamental importance for the selection and arrangement of the materials of the course of study; that (3) the appropriate basis of the content of study at each period of child growth is the culture products . . . of the}\]
to support of the belief that individual growth recapitulates the evolution of animal life. For instance, Taine, after evaluating the growth of language, noted that "the child presents in a passing state the mental characteristics that are found in a fixed state in primitive civilizations, very much as the human embryo presents in a passing state the physical characteristics that are found in a fixed state in the classes of inferior animals." Romanes theorized that

... all animals and man ... possessed the simplest mental resources for rudimentary perceiving and recalling of sensory impressions; certain higher animals and man acquired additional capacities for making compound associations and for extracting limited meanings from events; man alone, however, enjoyed the distinction of possessing the abilities necessary for abstract, symbolic reasoning and remembering.

Both of these men, as did Preyer, supported their theories on the basis of case studies of children. In general, they traced the development of language and intelligence from the stage of simple reflex actions, through sense perception, trial and error, gesture, to advanced cognitive thinking and speaking. Preyer's outlining of this process corresponds

corresponding period of race development," p. 240; see also Chapter 3, p. 40.


11 Taine, op. cit., p. 259.


13 See G. J. Romanes, "Mental Evolution in Animals and Man," in
closely to that suggested by Parker in his expression continuum; 14 Preyer saw the child as being born with three types of movement: impulsive, reflexive, and instinctive. These three inborn movements were supplemented during the early stages of life by sensual impressions which lead to the development of will. For will to function at its most mature level, there need be four additional attributes: desire or motive, muscular sensations, voluntary inhibition, and attention. In order for will to be expressed, the child must combine all of the above functions. 15 Unlike Muller, Preyer believed that through imitation leading to gesture, expression occurred. 16 Thus, gesture led to expression (or was expression) and ultimately became oral speech. 17

Grinder, whose stages were receptual, preconceptual, conceptual, pp. 172-192; see also Taine, pp. 252, 257. Throughout the 1800's there was an academic debate as to whether or not the origin of articulate language was from the imitation and ejaculation of animal sounds, the "bow-wow" theory, see Judd, pp. 630-633. Max Muller supported the "bow-wow" theory and also claimed that words preceded thought, an idea rejected by Darwin in his Descent of Man, according to Hans Aarsleff. The Study of Language in England, 1780-1860 (New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1967), pp. 225-229. William James, The Principles of Psychology, Vol. I (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1904), mentions Muller in the above regard, too, p. 269. Parker knew of the "bow-wow" theory and also of Muller's suggestion that words preceded thought; he was receptive toward the first idea but apparently rejected the latter, as seen in Chapter 3, pp. 40-41.

14 See Chapter 3, p. 40. Preyer was also reading matter for the Illinois Society for Child-Study, and was outlined for a publication by Dr. Krohn; see Transactions of the Illinois Society for Child-Study, Vol. I, No. 1 (1894), pp. i-XLiii.

15 Preyer, I, pp. 334-346.

16 Preyer, II, pp. 208-209.

17 See Chapter 3, pp. 40-42.
It may be, also, that Parker's second wife, Francis Stuart, was a major influence on his educational philosophies relating to language and expression. When Parker met her in Boston, while he was with the Quincy schools, she held a position at the Boston School of Oratory; at one time she had charge of the Department of Voice and Delsarte System of Gesture.\(^\text{18}\) Martha Fleming has recorded that at some time Mrs. Parker had hoped to write a book on "The Function of Expression in Education." Evidently she spoke often of this, but never accomplished more than a small beginning. According to Fleming, "the chapters on Expression in Colonel Parker's Talks on Pedagogics voiced her thoughts on the subject."\(^\text{19}\) Her influence on Parker in this area is supported by Wilbur Jackman, who worked under Parker at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School; he has testified that "Colonel Parker said many times that he derived his earliest ideas upon this important subject from a study of the work of Mrs. Parker in Delsartean expression. . . . Mrs. Parker's influence was always immensely strong on the side of natural and full expression."\(^\text{20}\) In "Pedagogics," Parker acknowledges his indebtedness to the Delsartean method:


My first intimation of Concentration came from the principles of Delsarte in his doctrine of the reaction of vocal and pantomimic expression upon the mind; these principles were applied to all the modes of expression.21

Delsarte was a Frenchman born in 1811, who, unable to perform on the stage, devised a system to teach elocution and dramatic art. He developed a theory based on the laws of aesthetic science.22

His chief idea was the expression of emotions through definite attitudes and arrangements of the different parts of the body. Delsarte attempted to classify and made scientific the empiric rules of the pantomime, for he believed that the perfect reproduction of the characteristic posture will produce the emotion expected by the actor.23

Delsarte's system, as adapted to the United States, emphasized three basic principles of physical culture: (1) relaxation, (2) energizing, and (3) deep breathing. Meylan claimed that the method was rather faddish, being popular in schools for young ladies and in society, and that it occupied a "very small place in modern scientific physical education."24

One has a difficult time relating rules of pantomime to Mrs. Parker's "natural and full expression;" most probably it was the unifying nature of Delsarte's work which inspired Parker, for writing in 1899 he mentioned that "the doctrine of Delsarte carried us another long step in correlation. Mrs. Parker taught that kind of elocution which trains

23Ibid.
24Ibid.
the body to be immediately responsive to the soul." Parker would evidently have approved of Delsarte's emphasis on relaxation and energizing, too. 26

The Child Study Movement

In America, during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, the child study movement, through various organizations and research, greatly increased educators' knowledge about the growth and development of children. Stimulated by a need educationally to differentiate between children and adults and by the evolutionary theory, which noted the transition from lower to higher forms of life and emphasized the study of early stages of development, a body of knowledge began to build and would eventually come to help educational theorists and practitioners. 27

Among the leaders of child study in America was G. Stanley Hall, a man whom Parker termed the "father" of the movement. 28 Hall

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26 See Chapter 3, pp. 46, 68-69.

