EFFORTS TO IMPROVE EDUCATION IN COLONIAL AMERICA
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO FRENCH INFLUENCE

A Research Paper
Presented to
The Honors Committee
Ball State Teachers College

In Fulfillment of the Requirements
for I.D. 499
and Partial Fulfillment of Requirements
for Graduation with Honors

by
Judith Gray
June, 1964
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to Dr. Georgina Hicks, the faculty advisor of this thesis. Without her guidance and patience this paper could not have been completed.

A special thanks should also be extended to Dean Fallon for his kind consideration.

J. L. G.
I recommend this thesis for acceptance for graduation with Honors.

Georgina Hicks
Professor of Foreign Language
Faculty Advisor
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES FROM 1750-1780</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRENCH INFLUENCE IN AMERICA FROM 1780-1800</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMERICAN EFFORTS TO IMPROVE EDUCATION</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Philosophical Society</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas Jefferson</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin Franklin</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin Rush</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRENCH PROPOSALS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quesnay de Beaurepaire</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dupont de Nemours</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES FROM 1750-1780

Education in the colonies from 1750 to 1780 consisted of three levels which were the primary, grammar school, and college. For the most part these schools had denominational control.

Elementary education varied from colony to colony, from town to country, and from rich to poor. In towns upper and middle class children received several years of education in the town schools; however, lower class children were fortunate if they learned to read. Some poor children received instruction in charity schools sponsored by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. This organization established many schools in all colonies under Anglican auspices.

In the country there were dame schools. A woman would take some neighbors' children into her home several days a week to teach them reading while she carried on her housework. In addition to


reading, girls learned sewing and cooking. Settlers in the country also began to set up their own elementary schools. A local committee would be organized to hire the teacher. In the South on the plantations children were instructed by private tutors.

No matter which of these elementary schools children attended, the goal was the same - to teach reading and religion. Occasionally some writing and arithmetic were included. The textbook used in these schools was the New England Primer, which combined reading and religion. "Little children learned their letters by memorizing such words as abusing, bewitching, confounded, drunkenness, faculty, godliness, impudent, everlasting, fidelity, glorifying, and humility."

The only type of secondary school in America until 1750 was the Latin grammar school. This school, which was basically for the aristocracy, aimed at preparing students for Harvard. The Latin grammar schools were taught by public schoolmasters or religious teachers. The upper class children on large plantations received their secondary education from private tutors in the same manner that they had received their primary education.


3 Ibid., p. 326.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Callahan, op. cit., p. 117.

The purpose of the colleges was to train ministers. Harvard and William and Mary were the only two colleges existing in the seventeenth century. Between 1746 and 1769 several colleges were founded to provide the increasing need for ministers. Among these colleges were Princeton, Presbyterian; Kings College, Anglican; Brown, Baptist; Rutgers, Dutch Reformed; and Dartmouth, Congregational.

A growing concern for education began in the second half of the eighteenth century and became particularly strong toward the end of the century. There were two reasons for this concern. First, the middle class was dissatisfied with the present system of education; second, the people were influenced by the idea of progress.

The middle class began to object because the Latin grammar school was not meeting the needs of the youth in the country. This school, which was strictly a college preparatory institution, was restricted to a limited number of children of the higher classes. There was no school in America to train students for useful occupations, such as navigation, agriculture, or mechanics.

It was to make up for this gap in the educational system that Benjamin Franklin in 1750 founded the academy which brought about a significant change in secondary education. The purpose of this new academy...

---

1 Callahan, op. cit., p. 119.
4 Callahan, op. cit., p. 118.
institution was to give practical instruction to the middle class which would not attend Harvard. Emphasis was placed on practical courses which could be used later in life. Some of the subjects Franklin believed should be taught were surveying, navigation, agriculture, mechanics, history, geography, logic, rhetoric, algebra, geometry, astronomy, and modern languages, especially English.

The idea of progress, which made a strong impression on Americans, was the second reason for the colonists' dissatisfaction with education.

The idea of progress was a belief in the infinite perfectibility of man - the belief that the nature of man is essentially progressive. The origin of this idea was in part the result of the Renaissance which stressed ancient civilizations and in part the result of an interest in the study of primitive man due to explorations on undeveloped continents. As the people of the eighteenth century looked back to ancient and primitive peoples, they could see that man had progressed. The last reason for the origin of the idea of progress was the scientific inventions of Newton. Newton seemed to show that the universe was harmonious and governed by laws and that man could understand everything in the universe if he could discover the laws which govern it. If the universe could

1 Ibid.
3 Ibid., p. 4.
be explained by laws, then man, as a part of this rational universe, should be able to discover the laws which govern human behavior.  

In this way man could reach still higher perfection.

Next, education was connected with the idea of human progress. Educational institutions should exist to further human progress. In accordance with eighteenth century humanitarianism, there was a desire to erase class and national distinctions and to make everybody in the world better off. In order for education to contribute to the welfare of man, it was necessary for education to be flexible and to stress a scientific, objective, experimental attitude that would lead to innovations and the progress of man.

Because America was rapidly becoming a nation, the idea of progress easily fit the Americans' expectation of future development. "America was to become the one place on the earth where would be realized the eighteenth century principles of progress."

In summary, changes began to occur in American education in the second half of the eighteenth century. Secondary education was broadened to include the middle class, and a means was sought to improve education so that it would help to further human progress.

---

2 Hansen, op. cit., pp. 2-3.
4 Ibid., p. 21.
5 Ibid., p. 47.
FRENCH INFLUENCE IN AMERICA FROM 1780-1800

From 1778 to 1797 French influence on American culture and in American intellectual life was strong. This influence had political and social bases.

On February 6, 1778, the United States signed a treaty of alliance with France. This treaty, signed at Versailles, was made possible through the efforts of Benjamin Franklin and Vergennes. The King of France announced to England that he recognized the independence of the United States.

It took both coolness and daring to undertake in 1778 this extraordinary enterprise which consisted in bringing the oldest and most thoroughly traditionalist kingdom in Europe to recognize the youngest republic and the most democratic government in the world.

Most of the French public agreed with Vergennes that France should enter the war in alliance with America. The soldiers were anxious for war in order that they might have a chance to fight. The middle class admired the Americans and expected much from their


3 Ibid., p. 99.
revolution and the young nobles were curious about the Americans. The newspapers favored war and the writers "...desired this philosophic crusade which might shake the entire world...."

France sent diplomats to the United States and paid special attention to Americans traveling in Europe, for the Frenchmen had visions of the United States serving as their satellite.

Frenchmen saw in the United States a wide field for planting French science, art, and culture. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that a propaganda was organized, or at least was on the point of organization in France, looking to that end.

With the French alliance of 1778, America became interested in French ideas and culture. America turned to France not only because of the alliance, but also because of the hostility toward England. After the Revolutionary War the Americans wanted to break with their English past. America ceased to look to England as the chief intellectual center of the world. The anti-British propaganda which circulated during the Revolution aroused ill feelings which persisted long after the close of the war.

1 Ibid., p. 54.


3 Jones, op. cit., p. 476.


The close relationship between France and America lasted only twenty years. After the XYZ Affair of 1797, and especially when Napoleon took over as dictator, Americans turned against France.

"But France had permanently contributed to the broadening of mental horizons in the United States."

It was from France that America received the idea of progress. France looked to growing America as a possible place for the realization of progress through education. Frenchmen became interested in plans for American education as well as in reform of their own educational system.