27 The information which Parker acquired from the child study movement would have had an effect upon his approach(s) to readiness to read print and beginning reading. See Kirkpatrick, pp. 615-616.

studied in Germany during the years in which Parker was studying and traveling there, and the two could have formed a friendship. At any rate, after his return to America, Hall was a professor of psychology at John Hopkins University and President of Clark University, where he developed his culture-epoch theory and eventually wrote Adolescence in 1904. One of Hall's basic premises was that to teach the child, one must know him; thus, as a scientist, Hall studied children from every possible angle. Results of his research led Hall to postulate stages of human growth: infancy, childhood, youth and adolescence--the child becoming. In this developmental process, Hall was one who saw the necessity of childhood play, which helped to develop controls and skills. He also encouraged "play of the mind," or fancy and imagination, in the child, for by this avenue he believed that children could be led to create new and different experiences from past ones.

From his research, Hall concluded that

... curriculum, methodology, discipline, environmental factors, goals, and texts must be determined by the capabilities, interests, and activities of the child at a specific stage in his growth. The end must be a well-balanced individual, all sides of whose nature have been

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31Ibid., pp. 102-103, 170.

32See Chapter 3, p. 55.

33Frost, pp. 426-429.
given freedom to develop to their fullest.  

In 1894, after "Pedagogics" was published, Hall advised Parker that he would "find confirmation for some of his theories and more effective modes of expressing them if he looked into the Child Study movement." Parker evidently took Hall's comments to heart, for sometime during this year, while at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, the Illinois Society for Child-Study was organized; in 1898 Parker claimed it originated at the instigation of William O. Krohn, but Parker was the first president. The objectives of the society were fourfold. First, the Executive Committee, consisting of experts in physiology, experimental psychology, pathology, and child study should direct research; second, the Society would attempt to affiliate with teacher's organizations in the State of Illinois; third, there would be Child-Study Round Tables conducted over the State to meet periodically to discuss subjects related to child study; and fourth, a State advisory committee would be appointed for research into children's diseases and kindergartens.

34Hall quoted in Frost, p. 429.
35Campbell, "The Children's Crusader: Colonel Francis W. Parker" p. 452.
The activities of the Illinois Society for Child-Study were reported in *Transactions of the Illinois Society for Child-Study* ("Transactions"). This periodical included summaries of Society activities, articles by experts in child study, and listed books containing information pertinent to child study. For instance, volumes included a summary of practical suggestions by Preyer, and articles by Baldwin, G. Stanley Hall, C. C. Van Lieu, and John Dewey.

It would be a fair assumption that Parker did read much of the material in the pages of a journal published by a society of which he was president.

From interaction with individuals associated with the child study movement, from reading which he may have done in "Transactions," and from recommended readings from "Transactions" lists, Parker was

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influenced; he testifies to this in an 1895 article:

The investigations as to fatigue and brain exhaustion in children are nearly ready to be published. It is also a well ascertained fact that many children are very weak in powers of attention; that there are hundreds of thousands of children in school who have defective sight and hearing; that in the common en bloc way of teaching, immense danger to minds is present every day in the school room; that there is an organic relation between thought and expression.

One result has been reached that is of the first importance and should receive the thoughtful attention of teachers. This result is in regard to the slow diffusion of nervous energy from the brain, spinal chord, and torso. It is found that the nervous energy of the child is slowly diffused from the center outward. This is manifested by the child's spontaneous movements in broad curves. The physical energy reaches the extremities, for instance the fingers, last. If the extremeties are exercised in fine work, as in writing, so-called accurate drawing, and in much of the kindergarten work, this undue exercise of the extremities re-acts upon the center and hinders the diffusion of nervous energy, thus crippling the body, and consequently, the mind. . . . This startling conclusion appeals at once to every thoughtful parent and teacher, and should immediately be applied to all home and schoolroom work. (1) Finger writing, especially with little children, is utterly wrong. Slate writing is probably the worst infringement of this fundamental law. (2) The so-called accurate drawing is unnatural. (3) The fine network and other fine work of the kindergarten should be abolished.44

Thus, Parker was attempting to employ the "law of diffusion of nervous energy" and the organic circuit concept to support his theory that there was an organic relation between thought and expression, and that mental

and bodily action were interdependent. He attributed his ideas in this area to G. Stanley Hall, who visited Parker's Normal School every year, where he said I "set my educational watch." John Dewey, too, visited the school to lecture to Parker's faculty; he also advocated the idea of the organic circuit, and may have been the first to suggest it to Parker; however, Rugg maintains that his philosophy based on it was not fully developed until 1899.

From the child study movement and from Hall, Parker may have also acquired some of his educational concepts pertaining to physical and intellectual readiness pertinent to his statements above:

Probably the most important knowledge gained from physiological psychology is that fact that there are nascent periods in human growth. . . . The child is ready to creep when his nerves and muscles have grown sufficiently to learn that manner of locomotion, and, given the opportunity, the baby creeps. The same may be said of walking, talking, and all other marked epochs of growth.

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45Campbell, p. 453; see also Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 323.
48Ibid., p. 36.
50Parker, "Correspondence Department," p. 206.
51Ibid., p. 204.
There is a time . . . when every child may learn to draw; pass over that time and come to that when the critical period is far ahead of the executive, and drawing may only be learned by a continual exercise of the will, and never as well as it could have been if taken at the proper time.

There is a rule in pedagogics . . . without exception; that is, when the teacher puts his mind on a result external to the child, he is absolutely wrong. . . . 'Child-Study' is slowly turning the attention of teachers and parents to the child, to its needs, to the difference between the education into knowledge of words and forms, and the education which develops the whole being.52

Parker's concept of social readiness for school work might have come from his general philosophy regarding the common school53 and from Froebel. According to Parker, Froebel

. . . fully recognized the child as a social being. He believed that the action and reaction of child upon child, of the individual upon the mass, and of the mass upon the individual, were the keynotes to human growth.54

Froebel believed that teachers should "give each stage that which it demands,"55 and Froebel's ideal became the ideal of the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School for the sixteen years that Parker was there.56

52Parker, "Correspondence Department," p. 204, see also Chapter 3, pp. 55-56.


In 1883, when Parker left Boston to become Principal of the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, he attempted to gather around him the best teachers available.

From the first he had insisted on a free hand in the selection of teachers. He weeded out those instructors he found at the Normal School who were inflexible in their methods or who were strictly political appointments. Only four of the original staff remained after Parker's first year in charge; these four, however, reflected the influences of Sheldon's Oswego movement and were the nucleus of Parker's new staff. Eventually the program which evolved for the Normal School's practice school was based on what Parker termed "illustrative teaching."

The method relied heavily on the use of pictures, models, field trips, and all kinds of concrete examples and specimens. The purpose was to direct children to observe things closely, to see relationships, and to describe them orally and in writing. Models and apparatus for much of this teaching were made by the teacher and students in the manual training shops. ... Parker developed his 'illustrative teaching' in keeping with the natural needs and interests of the children, but he believed it was but the first step toward advanced levels of school where there would be more abstract development and more intellectual

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58 Ibid.

59 Campbell, p. 398; also, it may have been Sheldon and his Oswego movement which were responsible for giving Parker much of his philosophy regarding the teaching of language arts/reading, beginning in Manchester or Dayton, and perhaps continuing into later years, see Chapter 4, pp. 84-85. Also, it was at this time (early 1800's) that Parker was again reading Tate, see Chapter 4, pp. 81-84.
Two of the teachers who joined Parker's staff apparently contributed substantially to his theories in language arts/reading instruction, supplementing Parker's already well-formed ideas. These individuals were Carl J. Kroh and Harriet Iredell. Kroh was the leader of the physical culture program and was an exponent of "health and beauty;" he often encouraged his classes to become involved in plays and dance, as well as gymnastics. Evidently he was central in applying some of the theory regarding play as necessary for development, and thus readiness, that was being suggested by Hall and the child study movement; Parker stated that under Kroh's leadership "it was proved that the child most skilful [sic] in physical exercise is the strongest in all other work." Thus, development of mind and body was encouraged, based on play as the best physical training. An emphasis on this area helped make the child ready for beginning and continuing study.

Harriet Iredell also had something to contribute. "In one of the weekly meetings, a member of the faculty told of a pedagogical discovery she had made. Springing to his feet, the Colonel said, 'Great! The biggest pedagogical idea advanced in years. Tell us more about it.'"

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60 Ibid., p. 392.
61 Heffron, Francis Wayland Parker: An Interpretive Biography, p. 96.
63 Ibid., see also Chapter 3, p. 55.
64 Heffron, op. cit., p. 44.
A child had asked Harriet Iredell how to spell a word needed by the whole class—attention was rampant. The word was written on the board and then erased. A child wrote the word, incorrectly. It was re-written and again erased by Iredell. The word was not left for the children to copy. Because of this, concentration upon the moments view of the right form was intense, and only a third writing was necessary... even for the very slowest child to reproduce the word correctly. A pedagogical discovery had been made which had gone far to solve for many, especially for the eye-minded type of child, the problem of spelling.\(^65\)

It may be that this experience of Iredell's contributed to Parker's changing his methodology of teaching vocabulary development. As was seen earlier,\(^66\) Parker turned away from using slates for this area of skill development in "Pedagogics" of 1894; the organic circuit concept may have contributed to this to some degree, but Iredell's discovery had excited the Colonel.\(^67\)

Beginning Reading and Approaches

After brief attempts to teach reading by the phonetic method in Dayton,\(^68\) Parker switched to the whole word approach, which he commended throughout his life.