Therefore, it was due to the alliance with France and to the idea of progress that American culture and education were influenced by the French in the last twenty years of the eighteenth century.

One example of the exchange of ideas with France came through the American Philosophical Society. The close relationship with France during the alliance and then the break from France after the XYZ Affair can be seen by the fluctuation in the number of Frenchmen elected members of the American Philosophical Society.

The American Philosophical Society is the oldest existing learned society in the United States. It was founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1743. On April 5, 1744, Franklin wrote that "...the

---


Society is actually formed and has had several Meetings to mutual Satisfaction." These were the original members:

Dr. Thomas Bond - Physician
Mr. John Bartram - Botanist
Mr. Thomas Godfrey - Mathematician
Mr. Samuel Rhodes - Mechanician
Mr. H. Parsons - Geographer
Dr. Phineas Bond - General Nat. Philosopher
Mr. Thomas Hopkinson - President
Mr. William Coleman - Treasurer
Mr. Benjamin Franklin - Secretary 1

In 1769 the American Philosophical Society merged with the American Society, an outgrowth of Franklin's Junto which he had founded in 1727. When the two societies merged, Franklin was elected President. The American Philosophical Society was modeled on the Royal Society of London of which Franklin became a member in 1756. Although the Society was founded on an English model, it came to be influenced by the French.

In 1770 the Society had 217 resident members and 24 European members. In 1953 there were 487 resident members and 71 foreign


members. At the present time the members are divided into four categories - mathematical and physical sciences, geological and biological sciences, social sciences, and humanities.

The archives of the society are rich in letters and manuscripts dealing with early colonial history and the beginnings of our government. Its library specializes in the history of American science and culture, American Indian linguistics, and publications of learned societies. Holdings of the library number 100,000 books and 40,000 pamphlets. Over $150,000 is given annually by the society to scholars in various fields for research. This money has been bequeathed to the society.

The society holds two general meetings each year - one in April, the other in November. Special meetings are called at other times.

These meetings of scholars from all parts of the United States and from foreign lands are among the most important events in the learned world. Thus does the American Philosophical Society carry out its original design 'for the promotion of useful knowledge.'

The first Frenchman, Monsieur Buffon, was elected to the American Philosophical Society in 1768. The second Frenchman elected

---

2 Ibid.
3 Ibid.
4 Ibid.
in 1773 was Monsieur Le Rey, Vice Director of the Paris Academy of Sciences.

The following list is a summary of the members elected between 1775 and 1797:

- 1775 - 8 of 12 from France - Condorcet* Daubenton Dubourg Le Roux Macquair Raynal Lavoisier Rosier 2
- 1781 - 1 of 9 from France - La Fayette 3
- 1784 - 5 of 20 from France - Count Campomanes S. Vaughan J. Vaughan Marquis d'Angeville Comte de Vergennes 4
- 1786 - 2 of 34 from France - Condorcet* Cabanis 5
- 1787 - 2 of 33 from France - M. Cadet de Vaux M. Cadet 6
- 1789 - 3 of 33 from France - Crevecoeur Arthand Moreau de St. Méry 7
- 1791 - 1 of 17 from France - P. S. Du Ponceau 8
- 1792 - 3 of 15 from France - Anthony Renatus Charles Mathurin de la Forest Palisot de Beauvois Dr. W. Currie 9

* Condorcet is named twice.

1 Ibid., p. 74.
2 Ibid., p. 95.
3 Ibid., p. 110.
4 Ibid., pp. 121-122.
5 Ibid., pp. 143-144.
6 Ibid., p. 147.
7 Ibid., p. 168.
8 Ibid., p. 195.
9 Ibid., pp. 201, 207.
papers called "On the Analogy between Vegetables and Polypi and Insects" and "On the Formation of Water in Plants," both of which the society decided to publish. Audubon, Dr. Currie, Daubenton, Duponceau, and Plantou were among the Frenchmen to submit papers.

After 1802 the society no longer dared to take into its membership a considerable number of Frenchmen as it had done before; and communications from Frenchmen, which had previously been frequent, became rare.

Interest in the French language also increased around the time of the French Alliance and then decreased with the XYZ Affair. This interest can be seen in the teaching of French, in the number of French newspapers, in the number of French textbooks, and in the number of French books imported.

Prior to 1750 the knowledge of French had not been increasing with the growth of the colonies; however, from 1750-1770 there was an increase in the amount of instruction in the French language and in the importation of French books. The two decades 1780 and 1790, however, marked the period of greatest French interest:

But the decade of the seventies was only preparatory to the great increase in an interest in French in the eighties and nineties. The eighties are marked by the foundation

---

1 Ibid., pp. 298-299.

2 Ibid., pp. 300-301.


5 Ibid., pp. 183, 185.
of a French newspaper press, an increase in the teaching of French, and an increase in the number of publications in French, as well as translations from the French, published by American printers.¹

After 1797 there were no more advertisements in the newspapers of French courses and lessons.

And as showing the signs of the times, it is interesting to note the increasing number of manuals of English for Frenchmen published in the nineties: the French, instead of teaching their own language, were learning English.³

Thomas Jefferson gave modern language teaching its first considerable impetus when, at his suggestion, William and Mary College established the first professorial chair in the New World for the teaching of modern languages. Charles Bellini was appointed as the professor. Previous to this time Harvard University had intermittently taught French. In 1735 M. Langloisserie had taught French at Harvard, but he was soon impeached for teaching dangerous religious ideas. The Academy of Philadelphia, the future University of Pennsylvania, appointed William Creamer to teach French and German in 1754. It was Franklin's idea to teach French at this Academy as an extra-mural or private study.

¹ Ibid., pp. 189-190.
² Fay, op. cit., p. 452.
³ Jones, op. cit., p. 199.
⁴ Fay, op. cit., pp. 128-29.
⁶ Ibid., p. 16.
⁷ Jones, op. cit., p. 184.
Colleges and universities soon began to substitute French for other languages, and some made this language a requisite for entrance. One college in which French was substituted was Harvard where in 1780 it became a regular branch of instruction and from 1782-1797 was required as a substitute for Hebrew for freshmen and sophomores. In 1797 Union College, New York, also permitted this language to be substituted for Greek. Among the colleges which made French a requisite were Williams College in 1792, William and Mary in 1793, the University of North Carolina in 1795.

Several colleges sought aid from the King of France in obtaining teachers of French. In 1782 Rhode Island College wrote to the King of France asking for a French teacher and books to start a French library, while Dartmouth College sent its president to Europe to obtain a French professor and books. In an attempt to find a professor of French, Brown University wrote to King Louis XVI in 1784:

Ignorant of the French language, and separated as we were by more than mere distance of countries, we too readily imbibed the prejudices of the English - prejudices which we have renounced since we have had a nearer view of the brave army of France, who actually inhabited this college edifice; since which time our youth seek with avidity whatever can give them information respecting the character, genius, and influence of a people they have such reason to admir - a nation so eminently distinguished for polished humanity.

1 Handschin, op. cit., p. 21.
2 Ibid., p. 22.
3 Fay, op. cit., p. 129.
4 Handschin, op. cit., p. 18.
King Louis XVI sent 200 of the most renowned French books to William and Mary College. He also sent books to Harvard, and the University of Pennsylvania; and the Academy of Sciences at Paris sent its publications to Harvard.

French was also taught in the academies and private schools during this period. Many of the academies established from 1783-98 in Kentucky offered French. Francis Daymon was an interesting man who conducted a school in a tailor shop in Philadelphia and wrote a syntax of French verbs.