Any attempt at analysis, at first, weakens the action of the word, is entirely unnecessary, and at the same time unnatural... The work of Comenius, followed by that of Gallaudet, Webb,

\(^{65}\text{Ibid., p. 45.}\)

\(^{66}\text{See Chapter 3, pp. 47-48.}\)

\(^{67}\text{See Chapter 3, pp. 48-49.}\)

\(^{68}\text{See Chapter 4, p. 78.}\)
and Franham, has been a tendency in the right direction.69

So in "Pedagogics," Parker does list those men who predominantly influenced his philosophy, at least in the area of reading instruction. The first of those mentioned was Comenius, the Moravian Bishop, who, in 1657, prepared his Orbis Pictus. This volume was an illustrated textbook based on pictorial presentation of subject matter; it was an attempt to help children correlate subjects with corresponding words. A number was placed next to a picture and next to a word representative of the picture so children had a visual as they made word-object associations and as they read the word in sentences.70

Comenius saw the book as being of value in several ways:

1. It will assist objects to make an impression on the mind. 2. It will accustom the little ones to the idea that pleasure is to be derived from books. 3. It will aid them in learning to read. For since the name of each object is written above the picture that represents it, the first step in reading may thus be made.71

69 Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 199. In a footnote Parker says that German teachers, such as Graser and Bohme, worked effectively in the same direction as the men named above. Also see Payne, who notes that Graser was the first systematically to connect reading with writing instruction, a method termed die Schreiblesemethode. Graser took the technique from a Frenchman named De Launay. The method required the learner to take an active part in the process. He co-operated throughout with the teacher, and in fact does the work himself," p. 236. Parker, "Pedagogics," also mentions the "Normal Worter-Methode," p. 198; Mathews claims this method was in essence the whole word method which traced to Jacotot, p. 47.


71 Comenius quoted in Lamport, p. 36.
The *Orbis Pictus* was more than an illustrated book, for it followed a definite strategy of presentation. "It carried out definitely the plan of dealing with things first, and of acquiring generalized knowledge through the process of inductive reasoning."\(^{72}\) This book quickly became popular throughout Europe and was eventually translated into English. Finally it reached America and was published domestically in 1810.\(^ {73}\)

The Reverend Thomas Gallaudet was seen by Parker to continue the tradition established by Comenius. His primary interest was in the training of the deaf and dumb, and, in order to discover methods to help him with this orientation, he traveled abroad, throughout Europe, to discover educational practices in the area of reading.\(^ {74}\) Between 1823 and 1830, he applied his discoveries, which were based on "having children learn their letters by means of words, . . . they mastered the words used in the process so that they could read both by inspection and from memory."\(^ {75}\)

The words *horse, dog, cat*, are written in a very plain and legible hand on three separate cards. One of them is shown to the child and the name of

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\(^{72}\)Lamport, p. 44. See also Chapter 3, pp.51, 66 and Chapter 4, p. 82. Parker favored the inductive approach to learning, in general, as well as object education. Also see Campbell, p. 395.

\(^{73}\)Lamport, p. 36. Also see Mitford M. Mathews, *Teaching to Read Historically Considered* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966), who maintains that Comenius was basically in favor of the ABC approach to beginning reading. He published his book as a supplement to this type of synthetic approach, p. 142.

\(^{74}\)Mathews, pp. 55-57.

\(^{75}\)Ibid., p. 57.
the object pronounced, and then the second and the third in the same manner, without any reference to the individual letters which compose the word. After repeating this a few times, the child is asked, 'What is that?' holding up one of the cards, and so of the rest. Let the cards then be placed together, and the child required to select those denoting the several objects, one after the other. Vary the order of doing this until the child becomes perfectly familiar with the words, which will be in a very short time.

The next day another card, containing the name of some other familiar object may be added, and the child practiced in the same manner upon the four cards. The number of cards may soon be increased to six, to ten, to twenty, to fifty.

Here I have been accustomed to stop, and to begin to teach the letters of which the words are composed. . . .

There is a great advantage too in the child's becoming acquainted with the written characters. The parent can thus pursue the course of instruction and devise new lessons of words, and of short and simple phrases and stories, teaching the child to read and to learn to spell them, both by inspection and from memory. The child can also derive great pleasure and improvement from learning to write the same words and lessons, with a slate and pencil, with which every child should be furnished as soon as he discovers the least inclination to make a single mark.

In this way I have found not the least difficulty in teaching a child to read both written and printed characters at the same time.76

As can be seen, Gallaudet, following a precedent established by Pestalozzi and Froebel,77 encouraged writing as soon as the child was ready to begin; this writing was to be script, not print.

Gallaudet was also concerned with getting meaning from words, with aspects of comprehension.78 To help children achieve meaning he


77 Lamport, op. cit., p. 329.

78 Ibid.
wrote and published a child's book, entitled *The Child's Picture Defining and Reading Book*, it was divided into two sections.

In the first part, was a series of pictures each accompanied by a list of names of the most prominent objects and also with a set of very short and simple phrases naming the actions which the picture was intended to represent. The child was to try reading the list of names and phrases, and pointing to the corresponding elements in the picture. If he found difficulty in doing this, or needed explanation or illustration, the teacher was to afford all necessary aid to insure the child a good understanding of the chore. Part Two presented the same series of pictures, in the same order, as Part One. But here each of the pictures was accompanied with a short story, the elements of which were to be found in the list of names and sets of phrases accompanying the same picture in Part One. By reviewing these elements before beginning the reading exercise, the child was prepared, with the continued aid of the picture, to read and comprehend the story with little or no aid from the teacher.

Gallaudet's book contained sixteen such exercises, dealing with a variety of everyday and religious subjects.

This reader became fairly well-known as *The Mother's Primer* and received very favorable comments from Horace Mann.

Just as Comenius and Gallaudet were interested in teaching reading employing to some degree the whole word method, so was J. Russell Webb. In fact, he asserted that he originated the method in an 1846 primer entitled *The New Word Method*. This assertion was false, as has been seen, and Mitford Mathews claims it was made for propagandistic

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80Lamport, p. 331.

81Mathews, p. 60; see also Chapter 4, pp. 86-87.

reasons, "pure and simple." In the same year, Webb published *The Child's First Reader*, which was the first of an entire series of normal readers. When the series was completed in 1855, the name of this primer became *Webb's Normal Reader*, No. 1. This book and others in the series were organized around five points:

To read well, the following particulars are essential, viz.:

1. A full comprehension of the matter to be read
2. Correct position or action
3. Knowledge of the forms and force of words
4. Perfect control over the voice
5. Judgment.

Another procedure which was encouraged by Webb, and which began to creep into reading instruction at this time, was an interest in silent reading. Parker, among others, encouraged its employment and would have agreed with Webb that

... the reading lesson should be carefully read, silently, previous to the class exercise, at which time every word not understood should be examined in the dictionary, and these definitions, or their import, given at the spelling exercise from the reading lesson.

The content of Webb's readers corresponded to the theories of Comenius and Gallaudet on the subject, in that they were based on pleasurable material of interest to the child.

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83 Mathews, p. 73.
84 Quoted in Smith, p. 91.
85 Quoted in Smith, p. 91; see also Chapter 3, p. 66-67.
86 Smith, pp. 96-97.
Some of his highest compliments were paid by Parker to George L. Farnham, to whom he felt

... we owe ... a representation of the thought method, or the association of the thought which a sentence arouses to the related words themselves. The work of Mr. Farnham is pregnant with possibilities for the economical teaching of the first steps of reading. 87

Parker probably knew of Farnham's work soon after his return from Europe, for a newspaper article dated 1879 stated that it was Farnham's method that was implemented in the Quincy schools. 88 In one of Parker's scrapbooks, also, is to be found a letter, dated May, 1874 (written while Parker was in Europe), by G. L. F. (George L. Farnham), in defense of Farnham's thought and sentence method and its use in various New York Schools. 89 Additionally, in 1893, before publication of "Pedagogics," Parker wrote an article entitled "Mann, Webb, Farnham," which lauds all of these men in a general way. 90

George L. Farnham may have been responsible for the sentence method of teaching reading which swept the United States in the late 1800's. He first presented his ideas on this method at a meeting of the National Education Association of 1873. 91 Klapper claims that the

87 Parker, "Pedagogics," p. 199.
88 See "Scrapbooks," No. 1, p. 25. There is also an undated newspaper article by Farnham entitled "Primary Education--The Thought and Sentence Method of Teaching," p. 25.
89 See "Scrapbooks," No. 2, p. 3.
90 See "Scrapbooks," No. 10, no pagination.
91 Lamport, op. cit., p. 415.
method presented traced to Comenius and Jacotot, for it stressed that "the complete thought, and then the complete sentence as the expression of that thought, should be the basis of instruction in reading, inasmuch as the child is not conscious of having separate thoughts or of using separate words to express them." 

The sentence was considered, not merely as a series of word sounds or word names, but rather as the sum-total of these elements spoken so as to express a particular meaning. Farnham believed that to attempt the comprehension of this meaning by calling attention to the elements of the sentence, either phonic or graphic, interposed a number of objects of attention before reaching the ultimate objective, the attention being arrested and the judgment exercised in the order in which the objects were impressed, thereby making more difficult the acquisition of the complete thought. Beginning with the study of words rather than letters decreased the number of intermediate objects, and to that extent lessened the difficulty; nevertheless, the sentence whole and its total meaning should constitute the point of original emphasis.

Farnham established six principles for his method.

1. Things are recognized as wholes.
2. Parts are recognized while contemplating the wholes.
3. The whole or unit in language is the sentence.
4. Words, as parts of a sentence, are discovered while recognizing the sentence.
5. Letters are discovered while contemplating words.
6. Language, especially written language, is to be learned indirectly, while the attention is directed to the thought expressed.

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93Lamport, op. cit., p. 352.
94Ibid.
Children were encouraged to learn words and sentences through writing them; script was employed, rather than print. By the middle of the first year, children were generally able to make the transition into the printed reading matter with which they were presented.\textsuperscript{96} It does appear that Farnham's sentence method provides a partial description of some of the reading strategies suggested by Francis Parker for use in the schools with which he was associated.\textsuperscript{97}

General-Personal Influences

Several general-personal influences seem to have surfaced during this later period in Parker's life. It is difficult to determine whether they supplemented the theory current at a given time, or whether Parker discovered the theory to justify a practice which he found to be working in the classroom. Perhaps it suffices to say that often associative, formal-educative, and general-personal influences which Parker noted at this time in his life all appear to be concerned with the same areas of instruction.

Among the first of these influences to be noted is one which could have given impetus to Parker's philosophy that (1) language

\textsuperscript{96}Lamport, pp. 353-354.

\textsuperscript{97}See Chapter 3, pp.58-59. It may be that Farnham influenced Parker's theory of language and expression, too. He said that "the child learns oral speech by degrees . . . as its necessity is felt in expressing his own thought. Each new thought and new expression is assimilated by use. In reading and writing the same law holds. New elements should be introduced no faster than they can be made familiar by use. The expression follows the thought. In this way the mind of the pupil grows by receiving its proper aliment,[sic] and the power of expression increases with each new acquisition of thought." See Farnham, pp. 63-64.
arts/reading instruction should be oriented to thought attainment and that (2) reading and writing were both part of the same process. He told the story of a school which was famous all over New England for its copperplate writing, for the students spent much time during their first six years of school making letter forms. He saw the rationale for this being that toward the letter forms, themselves, was the children's motive-and-intellectual-action-oriented, and they succeeded in making the forms admirably. Parker, who said he was a devotee of this method "proposed to test its efficacy still farther." 98 After reading a story to the pupils, he gave them paper and asked them to tell the story, in their own words; "the result was disastrous," 99 because the children were not trained in getting the thought and expressing it. 100