He claimed to be from Paris and all the newspapers carried his advertisements. He seems to have been successful, for he was engaged as secretary to the first Continental Congress, a post which allowed him to act as sponsor for the French secret envoy, M. de Bonvouloir. It is probable that he himself was already in relations with the French government. 4

When in 1797 relations with France became strained, many French professors returned to France. Harvard, Columbia, and Brown ceased teaching French at the beginning of the nineteenth century. In the South and the West which were less touched by hostility toward France, the French language continued to be taught.

---

1 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, Memoir Concerning the Academy of the Arts and Sciences of the United States of America at Richmond, Virginia, translated by Rosewell Page, (Richmond: Davis Bottom, Supt. of Public Printing, 1922), p. 5.
2 Fay, op. cit., p. 212.
3 Jones, op. cit., p. 191.
4 Fay, op. cit., p. 39.
5 Ibid., pp. 452-453.
6 Ibid., p. 453.
In addition to the teaching of French there were French newspapers. After 1770 South Carolina papers often printed articles in French. In the 1790's these were among the French newspapers in circulation - Le Courrier de l'Amérique, Courrier de Boston, Courrier politique de la France et de ses colonies, Journal des révolutions, and Courrier Français.

The importation of French books also increased. Fay notes that "Each month the papers published a list of the books that had arrived from Europe. At New York about a quarter of these books were French. In the other ports the proportion was lower though never less than one-eighth."

The demand for French textbooks also began to increase. John Mary in 1784 wrote A New French & English Grammar, the first French textbook written by an American. Other French textbooks were as follows:

- A Grammar of the French Tongue, Grounded...on the French Academy, Styner and Cist, 1779.
- A Table of French Verbs...together with remarks on their particular irregularities, F. Bailey, 1780.
- Grammar of the French Tongue, Perrin, 1779.
- Practice of the French Pronunciation, Perrin, 1780.
- Instructive and Entertaining Exercises in writing French, Perrin, 1781.

1 Jones, op. cit., p. 188.
2 Ibid., pp. 197-198.
3 Fay, op. cit., p. 39.
5 Ibid., pp. 188, 193.
In summary, eighteenth century interest in the French language reached its peak in the eighties and nineties. This interest was visible in the increased number of French newspapers, textbooks, imported books, and especially in the increased teaching of French.
AMERICAN EFFORTS TO IMPROVE EDUCATION

During the second half of the eighteenth century, especially during the last two decades, there were several American efforts to improve education. These included the works of the American Philosophical Society, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and Benjamin Rush.

American Philosophical Society

In 1795, the American Philosophical Society sponsored an essay contest whose purpose was described by Samuel Knox as seeking "...the best system of liberal Education and literary instruction, adapted to the genius of the Government of the United States; comprehending also a plan for instituting and conducting public schools in this country, on principles of the most extensive utility."

The society began to read the first essays on education at its meeting of December 30, 1796. Three essays were considered. Other essays received on education were read at the meetings held on


January 20, 1797; January 27, 1797; February 10, 1797; March 3, 1797; March 10, 1797; March 17, 1797; and May 5, 1797. During the meeting on June 16, 1797, it was decided that all the essays would lie on tables for inspection and the hall would be open every day except Sundays until July 14 so that the members would have ample opportunity to estimate the merits of the essays.

At the December 15, 1797, meeting a vote was taken on the question, "Is this the best System of liberal Education and literary Instruction adapted to the Genius of the Government and best calculated to promote the genuine welfare of the U. S.?" Two essays were selected which the society felt were worthy of publication. It was decided that the prize would be equally divided between these two authors. The President pro. tem. opened the sealed letters which revealed that Rev. Samuel Knox of Bladenburg, Maryland, and Mr. Samuel H. Smith of Philadelphia were the authors of the papers.

The society bought a gold goblet costing $50.12 for Mr. Knox. Mr. Smith wrote a letter asking that his prize money be appropriated toward another contest. In accordance with his wishes a committee was appointed on February 1, 1799, to consider offering another prize on the subject of education.

1 Ibid., pp. 246-257.
2 Ibid., p. 260.
3 Ibid., p. 265.
4 Ibid., p. 268.
5 Ibid., p. 269.
6 Ibid., p. 279.
The main provisions of Samuel Knox's essay may be paraphrased as follows:

1. The function of the school must be related to the function of the state.
2. There should be a new kind of education intended for universal enlightenment and progress.
3. Education should be based on science, not superstition.
4. The state should provide opportunity for man to progress because, if provision is not made, he will degenerate.
5. Education should be flexible so that it can change with changing needs.
6. Education should train strong leaders.
7. There should be public education with equal opportunities for all, supported by the nation to protect democracy.

Samuel H. Smith presented the following ideas in his essay:

1. Education must be free from prejudice.
2. The chief aim of education should be a scientific attitude.
3. Education should be very flexible.
4. For progress and growth education should emphasize experimentation and initiative.
5. Education should discover an individual's capacities and the laws governing his development.
6. The nation should enforce universal education and provide means to carry it out.
7. Education should be continued after leaving school.
8. Education should encourage research.

Both of the winning plans of the American Philosophical Society essay contest stressed the fact that education should provide opportunity for man to improve himself. Among the beliefs associated with the idea of progress, one notes the goal of education for universal enlightenment, the emphasis on science and equal opportunity, and universal education free from prejudice and superstition.

1 Hansen, op. cit., pp. 138-139.
2 Ibid., pp. 166-167.
Thomas Jefferson

Thomas Jefferson evinced a great interest in education. As early as 1779 he proposed a bill for the "More General Diffusion of Knowledge." In this bill he proposed three years of free elementary education in locally controlled public schools for every child in Virginia. Although three years of free education seems too insignificant to mention in view of the insistence today on twelve years, it should be noted that three years of education for rich and poor alike "...was a proposal far too radical to be accepted in Virginia in 1779 or for many, many years." When this bill was finally passed, it contained a provision which stated that each county would decide for itself when this act would be put into use. Because the rich would have to help pay for the education of the poor, no county put the bill into effect.

In 1785 Jefferson succeeded Franklin as minister to France. While in Paris, Jefferson carried on investigations in education. Probably no one in Europe or America was as familiar with the subject

would finance the education of a limited number of boys who were of the "best genius" and whose parents were too poor to provide them an education. As the students advanced to higher education, the number financed by the state would be decreased. Jefferson also proposed that evening classes be offered for workingmen, a provision which formed a part of Condorcet's report.

Thomas Jefferson was in Paris when Quesnay de Beaurepaire returned with his plan for education. Jefferson's friendship with Quesnay de Beaurepaire "...undoubtedly brought him valuable ideas about educational plans and methods, but it seems impossible to trace specific lines of influence."

Influenced by Jullien's *Essai Général d'Éducation physique, morale, et intellectuelle* and his *Esquisse d'un ouvrage sur l'Éducation comparée*, Jefferson wanted the language, history, and geography of a people to be taught together.

Jefferson's widest departure from the doctrines of the French concerned his opposition to centralized administration in education. He wanted education to be locally supported and locally controlled.

2 Arrowood, *op. cit.*, pp. 74-75.
3 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, *op. cit.*, p. 7.
6 Arrowood, *op. cit.*, p. 50.
The success of his followers may account for the 40,000 independent school boards today.