Parker's emphasis on having the child learn phonic principles by slow pronunciation may also have come from classroom experiences. 101 He reported that

I have found by repeated experiments that the little child will understand me when I pronounce words slowly in a natural manner nearly as well as when I pronounce in the ordinary way. The child may be trained by imitation to pronounce slowly with great readiness and skill. This should be carefully done before any direct association is made between articulate sounds and the word that

99 Ibid., p. 268.
100 Ibid.
101 See Chapter 3, p. 61.
represents them. 102

Finally, it is apparent that Parker did not rely solely on the words of Gallaudet and Farnham in starting children to read with script rather than print. At least, he experimented himself: "In my experience, extending over eleven years of supervision of primary schools, I have never known the failure of a single class to change from script to print, easily and readily, in one or two days." 103 He found, from experience, that the first principle to follow in encouraging the children's transition was "never point out or allude in any one way to the difficulty in learning print. You should have besides a good chart . . . [and] at least five or six sets of First Readers. . . . (Never let the children point to words with their fingers.)" 104

Concluding Statement

As can be seen, Parker was enmeshed in the myriad of intellectual crosscurrents which were emanating during the later quarter of the Nineteenth Century. Whether the influences on his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction were associative or formal-educative or general-practical is hard to discern; a man as involved in all aspects of education--kindergarten through normal school--would have little time to study current publications; yet, the man was a reader and writer and involved with such

102 Parker, "Teaching," p. 46.
103 Ibid., p. 37.
104 Ibid., p. 62.
organizations as the National Education Association, the Herbartian Society, and the Illinois Society for Child-Study. Through contacts in these groups he may have acquired much of the knowledge which he exhibited. From the standpoint of general-practical influences, it is to his credit that he was able to get into the classroom and experiment as a practitioner with some of the theoretical ideas of the day.

In the last chapter of this paper, Chapter 7, the writer will present a summation of those influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, state the influences which were apparently predominant in Parker's life and conclude the study with recommendations for further research.
Chapter 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to terminate this study of the influences on Francis Wayland Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction; it presents a summary and conclusion and suggests additional research. The summary states Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction by highlighting its most cogent features. The conclusion is divided into three sections, which (1) specify what this writer believes to be the primary influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, (2) specify what this writer believes to be the secondary influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction, and (3) specify areas of research which would contribute collateral knowledge to subjects touched upon by this report.

Summary

Francis Wayland Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction is based predominantly upon two guiding principles: the first of these states that "when the child writes the first word, the unity of all language-teaching is begun. Getting thought and giving thought by spoken and written words should be united at the start, and grow through all future development as from
one root;"¹ the second of these corresponds to the first: "reading...
should be a means of growth, ... there ... [is] no need in the
study of reading to have any reading outside that which bears directly
upon the study taught."²

With these as his foundation, Parker advocated what to language
educators today would be basically a structured language arts approach
to language/reading education. The child was to be the center of the
curriculum and his interests were to lead him into language development,
whose end was comprehension. But his interests were deemed to be, by
nature, science-oriented, thus, his lessons were oriented initially to
nature study.

Parker believed that thought, derived from elementary ideas
and acquired through the senses, preceded expression. Expression, in
its simplest form, was gesture. In its more mature forms, it was speaking,
writing, and reading. By the time the child entered school, he
had most of his basic oral language patterns and it was with these that
the teacher began to work. Her instructional responsibility was pri-
marily to develop vocabulary through object-word relationships which,
in turn, lead to thought development. By having a child relate written
words with visual objects by writing them on a slate or blackboard,
oral vocabulary and written vocabulary developed, while at the same

¹Francis W. Parker, Talks on Teaching, reported by Lelia E.

²Francis Wayland Parker, "An Autobiographical Sketch of Francis
Wayland Parker," in William Giffin, School Days in the Fifties
time reading began. The child's initial visual language experiences were to begin with script. Just before being placed in the first reader, he was to make the transition to print.

Once the child learned a word, the word was placed in a sentence and used grammatically. The child was initially taught words which were common to him and/or which would be found in first readers. These words, as we have seen, led to the child's earliest writing lessons. As the child wrote, the teacher inductively taught him correct grammar. Often, he was encouraged to write through stimulation from a picture, a game, or from a class-shared nature trip.

Parker believed that reading education, if done correctly, need not continue beyond the fourth grade. Most of his methodologies, therefore, were based on "correct" teaching and dealt mainly with readiness for general schooling and with an approach to beginning reading. He does not develop the reading skills areas to include periods of reading growth and reading power, which might come after the fourth grade.

Cognizant of the need for intellectual, social, and physical readiness, Parker admonished teachers and parents to take note of nascent periods in child growth and development. When the teacher felt the child was ready, his schooling would begin and proceed according to the child's abilities.

The whole word method, Parker felt, should be supplemented with phonic instruction. Theoretically, this instruction should be oriented to the sequential development of sounds based on phonemic units, or linguistic patterns, modified by initial and terminal consonants. From the simplest relationships this would build to more complex ones,
involving diphthongs, diagraphs, blends, and structural analysis.