Serving as president of the American Philosophical Society at the time of the essay contest on education, Jefferson was influenced by some of the essays which were read. He owned a copy of Samuel Knox's essay and twenty years later proposed Knox for the first professor of Central College. Their plans had these common characteristics:

1. Location of colleges in the country
2. Public examinations and awarding of prizes
3. A prohibition against clergymen on the faculty
4. A prohibition against the teaching of theology
5. A provision for a thorough study of Euclid.

Samuel Smith's remarks on education contained ideas which appeared in Jefferson's proposals. For example, he used the expression "diffusion of knowledge" and provided a plan of financial support for a small number of poor students. "As these views had long been held by Jefferson, it seems probable that Dr. Smith made use of the plans and opinions of his older friend in the preparation of his essay."

Jefferson, who served for five years in Paris as American ambassador, was in contact with the most brilliant minds of France. Although it is difficult to trace the development of Jefferson's educational theory, it can be shown that he was influenced by

1 Conant, op. cit., p. 11.
2 Honeywell, op. cit., p. 168.
3 Ibid.
Dupont de Nemours, Condorcet, Quesnay de Beaurepaire, Jullien, and Samuel Knox's essay written for the American Philosophical Society; however, Samuel Smith was probably influenced by Jefferson.

**Benjamin Franklin**

Benjamin Franklin served as minister from the United States to France from 1776 to 1785. "He was in the habit of sending his friends the best books that came out in France, and Jefferson followed his example." It was he who was responsible for the alliance with France with which the influx of French ideas into America began.

He was the organizer in 1727 of the Junto and also founded the American Philosophical Society in 1744, both of which were learned societies. However, Franklin's greatest single educational contribution was his academy.

Established in 1750, the academy, which was clearly an innovation in name and reality, brought practical studies into the respectable realm. In founding the academy, Franklin's main concern was that what was learned should be useful and not mere knowledge.

3. Ibid., p. 115.
4. Ibid., p. 147.
In addition, Franklin saw education as a means of strengthening American nationalism.

The origin of the academy was inspired by the Englishman Daniel Defoe’s *Essay upon Projects*. This book deeply affected Benjamin Franklin and led to the founding of the Academy and Charity School of Philadelphia, which ripened into the University of Pennsylvania. This was the beginning of the academy movement in America.¹

Franklin did not envision equal education for all children. He seemed content with private charity institutions for the poor. He stressed the importance of self-education since there were not many chances for the lower and middle classes to receive formal education.

Since Franklin spent nine years in France and since his post as minister enabled him to meet the most prominent Frenchmen, it would seem that he was influenced by their ideas, and it would not be improbable that ideas he gained from the French were passed on to Americans through the American Philosophical Society of which he was President.

**Benjamin Rush**

Benjamin Rush in 1786 wrote a plan called *Thoughts upon the Mode of Education Proper in a Republic*. He was a firm believer in

---


education for patriotism. He said that children should have a supreme regard for their country and this could only be accomplished through a public system of education. Education must take place within the United States so that students would grow up believing in democracy and not the ways of Europe. All activities in schools contrary to the spirit of democracy should be discontinued, and students should be instructed in the new form of government so that they would understand it.

According to his plan, education should be universal, not confined to a few people. Schools should be as flexible as possible so that they can adapt to new conditions and progress. The curriculum should be practical. It should contain no Latin or Greek, but should stress sciences since advancement depends on science. Above all, Rush warned that America must not copy European institutions.


2 Ibid.

3 Ibid., p. 61.
FRENCH PROPOSALS FOR AMERICAN EDUCATION

Quesnay de Beaurepaire

In addition to French influences on American theorists there were two extensive projects developed by Frenchmen to improve American education. The first of these plans was written by the Chevalier Alexandre Marie Quesnay de Beaurepaire, who was the grandson of François Quesnay, founder of the Physiocratic movement. Quesnay de Beaurepaire received an ordinary French education plus special training in music, drawing, painting, dancing, and fencing. Before coming to America, he was a member of Gendarmes de la Garde du Roi. Quesnay de Beaurepaire came to America in 1777 to participate in the Revolutionary War, impelled, he said, "...by the bright hope of distinguishing myself in the career of arms." He served in Virginia during the years 1777 and 1778 with the rank of captain. Several misfortunes


3 Ibid.

4 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, Memoir Concerning The Academy of the Arts and Sciences of the United States of America at Richmond, Virginia, translated by Rosewell Page, (Richmond: Davis Bottom, Supt. of Public Printing, 1922), p. 16.
befell him. First, his luggage was lost, along with his letters of recommendation. Then, he suffered from a long illness during which time he stayed at the home of John Peyton. After his illness his financial resources were practically exhausted; he was, therefore, forced to abandon his participation in the war.

Having observed that the fine arts were almost completely neglected in America, Quesnay de Beaurepaire began giving private lessons in these fields of learning. He conducted a school in Philadelphia for four years. Since he was interested in dramatics, he and his students presented Beaumarchais's Eugénie, the first French play produced in America. It was presented in Philadelphia in the early 1780's. He also organized a school in New York and returned to Virginia in 1785 to open a school at Richmond. Influenced by the success of these private schools and encouraged by John Page of Rosewell, Lieutenant Governor of Virginia and later Governor of Virginia, Quesnay de Beaurepaire conceived the idea of founding an academy in America. By founding a French Academy of Arts and Sciences in the United States, he hoped to make a name for himself. He also considered of more value "...the advantage of increasing...the relations of France with America, and of binding America to my country by new bonds of gratitude, similarity of tastes, and very intimate intercourse between the individuals of the two nations."

1 Ibid.
3 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, op. cit., p. 16.
4 Ibid.
The first step was to select a site for his academy. After traveling through the principal cities of America, he decided on Richmond, Virginia, because he had friends there and the citizens of Richmond had hopes of making the city the state capital. Quesnay de Beaurepaire proposed to have branches located in Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. The academy would have affiliations with the royal societies of London, Paris, Brussels, and others.

The foundation of the academy was laid in Richmond on June 24, 1786, in the building where the Constitution of the United States was ratified by the state convention of 1788. The building was later turned into a theater.

Quesnay de Beaurepaire raised a considerable sum of money by subscriptions in America. By 1786 he had collected 60,000 francs from citizens residing in Baltimore and Virginia. In his report to the king of France he listed the names of the first 100 subscribers in Virginia. He wrote fifteen articles which described the

1 Ibid.
3 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, op. cit., p. 6.
4 Ibid., p. 7.
5 Jones, op. cit., p. 477.
6 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, op. cit., p. 9.
7 Jones, op. cit., p. 477.
8 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, op. cit., p. 46.
subscription. He designated the number of shares, their value, and
the number to be issued in the various counties, as well as how they
would be repaid. These articles stated that the proceeds from
the subscriptions would be used for books, machines, and laboratory
equipment.

Quesnay de Beaurepaire drew up forty statutes and regulations
of the academy. According to these statutes, the administration
would consist of the founder-president, vice president, six coun-
cillors, one general treasurer, one secretary, one assistant secre-
tary, and an agent for European subscribers.

The functions of the academy were to be carried out by several
committees. It was the duty of the Administrative Council to rule
on matters of policy, to direct the work of teachers, to set
arrival and departure times of teachers, and to pay them. The func-
tion of the second committee, the Society, composed of the
Administrative Council, professors, masters, artists, and resident
fellows, was to examine the discoveries, plans, and projects of the
various teachers. It was also the duty of the Society to determine
when the General Assembly would meet. All subscribers had a right
to vote in the General Assembly. The General Assembly chose the
vice president, secretary, assistant secretary, treasurer, and
European agent. It also fixed the amount of the dividend to be
given to the subscribers. The Correspondence Committee in Paris
selected teachers, approved books and equipment, and examined the

Paris treasurer's books. Vacancies on this committee were to be filled by foreign associates.

The general treasurer collected the profits from the treasurers at the branches and gave a financial report every three months. Two funds were to be established - one for receipts and current expenses, the other for reserve funds. The profits were to be divided into two parts - one for the president-founder and the other for subscribers.

There would be professors, masters, artists and, in addition, twenty-five resident associates and 175 foreign associates. A teacher would be hired for a minimum of ten years. Each year a small percent of the salary was to be withheld. The teacher would receive this amount at the end of the ten years with interest. If a teacher decided to resign before the end of ten years, he was required to reimburse the academy for his passage to America. While employed at the academy, a teacher was not permitted to teach elsewhere. Teachers received one half of the proceeds from public courses. If a teacher took more than this, he forfeited his salary for the quarter. Sick and aged teachers and widows of teachers would receive benefits. The rank of "emeritus" was to be awarded.

For a year Quesnay de Beaurepaire consulted the great teachers in Europe in order to decide which subjects should be taught in Virginia. The following were selected:

\[1\] Ibid., pp. 24-30.
Quesnay de Beaurepaire recommended that free lectures be given to twenty-five poor students every third week. The students would be selected by competition.

Since most foreign teachers in America were people who had left their own country because of misconduct, Quesnay de Beaurepaire wanted only those teachers with talent and good morals to be taken to America to teach in the academy. On September 28, 1788, Doctor Jean Rouelle was elected professor of chemistry, natural history, and botany. He was the first and only professor elected. He was to have sailed for America in October, but the French Revolution prevented his departure.

Ninety foreign fellows were listed in the report to the King of France. The number of foreign fellows was to be increased until it reached 175. These were all prominent men, many of whom belonged to the Royal Academies of Science, Belles Lettres, Medicine, Agriculture, and Painting and Sculpture in Paris. Some of them belonged

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>foreign languages</th>
<th>astronomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mathematics</td>
<td>geography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drawing</td>
<td>chemistry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>civil and military architecture</td>
<td>minerology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>painting</td>
<td>botany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sculpture</td>
<td>anatomy, human and animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engraving</td>
<td>natural history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental physics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

to the American Philosophical Society. The foreign fellows included ambassadors, assistants to the king, faculty members of universities, and medical doctors. Of the first ninety foreign fellows appointed sixty-five were from France, ten from England, eight from the United States, three from Belgium, and one each from Germany, Ireland, Poland, and Switzerland. The term "foreign" was used to distinguish these men from the "resident" fellows. Among the most prominent Frenchmen were the following:

- D'Arnaud
- Bailly
- Broussonnet
- Le Comte de Berthollet
- Caron de Beaumarchais
- Marquis de Clermont-Tonnerre
- Marquis de Condorcet
- Cousin
- Baron Dacier
- Marquis de la Fayette
- De Fourcroy
- Legendre
- Houdon
- De Jussieu
- De Lamoignon de Malesherbes
- Lavoisier
- Leroy d'Etiolles
- Louis
- Baron Louis
- Marquis de Montalambert
- Abbie Royou
- Vandermonde
- Vernet
- Vicq-d'Azyr

For complete list see Appendix.

Quesnay de Beaurepaire received encouragement "...on every side from the best qualified and most respectable people...." He kept stressing the fact that he knew all America would help with this project and that all Americans would be interested in it. He named more than 150 persons in the states of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York who backed him in his project.

1 Ibid., pp. 36-41.
2 Ibid.
3 Ibid., p. 18.
4 Ibid., pp. 21-23.
Among these were John Harvie, Mayor of Richmond; Edmund Randolph, Governor of Virginia; Patrick Henry, Virginia; Colonel Cary, Speaker of the Senate; Mr. Martín, Attorney General; Madame Beache [sic], daughter of Benjamin Franklin; Mr. Clinton, Governor of New York; Mr. Duane, Mayor of New York city; and Thomas Paine, Philadelphia. Benjamin Franklin's daughter, Mrs. Bache, sent a copy of Quesnay de Beaurepaire's scheme to her father in Paris. In the letter she stated:

He regards you as the father of sciences in this country, and highly appreciates the advice and instruction you have never failed to give to those whose talents deserve encouragements. ...I beg you to give to M. Quesnay all the assistance which may be in your power.

There were several Frenchmen in America who helped Quesnay de Beaurepaire; these included the Marquis de la Luzerne, ambassador to the United States; and the Marquis de la Fayette, who served as general in the American Revolutionary War.

On March 14, 1788, the Paris Royal Academy of Sciences declared "...we believe that the Academy must applaud the zeal of the chevalier, and encourage him, and desire the success of his establishment." On July 5, 1788, the Paris Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture stated the following:

It [his project] has inspired us with admiration for the unflagging efforts of the Chevalier Quesnay for this

1 Ibid., pp. 42-44.
2 Ibid., p. 17.
3 Ibid., pp. 44-45.
establishment, and we have no less admired the zeal of the United States of America in favoring this project. This zeal speaks well for the spirit, character and large views of that republic which, since its birth, has shown itself interesting under all conditions.\footnote{Ibid., p. 15.}

Despite his extensive plans and efforts, Quesnay de Beaurepaire's project failed because of the outbreak of the French Revolution and because the objections of his family kept him from returning to America or advancing his project in Europe. Had it not been for the French Revolution his project probably would have been successful.

Although Jefferson expressed his approval of Quesnay de Beaurepaire's plan and was an associate of the Academy, he probably had reservations about it because it would have interfered with his plans for the University of Virginia. In fact, if Quesnay de Beaurepaire's plan had succeeded, the University of Virginia might never have been founded and the whole history of education in the United States might have been different. Although Quesnay de Beaurepaire's plan did not materialize, it was not a complete failure because Jefferson had his plan in mind when in 1797 he was developing his ideas regarding the future of William and Mary College.

Quesnay de Beaurepaire spent most of the remainder of his life in his native country. At the beginning of the French Revolution he


\footnote{Howard Mumford Jones, \textit{American and French Culture} (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1927), p. 478.}
became somewhat radical and was later obliged to leave France. He returned during the Napoleonic regime to become a government official. By his marriage with Catherine Cadier he had one son who became a lawyer. His grandson, Jules Quesnay de Beaurepaire, also a lawyer, prosecuted Boulanger and Dreyfus.

Dupont de Nemours

Pierre Samuel Dupont de Nemours, the French ancestor of the prominent American Dupont family, also wrote a plan for national education in the United States. Born in 1739, he was not a robust child. His mother taught him to read, write, and spell. He read everything on which he could get his hands and remembered with amazing accuracy what he had read. His father wanted his son to follow in his footsteps and become a watchmaker. His mother fought to prevent him from taking up this trade and had him study Latin, physics, metaphysics, geometry, and algebra.

His mother died when he was sixteen, and he left home shortly after. He shared a room with a young man who died after an extended illness. After the death of his roommate, he began reading medical books, attending lectures, and observing operations. Although he never received a medical degree, he referred to himself as a physician. At the age of twenty-four he designed and made a beautiful watch which showed his mastery of watchmaking. He presented it to his father but never again made another watch.