Parker affirmed that a child should read material silently before he read it aloud. When oral exposition of any type was used, it was to be natural and its purpose was to communicate a thought. If a child had difficulty in pronunciation, he could model on the teacher for this skill, but his expression of an idea was to be his own.

Parker said little which would pertain to correctional or remedial reading. He did favor using oral reading to diagnose phonic and comprehension problems, which could then be corrected by placing a child in material more suited to his level. However, he did not outline methodologies or strategies which might help those whose reading achievement was below that which it should be.

Conclusions

An interpretation of the research in an historical study of this nature cannot help being dependent upon subjective evaluation. The evidence, as this writer interprets it, confirms what Campbell\(^3\) has intimated: Francis Wayland Parker had the nucleus of his philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction by the time he left Dayton for Europe. Over the years, various threads of his philosophy were elongated, but its essence came from a few definitive influences and from many undocumented general-practical ones.

In studying Parker, one must keep in mind that he was a practitioner, first, and a theoretician, second; what he saw working in

\(^3\)See Chapter 2, p. 22.
the classroom served as the foundation for his beliefs, and the theory was perhaps icing on the cake. This attitude, in part, explains his philosophical inconsistencies over the years, for what might work in one practical situation might not work in all practical situations, and thus it would not lend itself to being a philosophical basis, or supplementing a philosophical persuasion, of any consistency or depth.

Primary influences. Perhaps the greatest influence on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction was a formal-educative one, T. Tate's *Philosophy of Education*. The research indicates that it was read by Parker for the first time while at Dayton and, for the second time, at least, in the early 1880's, while he was editing it for American publication. This book may have been an exceptionally strong influence on Parker's general philosophy of education, as well, for it was the one emphasizing the scientific nature of education and that education, to be scientific, needed method. As has been seen, these were two of Parker's basic educational tenets, and this writer believes he acquired them from reading this volume.

Tate's book is the first known influence which could have provided Parker with a general framework for his ideas on language arts/reading instruction. It emphasized a holistic to synthetic approach to beginning reading, stressing that through holistic-associative learning the child gained the thought, and, that through subsequent phonic analysis, the child learned needed decoding skills. Basing his philosophy on the works of Bacon and Locke, Tate encouraged the scientific educator to follow the inductive method; this method was to be
employed in the teaching of reading by going from the simplest to the most complex: easy words before difficult ones and simple analysis before, and leading to, more complex analysis.

Supplementing Tate as a formal-educative influence, and maybe read at the same time, appears to be Sheldon's work. The evidence indicates that Sheldon's general concern was with object education. However, when it came to reading instruction, he favored phonics as a central approach. As we have seen, phonics was not advocated by Parker as an approach; however, he may have been impressed with Sheldon's systematized phonic instruction based on phonemic units. Sheldon's work in this area was of a more elaborate and developmental nature than Tate's, and was indicative of what Parker suggested in "Teaching," in "Mono-syllables," and in "Supplementary Reading."

Francis Parker would not have had to go to Europe to discover the basis for his theories on language arts/reading education, for they existed in the United States. It is granted that Tate was from Great Britain and Sheldon's work was based on the scientific application of Pestalozzi. But Parker found these at home and knew them prior to his travels. From research, this writer believes a major influence causing him to seek out books on the nature of Tate's and Sheldon's was a general-practical one, that occurring in Manchester when he saw children struggling with the "ABC" method of reading instruction and hoped to find some way to help them.

Research also indicates that three associative influences

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4 Sheldon was greatly influenced by Pestalozzi, see Chapter 4, p. 84.
played a large part in the development of Parker's theories. The first of these is one often overlooked in the literature—that of Dyer. H. Sanborn. This was the man who taught grammar by the "new method."

Out of all of his associations during his early life, Sanborn is one of the few whom Parker actually documented and to whom he attributed some type of language arts/reading methodology. He provided a synthesis of inductive-productive grammar at a time when Parker was fresh from struggling with a great general-practical influence—the writing and recording of his observations of nature in his garret at the Moore's. Sanborn may have helped Parker overcome some of the criticisms given by the woman teacher\(^5\) of his written work; in fact, Sanborn may have encouraged Parker to regard writing as the means to individualism through the mass. He should be considered, too, as the primary influence in Parker's lifelong emphasis on the teaching of grammar by the inductive method.

Frances Stuart Parker, the second wife of Francis Parker, must have also had a strong influence on this man's work. She married him during his later period, and the research indicates that she helped him to state more succinctly his ideas on expression and oral discourse. Early in his life, his general-practical experiences with declamation, self-consciousness and self-conceit helped establish a basis for what she taught from the doctrines of Delsarte. Throughout life, Parker strongly encouraged the use of natural delivery as a means to an end—individual thought, communication. This is the heart of Mrs. Parker's

\(^5\)See Chapter 4, p. 72.
dogma, too; and, as was seen in Chapter 6, she might even have written the chapters on expression in "Pedagogics" for Parker. In this he gives his fullest ideas on the subject.

The final primary associative influence on Parker would have been that of G. Stanley Hall and the child study movement. These influences would have come during Parker's last period, for it was at this time that Parker began to expound on child growth and development. From Hall and the child study movement, Parker most probably learned of nascent periods, the organic circuit, the diffusion of nervous energy, and culture epochs. These would have led to his postulations of readiness and also to his knowledge of the works of Preyer, Taine, Romanes, Muller and Darwin.