1 Malone (ed.), op. cit., p. 301.
3 Ibid., pp. 13-16.
Shortly thereafter François Quesnay read Dupont de Nemours's *Richesse de l'Etat* and consequently made him his secretary. Dupont de Nemours served Quesnay for eleven years. Dupont de Nemours repaid Quesnay when he invented the word "physiocracy" to denote Quesnay's economic system.

Turgot became interested in Dupont de Nemours's essay, *Le Commerce des Grains* and offered him employment. Dupont de Nemours edited a newspaper which supported Turgot's doctrines. Occasionally he attended discussions in the library of Talleyrand with Turgot and a group of intellectuals.

Dupont de Nemours was also a close friend of Franklin. As early as 1768 Franklin wrote to him expressing sympathy for the philosophy of the Physiocrats. Appointed by Vergennes in 1782, Dupont de Nemours negotiated with Franklin for the recognition of the independence of the United States. The Frenchman also became acquainted with Jefferson, who succeeded Franklin as Minister to France.

Dupont de Nemours held several government positions. He was commissioner of general commerce; he worked with the ministers


5 *Ibid*.

during the session of the Assembly of Notables and was appointed secretary of this group by the King. When the Estates General met, he was elected a member of the Third Estate. He was also a member of the Constituent Assembly.

Because Dupont de Nemours fought for the safety of the King, he was arrested and imprisoned by Robespierre. After his release from prison, he and his family sailed to the United States in 1799. They hoped to buy a vast amount of land which would be divided and sold to French settlers. Jefferson advised Dupont de Nemours not to buy the land because prices were too high.

It was Dupont de Nemours's son Eleuthère-Irénée who in 1800 began to manufacture gunpowder. While on a hunting trip, Eleuthère-Irénée learned that only powder of inferior quality was manufactured in America.

Having learned this, Irénée returned home greatly excited and did not sleep a wink that night. The next day he let his father know about his great project: The du Ponts would become powder-makers in America. They would either buy an existing mill and modernize it, or would build one themselves....

In 1802 Dupont de Nemours returned to France to try to find a means of financing the powder factory. He exaggerated the profits of the factory in order to sell more shares of stock. He remained in France promoting the powder factory until 1815, when he returned

1 Ibid., pp. x-xi.
2 Ibid., p. xi.
3 Ibid., p. xii.
4 Dorian, op. cit., pp. 56-57.
to the United States to find that the powder works after several bankruptcies was finally making money. He died in 1817 of exhaustion after helping to extinguish a fire which had broken out near the powder works. Thus began the company of E. I. Dupont de Nemours which in 1961 ranked eighth among the U. S. non-financial corporations with an operating investment of $3,134,000,000.

Upon his arrival in America Dupont de Nemours had renewed his acquaintance with Jefferson. On April 12, 1800, Jefferson asked the Frenchman to prepare a plan of education for the United States. Previously, Dupont de Nemours had served as secretary of the Council of Public Instruction in Poland. Appointed to this post by the King of Poland, the Frenchman held this office from 1772-1774. Since Dupont de Nemours had been an intimate friend of Jefferson and Franklin for some time, he was acquainted with the educational problems facing the United States and was not writing simply as a casual visitor.

The plan was written while Jefferson, Vice President of the United States, was living in Philadelphia and Dupont de Nemours was

1 Ibid., p. 85.
2 Ibid., p. 233.
4 Du Pont de Nemours, op. cit., p. viii.
living in New York. Dupont de Nemours frequently visited Jefferson in Philadelphia. His plan has been described as "...something more than the educational ideas of a learned Frenchman. It probably contains the theories of both Jefferson and Dupont de Nemours modified to form one carefully detailed plan." On December 12 Jefferson wrote to Dupont de Nemours thanking him for his "piece on education."

At the time that Dupont de Nemours wrote his plan he believed that education in the United States was more advanced than in most countries. He said most of the people in the United States could read, write, and cipher. Many people read the Bible and everyone read newspapers. Fathers often read to their children. Although American education seemed less perfect than European, it was better and more equally distributed. The Frenchman attributed this more even distribution to the fact that the United States had laws to protect children from working in the fields whereas Europe had no such laws.

Dupont de Nemours established certain aims or goals for education. He wanted the students to learn moral and physical principles. He wanted them to be instructed in the ethical principles of liberty, property, justice, mutual helpfulness, benevolence, sympathy, and

1 Ibid., pp. 178-179.
2 Du Pont de Nemours, op. cit., p. vi.
3 Honeywell, op. cit., p. 166.
4 Du Pont de Nemours, op. cit., pp. 3-4.
5 Ibid., p. 13.
forbearance. He wanted every child to feel that he was of some value; no child should be made to wear a "fool's cap." He states:

The real aim of education is less to give the children positive facts than to keep them constantly developing, working themselves and by themselves to observe and to understand. For that wonderful habit once made part of their lives will never be lost and will grow with the growth of their minds.

Although the name "university" meant an institution of higher education in Europe, Dupont de Nemours wanted the university in the United States to be different. The university in the United States would consist of the primary schools, the colleges, and the special schools. The primary school would consist of three years from the ages of seven to ten; the colleges would consist of seven years from the ages of ten to seventeen. Those planning to enter one of the special schools would do from one to three years of post graduate work in the college so that they would be at least nineteen before entering the special school. Training in the special schools would last not less than three years.

The Frenchman prescribed definite subjects to be studied in the primary schools. First of all he wanted students to begin writing.

1 Ibid., pp. 16-17.
2 Ibid., p. 46.
3 Ibid., p. 24.
4 Ibid., p. 125.
5 Ibid., p. 156.
6 Ibid., p. 159.
7 Ibid., p. 127.
They would learn to read from their writing. Shortly after learning to write single words, they would begin to put articles with these words and finally a form of the verb "to be" so that they would be constructing sentences. Through writing and reading, the students would come in contact with the various parts of speech and in this way they would learn the principles of grammar. "All that he writes he will write correctly, because you will supply, or will have supplied, the letters and punctuation appropriate to his thought."

Dupont de Nemours believed that arithmetic was easier to understand and more interesting when it was taught by means of geometry. By this he meant that students should be taught to count by counting cubes. Nothing should be abstract. The method of counting cubes should be used in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Through mathematics the students would also learn some physics.

The Frenchman also believed that the study of history was important; however, in the primary school he believed history should be confined to (1) tables which give ideas of time, events, and

1 Ibid., p. 6.
2 Ibid., p. 9.
3 Ibid., p. 10.
4 Ibid.
5 Ibid., p. 13.
6 Ibid., p. 19.
7 Ibid., p. 21.
important persons and (2) well chosen selections of facts. History should be taught to the most able students rather than to all. Finally, since America was a rural country, at least one member of each family should be instructed in the mechanical arts.

Dupont de Nemours believed that there should be three books for the primary schools. The first would be an ABC book containing lessons on writing, reading, and copying. Through this book the students would receive their first knowledge of grammar, mechanics, geography, natural history, and principles of morals and ethics. The second book would be on physics and mathematics. This book would contain geometry, arithmetic and principles of mechanics. The third type of book would be those given as rewards. These would be history books containing a chronological abridgement of history and a collection of facts and anecdotes.

Dupont de Nemours believed that it was difficult to write books for children, "...to see from their viewpoint, to be pleasing without being too childish, and instructive without being tiresome, to remember always one’s own youth...."

Another opinion of Dupont de Nemours was that no country had the proper type of books for primary education. Therefore, he

1 Ibid., p. 28.
2 Ibid., p. 27.
3 Ibid., p. 21.
4 Ibid., pp. 29-33.
5 Ibid., pp. 35-36.
6 Ibid., p. 13.
believed that the United States Congress should offer prizes to the 1 writers of the best textbooks. He thought that $2,000 should be offered for the best primer; $800 for the second best primer; $1,000 for the best book on physics and mathematics; $500 for the second best on physics and mathematics; $500 for the best chronology of history; and $500 for the best book of historical facts and anecdotes. Dupont de Nemours did not express his views on the books to be used in the colleges or the special schools.

Regarding the subjects to be taught in the colleges, the Frenchman grouped several subjects together. For example, he believed that literature should be taught with Greek and Latin; logic should be taught with German. The following is a list of the subjects to be taught in the college and the number of lessons to be given during the seven years of college:

- Greek - language and literature, 678 lessons.
- Latin - language and literature, 627 lessons.
- Moral philosophy and French, 832 lessons.
- Mental science, logic and German, 781 lessons.
- Geometry, algebra, and physico-mathematics, 729 lessons.
- Chemistry and other natural sciences, 677 lessons.
- Natural and national law, political economy and history, 573 lessons.3

Physico-mathematics included mechanics, hydraulics, optics; civil and military architecture; navigation; essentials of drawing and coloring for maps and architectural plans. The study of chemistry would include physics, zoology and botany.

1 Ibid., p. 40.
2 Ibid., pp. 37-38.
3 Ibid., p. 78.
4 Ibid., p. 63.
5 Ibid., p. 64.
The daily schedule for pupils in the college can be summarized in the following manner:

- **5:00 A. M. Summer**
  - pupils rise
- **6:00 A. M. Winter**
  - pupils rise
- **6:45 A. M.**
  - meet in general assembly room
- **7:00 - 7:15 A. M.**
  - breakfast
- **7:15 - 8:00 A. M.**
  - recreation
- **8:00 -10:00 A. M.**
  - class
- **10:00 -10:30 A. M.**
  - recreation
- **10:30 -11:00 A. M.**
  - work on outside assignment
- **11:00 - 1:00 P. M.**
  - class
- **1:00 - 1:30 P. M.**
  - dinner
- **1:30 - 3:00 P. M.**
  - recreation
- **3:00 - 4:30 P. M.**
  - work on outside assignment
- **4:30 - 5:00 P. M.**
  - recreation and lunch
- **5:00 - 7:00 P. M.**
  - work on outside assignment
- **7:00 - 8:00 P. M.**
  - quiet recreation
- **8:00 - 8:20 P. M.**
  - supper
- **8:20 - 9:00 P. M.**
  - recreation
- **9:00 P. M.**
  - bed

Free time for games and recreation was necessary to keep pupils happy. A leisure time schedule was arranged for the college student which allowed a maximum of four and one-half hours per day. This time was not a complete waste, for some students would use it for mechanics, experiments in chemistry and agriculture. Recreation was not mentioned on the primary or special school levels.

Dupont de Nemours wanted four types of special schools. Below is a list of the schools and the subjects which were to be taught in each.

**School of Medicine**

1. Anatomy
2. Animal ecology and pathology
3. Surgery and child-birth
4. Materia medica and pharmaceutical chemistry
5. Botany

---

3 This book was obtained on inter-library loan. This writer copied "economy" which was probably a mistake and should have been "ecology."
School of Mines (coal, copper, lead, iron)

1. Mineralogy
2. Docimastic chemistry (the science of assaying materials)
3. Subterranean geometry and the machinery that may be necessary for mining.

School of Social Science

1. School of statesmen
   a. General theory of government
   b. Internal administration and political relations
   c. Law of nations, statistics, colonization
2. Civil and criminal law.

School of Transcendental Geometry

1. Transcendent geometry (everything in higher mathematics beyond Euclidian geometry)
2. Astronomy
3. Hydrography and navigation
4. Construction and rigging
5. Engineering (civil and military).

Dupont de Nemours believed in giving prizes and rewards. In the primary schools, books on history would be given as rewards. The recipient, proud of his prize, would memorize it and lend it to his friends. Each month the students would elect a class leader to be in charge of the class while the master was out of the room. The colleges would elect a class leader in the same manner. Each

1 Ibid., p. 133.
2 Ibid., pp. 134-137.
3 Ibid., pp. 139-140.
4 Ibid., p. 27.
5 Ibid., p. 45.
6 Ibid., p. 89.
year, all classes in the college would elect a first and second prize winner, and at the end of the seventh year the most accomplished student would be chosen.

Some students would receive financial assistance from the state. Dupont de Nemours suggested that one child in one thousand or two children in one thousand be given state assistance for the seven years of college. From the students who received the most prizes during primary school, the one most deserving in ability, morals, and temperament would be chosen. If this student was not in need of financial assistance, he would then select a student to take his place.

The hope of receiving from a friend what one could not gain one's self or of being able to give to a comrade a proof of high esteem, would establish among prize winners - that is to say the best students - deep and worthy friendships that would add to the happiness of their lives, and of which society would reap the benefit.3

At the termination of college the most accomplished pupil would be chosen. If he had been supported by the state, he could go on to the special schools with state support. If he had not been a state supported student, he could choose a student who was the recipient of a certain number of awards to take his place.

1 Ibid.

2 Ibid., pp. 56-58.

3 Ibid., pp. 57-58.

4 Ibid., pp. 89-90.
The number of primary schools, Dupont de Nemours estimated, should be as many as there were masters available to teach in them. The population would determine whether there would be one college for each county, or one college for each two or three counties. The four special schools would be established in one building at Washington City.

In regard to the number of teachers, the Frenchman wanted one master to teach all three grades of the primary school. His time would be divided among the three separate rooms. Pupils would be chosen to keep order while the master was out of the room. Each college would have six professors, a principal, and two assistant professors. The principal, who would choose his own professors, should be better educated in every branch of knowledge than the professors. It was the duty of the principal to supervise the professors and the students. The two assistant professors would supervise the recreation and the dormitories and substitute for the other professors in case of illness. Fifteen professors, four of whom would be principals, would staff the special schools.

1 Ibid., p. 48.
2 Ibid., pp. 54-55.
3 Ibid., p. 126.
4 Ibid., p. 44.
5 Ibid., p. 110.
6 Ibid., p. 66.
7 Ibid., p. 67.
8 Ibid., p. 142.
Teachers' salaries were discussed by Dupont de Nemours. The masters, who would teach in the primary schools, would be paid by the families of the children they taught. Dupont de Nemours wanted to make the salaries of the college professors high enough so that they would teach all their lives without regret. The professors would receive a very small salary from state funds. The remainder of the professors' salaries would be paid by the students. In the special schools each principal would receive $1,000 and each professor $600 from state funds. Each state-supported student would give his professor $40 per year and the principal $10 per year; each self-supported student would give his professor $80 per year and the principal $20. After ten or twelve years each professor should be making at least $4,000 per year.

Dupont de Nemours wanted the primary school to have three separate rooms, but he did not explain the source of the money to construct these buildings. On the college level the townspeople would donate the land; the state would pay for part of the buildings.

1 Ibid., p. 48.
2 Ibid., p. 106.
3 Ibid., p. 93.
4 Ibid., pp. 141-144.
5 Ibid., p. 146.
6 Ibid., p. 42.
7 Ibid., pp. 92-94.
The special schools at Washington City would be built and maintained by the Federal Government. All four schools would be located in the same building, but they would have no other connection with each other.