**Secondary influences.** Research suggests several secondary influences which served to complement and supplement the primary influences on Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to language arts/reading instruction. All of them may have come during Parker's later period. However, one exception to this could be Froebel and his work as it pertained to child growth and development. No evidence exists that Parker knew of Froebel before he traveled to Europe, but he might have known of him from his experiences in Dayton. At any rate, Froebel's creed was the basis for the work at the Cook County (Chicago) Normal School, and, during his later period, Parker testified that Froebel was the forerunner of the child study movement, suggesting that

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6See Chapter 6, p. 112.
children should be taught things at the proper time--when they were ready.

Evidence from Parker's testimony indicates that Preyer, Taine, Muller and Darwin were also influences. All of these men gave some content to Parker's theoretical ideas on language development. His theory, in this regard, was not at all well-developed. It would be safe to assume that Parker appreciated mainly the scientific merits of the work of these men, for the research certainly does not indicate that he studied their findings in any depth.

In the area of reading education, the ideas gained by Parker from Tate and Sheldon were supplemented and confirmed by Comenius, Gallaudet, Webb and Farnham. The evidence leads one to believe that Parker approved of the work of these educators because they envisioned language education as he did: all four of them believed the goal of reading to be comprehension and suggested methods to accomplish this end which would be pleasurable to the child. Three men, Gallaudet, Webb and Farnham, all shared Parker's contention that beginning reading should follow a holistic to synthetic approach, and two men, Gallaudet and Farnham, agreed with Parker, in that they encouraged teachers to begin language instruction with script, moving to print just before introduction to first readers. George Farnham was the national leader in encouraging the use of the sentence approach to beginning reading, consequently he might have given Parker the basis for his ideas in this area. Finally, Webb's specific input could have been the emphasis on

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7See Chapter 6, pp. 124-125.
silent reading. Parker favored this strategy, for he felt that silent reading, before oral reading, led to an emphasis on the communication of the thought content and prevented undesirable self-consciousness.

Suggested Additional Research

In several areas touching on the life and work of Francis Wayland Parker there needs to be additional research:

(1) A more definitive biography on Parker needs to be written. Those in existence deal very lightly with such topics as Parker's personal life, his general associates, and his time in Europe. In order better to understand this man and his philosophies, work in these areas is needed.

(2) A study should be conducted to determine influences on Parker's educational philosophy, in general. Dangler's 1940 effort in this area is not available, and it seems that what is to be attained from the general literature tends to attribute too much of Parker's philosophy to foreign sources, rather than to ones found in the United States. For instance, possible influences which are often overlooked are those by Emerson, Webster, Clay, Agassiz, Mann, Barnard, Gove, Sumner, Payne, Page, and Woodbridge.

(3) A study might be conducted oriented to the history of the development of the teaching of grammar in the United States. An interesting paper might exist, for instance, on Dyer H. Sanborn and his influences in America.

(4) A study should be conducted which would draw parallels between portions of Parker's philosophy of education as it relates to
language arts/reading instruction and what is being suggested in the language arts/reading literature today. The writer suspects that much of what the linguists, in particular, are currently saying had its roots with some of those individuals who influenced Francis Wayland Parker.
APPENDIX A

The Mechanics of Speech

1. In making, through the use of the breath, vocal and non-vocal, and the various adjustment of the organs of speech, distinct sounds or elements—forty, at the very least calculation. This process is enunciation.

2. These sounds are joined or articulated in words. The articulation of words requires as many positions of the organs of speech as there are elements in the word. Between the utterances of two syllables of the same word there is a perceptible pause, and still longer pauses between words and sentences.

3. In words of two syllables, there is a slight inflection or accent upon one of them. Pronunciation, or the marking of oral words, consists of:
   (a) Enunciation of each element.
   (b) Articulation of the elements.
   (c) Accent upon one syllable, of words of more than one syllable.
   (d) Perceptible pauses between two syllables in the same word.

4. Sentence-making, or the joining of words into arbitrary conventional or idiomatic relations.

5. Between successive words there are pauses, longer or shorter, indicating the relation of words, phrases, and clauses to the whole sentence.

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APPENDIX B

American Script: the Smooth Line

1. Place yourself before a desk of the proper height; rest the forearm easily and lightly upon it. There should be no tension caused by raising the arm too high, or dropping it too low.

2. Sit in a chair that will allow you to rest the feet flat upon the floor, the legs forming an obtuse angle at the knees.

3. Sit square to the front of the table or desk, providing the full forearm can easily rest upon it; otherwise sit at the slightest possible angle that will allow you to rest the forearm wholly upon the desk.

4. Have the forearm form an obtuse angle at the elbow with the upper arm.

5. Place the forearm parallel to the right and left edges of the paper, and in moving the forearm from left to right, keep it parallel with the right and left edges.

6. Let the wrist rest without pressure flat upon the paper.

7. Let the pen rest between the thumb, the index and second fingers.

8. Let the pressure of the pen upon the paper be equal upon both nibs.

In this position, draw the arm down, with no purpose but to make a straight line; the angle thus made will be between 51 and 52.

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APPENDIX C

Incidents of Grammar

1. Proper nouns may be taught with the use of capitals.

2. When it assists mental action to know objects in classes, the common nouns may be taught.

3. The plurals of nouns and the possessive case are properly adjuncts of spelling, and are to be taught incidentally as the spelling of the word is taught, namely, by use and without calling attention as if things apart or particularly difficult.

4. Pronouns may be taught by using them in writing original sentences.

5. Irregular verbs may be made a matter of spelling.

6. Rules of syntax, in certain cases, may be profitably explored and learned when they are violated in speech and writing.

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