Two committees to supervise education would be formed. Each state would have a committee of education consisting of six or seven members who would administer public education within the state on the primary and college levels. The members of this committee would be appointed by the state legislature. Its duties would be to choose the principals of the colleges, to approve the professors and assistant professors, to present an account to the legislature each year, and to select one person to be a member of the General Council of Education of the United States.

The General Council of Education of the United States would consist of one member from each state of the Union. This committee would appoint the four principals for the special schools, approve the other professors, and direct the National Library and Museum. It would also be in charge of printing the books for the whole nation.

The plan of Dupont de Nemours was never completely adopted by the United States, probably because Jefferson was opposed to any

1 Ibid., p. 95.
2 Ibid., p. 126.
3 Ibid., pp. 151-152.
5 Ibid., p. 40.
national control of education. All of Jefferson's earlier plans were for education directed by the authorities of the individual state.

Since the two men collaborated on the plan, there was probably a mutual influence. Some of Dupont de Nemours's proposals resembled the earlier ones of Jefferson, indicating that Dupont de Nemours was influenced by the American. It is probable that Jefferson was influenced in ways which did not lead to specific and tangible changes in his plans.

Even though this Frenchman's plan was not followed in its entirety some of his ideas were followed and others have recently come into the school system. Teachers today stress principles of liberty, justice, and morality, the importance of making each child feel that he is of some worth, and the practice of giving rewards in verbal and tangible forms - all of which were included in Dupont de Nemours's project. The universities of the United States are divided into separate schools, and there is a national library, the Library of Congress. There has been a recent trend to allow students more free time to experiment and work by themselves. Since World War II, the state and federal governments have been providing more and more financial assistance to college students. Both of these latter ideas were proposed by Dupont de Nemours.

Some of his proposals were never adopted. Teachers are paid by taxes rather than by the parents of their students. There is no national university maintained by the Federal Government.
Thus it can be seen that although all of his ideas were not accepted, several of those which he advocated are a part of the contemporary school system.
CONCLUSION

Education in the United States from 1750 to 1780 was under denominational control and for the most part was restricted to the upper classes. The primary goal of education was to teach reading and religion. Children received their primary education in dame schools or from private tutors. The Latin grammar school, previously the only type of secondary school, began to be rivaled by the academy. The sole purpose of the colleges was to train ministers.

During the second half of the eighteenth century the middle class began to object because the present system of education was not serving its needs. Secondly, due to the influence of the idea of progress, Americans began to look upon educational institutions as a means of furthering human progress instead of a means of religious training.

French influence began with the political alliance of 1778. Since America remained hostile to England after the Revolution, the tendency to look to France for ideas became stronger. It was from France that America received the idea of progress. The American Philosophical Society, which elected many Frenchmen from 1780-1800, was responsible for the influx of many French ideas into America. French influence could be seen in the increased teaching of the French language and in French newspapers, textbooks, and imported
books. The tendency of Americans to look to France for cultural and intellectual ideas declined at the end of the century because of ill feelings which were aroused by the XYZ Affair.

One of the first efforts to improve American education took place when Benjamin Franklin founded his academy. Thomas Jefferson, the American most influenced by French educational ideas, wrote several plans for education beginning in 1779. Another prominent American, Benjamin Rush, wrote a plan for education in 1786. The American Philosophical Society sponsored an essay contest in 1796 in an effort to find a plan for education suitable to conditions in the United States. Samuel Smith and Samuel Knox were the winners of the contest.

In addition to American proposals to improve education, two Frenchmen wrote plans for American education. In 1785 Quesnay de Beaurepaire proposed the founding of a French Academy of Arts and Sciences in the United States, and in 1800 Dupont de Nemours wrote at the request of Thomas Jefferson a plan for education from the primary through the college level. Neither of these plans was ever put into effect.

Thus it can be seen that many efforts were made in the second half of the eighteenth century to improve education in America. Not only did Americans make proposals, but two prominent Frenchmen also created extensive projects for American education.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Quesnay de Beaurepaire. Memoir Concerning The Academy of the Arts and Sciences of the United States of America at Richmond, Virginia. Richmond: Davis Bottom, Supt. of Public Printing, 1922.


APPENDIX

The following are the foreign fellows named to Quesnay de Beaurepaire's French Academy of Arts and Sciences in the United States:

William Aiton - England  
The Count d'Angiviller - Paris  
D'Arnaud - Paris  
D'Aubenton - Paris  
Bachelier - Paris  
Bailly - Paris  
Edward Bancroft - London  
Abbe de Bervi - Paris  
Bassuel du Vignois - Paris  
Marquis de la Billardrie - Paris  
Bertholet - Paris  
De la Boutraye - Paris  
Brousseon - Paris  
George Buchanan - Baltimore, Maryland  
Cailleau - Paris  
Caron de Beaumarchais - Paris  
O'Cassidy - Ireland  
Count de la Cepede - The King's Garden  
Marquis de Chasteler and de Courcelles - Brussels  
De Clermont-Tonnerre - France  
Marquis de Condorcet - Paris  
Cousin - Paris  
Adair Craufford - London  
Crumpipen - Brussels  
Dacier - Paris  
Abbe de Desaunais - Library  
Duguay - Strasbourg  
The Duke de Duras - Paris  
Duvivier - Paris  
Marquis de la Fayette - Paris  
Feroux - Sorbonne  
Abbe de Fontenai - Paris  
De Fourcroy - Paris  
Legendre - Paris  
Grisart - Paris  
Houdon - Paris  
Imbert - Paris  
Jefferson - United States
Joshua Johnson - London
De Jussieu - Paris
De la Lande
De Lamoignon de Malsherbes - Paris
De Lavoisier - The Arsenal
Laurens de Villedieu - At Court
Leroy - The Louvre Galleries
Leroy - The Old Louvre
De Lessart - Paris
James Lims - London
Lewis Little-Page - Warsaw, Poland
John Coakley Littlesom - London
Louis - Paris
Louis - Paris
Count de la Luzerne - At Court
Marquis de la Luzerne - London (Ambassador)
Abbe Maan - Brussels
Count de Maillebois - Paris
Viscount de Maulde - Paris
Le Monnier - At Court
Montucla - At Court
Morande - London
Marquis de Montalambert - Paris
Count de Montmorin - At Court
Baron de Mulinen de Laupen - Bern, Switzerland
Thomas Paine - Philadelphia
John Paradise - Paris
Pictet - London
Pierre - Louvre
Richard Price - London
Renou - Court of the Louvre
Robert de Hesseln - Paris
The Duke de la Rochefoucault - Paris
Abbe Rochon - Paris
Abbe Royou - Paris
Samuel Ruthlege - Charleston, South Carolina
Sage - Paris
Saiffert - Paris
De la Salle - Paris
Thomas Shippen - Philadelphia
Samuel Foart Simmons - Paris
Soules - Paris
Baron de Stael Dettolstein - Paris (Ambassador, Sweden)
Tenon - Paris
Thouin - Paris
Tillet - Paris
John Trombul - New Haven, Connecticut
Vandermonde - Paris
Vernet - Louvre
Vicq-d'Azyr - Paris
Robert Walker - Petersburg, Virginia
Benjamin West - Baltimore, Maryland

1 Quesnay de Beaurepaire, Memoir Concerning the Academy of the Arts and Sciences of the United States of America at Richmond, Virginia, translated by Rosewell Page, (Richmond: Davis Bottom, Supt. of Public Printing, 1922), pp. 36-41.