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EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN

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EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN

INTRODUCTION

The first successful attempts to colonize America on the part of the Anglo-Saxons were made during the first quarter of the seventeenth century. Immediately the struggle set in between brutal greed and a certain irrepressible spirit of fair play on the part of the intruding race in their intercourse with the Indians. Greed saw in the Indian a hateful obstacle in the way of its advance in the acquisition of territory. Fair play, aided by a nascent spirit of broad Christianity and genuine philanthropy, emphasized in the Indian his essential humanity and labored to lead him, for the sake of his own salvation, to a recognition of the fatherhood of God and to lift him into a condition that would render him worthy of being received as a full equal into the brotherhood of man. This struggle is still going on with shifting success. Yet, on the whole, humanity and fair play are steadily gaining.

The intellectual and spiritual upheavals of the sixteenth century, which had culminated in Bacon and Luther, had directed thought to education as the chief reliance in the liberation of the race from the trammels of superstition, and in leading him out of the worship of physical prowess to the recognition of his duty to God and man. Naturally, therefore, those who sought the conversion and uplifting of the Indian directed their attention primarily to efforts for his education. The very charters, granted to the colonizing companies, breathed the hope that their work might bring about "the enlargement of God's kingdom among the heathen people."

The present system of Indian education, under the direction of the government of the United States, is in no way the outcome of a deliberate and carefully-conceived plan on the part of Washington officials. It is descended directly

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from the first attempts in Indian education on the part of Virginia, and more particularly on the part of New England. Here its seeds were planted. From these it derives certain inherent, vital principles, rooted in a broad Christianity and a fervent philanthropy which have enabled it to withstand blights of partisanship, of greed and rapacity on the part of spoilsmen, of incompetence on the part of teachers, of race prejudice on the part of settlers and other unfavorable conditions of environment and policy.

JOHN ELIOT

A remarkable pioneer work, and of a typical character, was done by Rev. John Eliot in Massachusetts. Mr. Eliot was actuated by motives of broadest Christianity and purest philanthropy. His simple measures were chosen with consummate wisdom. In the first place he familiarized himself with the language, disposition and character of his Indians. Then, by according them the same, he secured their confidence and respect and stimulated in their hearts reverence and a sincere desire for the industry and thrift, the godliness and purity of life, of which New England communities afforded the example. Those who would follow him he gathered in towns, where he taught them the liberties and responsibilities of township government and the devices and institutions of civilized life, among which the church and the school naturally occupied places of honor. A number of "choice Indian youths" he induced to attend English schools that they might prepare themselves for missionary work as teachers and catechists among their own people.

He was warmly supported in his work by "the corporation for the propagation of the Gospel in foreign parts," by the general court of Massachusetts and, particularly, by Mr. Daniel Gookins, the official superintendent of the Indians in Massachusetts. Mr. Eliot began his work in 1646. In 1674 there were fourteen towns of "praying Indians" whose schools and churches, in the majority of instances, were administered by educated natives. At the same time, an

Indian college had been founded at Cambridge. Yet, in due time, this success was swept away by the fears and prejudices which developed under the baneful influences of the Indian wars. Similar successful work under the direction of Revs. John Cotton and Richard Bournè in Plymouth colony shared the same fate.

SERGEANT AND WHEELOCK

Other memorable efforts in the eighteenth century were robbed of their fruits by similar causes, intensified by a number of disorganizing factors incident to the revolutionary period. Prominent among these is the work of Rev. John Sergeant at Stockbridge in Massachusetts and that of Rev. Eleazer Wheelock in Connecticut and New Hampshire.

The work of Mr. Sergeant, which involved the establishment of day schools, of a boarding school and an experimental "outing system," was almost ideal in conception, but ended with the deportation of his Indians to the west. Dr. Wheelock's labors led to the establishment of an effective training school and, indirectly, to the creation of Dartmouth college "for the education and instruction of youths of the Indian tribes in this land in reading, writing, and all parts of learning which shall appear necessary and expedient for civilizing and christianizing the children of pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and sciences, and also of English youths and any others." Only the last purpose was destined for achievement.

PERSISTENCE OF SPIRIT OF WORK

It is interesting to note that, in spite of practically total external failure, the spirit and even much of the form of these early enterprises persisted. Their impress is observable to-day in almost every prominent feature of the Indian school organization of the United States.

Among these I would point out the establishment of day schools in or near Indian villages or settlements and their organization as a means for the domestic and industrial uplifting of Indian family and village life, as well as for the

instruction of children; the establishment of industrial boarding schools in territory occupied by Indians, with their opportunities for introducing among the young a taste for the amenities and refinements, as well as for the duties and responsibilities of civilization; the establishment in civilized English-speaking communities of advanced training schools for the fuller equipment of "choice Indian youths" for full citizenship in white communities or for missionary work in the ideals, institutions, and arts of civilization among their own people; the universal stress in all schools upon instruction of boys in the arts of husbandry and certain trades and of girls in the domestic arts; the "outing system" which places partially educated Indian girls and boys as paid helpers in suitable English-speaking families and affords them instruction in the ordinary public schools; the importance attached to religious and ethical training.

SHORTCOMINGS

On the other hand, it is to be deplored that a number of valuable features of the early schools have been abandoned and even supplanted by opposite tendencies. Among the latter are to be reckoned the unintelligent warfare waged against the Indian idiom; the introduction of certain brutalities of military discipline under the influence of soldiers who for a time controlled Indian schools; an equally unintelligent effort on the part of some schools to wean Indian youth from Indian association by throwing contempt upon the Indian and by stimulating a feeling akin to hatred of Indian family ties; and a variety of measures and devices inspired by a policy of compulsion and repression, rather than by a spirit of development and benevolent helpfulness.

Serious harm came to the government schools from time to time from the fact that until 1893 patronage and partisanship entered as a weighty, perhaps the weightiest, factor in the appointment of officers and employees. Thanks to the constant vigilance of the Indian rights association, the Mohonk conference and a number of other societies earn-

edly interested in the welfare of the Indians, these evils are steadily yielding. They have been greatly reduced since 1893 by the application of civil service rules to school employees, and it is hoped that in these matters every new dawn will bring a better day.

PERIOD OF INACTION

Before entering upon a descriptive account of the Indian school work of the present day, it is desirable to indicate in a few words the successive steps that have led to their organization.

After the revolution, congress and the country as a whole were so much absorbed with the duties of self-establishment that little heed was paid to Indian education. A number of minor appropriations are recorded on the basis of treaties with a few tribes, and at a few points missionary zeal continued a fitful activity. During the first quarter of the nineteenth century, however, a great religious revival again directed general attention to Indian education as a Christian and national duty.

RESUMPTION OF WORK

Missionary bodies took up the work with renewed zeal. Congress responded in 1819 with an appropriation of \$10,000 in addition to certain treaty obligations. In 1820 the president was authorized to apply this sum annually in aid of societies and individuals engaged in the education of Indians. In 1823 the sum of \$80,000 was expended in 21 schools maintained by missionary bodies; \$12,000 of this amount had been contributed by the government.

In 1825 the number of such schools had risen to 38, the entire expenditure for these to \$202,000, of which the government, directly and indirectly, had contributed \$25,000. In 1848 there were reported in operation 16 manual training schools, 87 boarding schools and other schools.

These schools continued to increase in number and efficiency up to 1873. They were under the control of missionary bodies with such scanty aid from the government as

the small appropriations afforded. Only a few small day schools had been established by the government directly under treaty provisions.

GOVERNMENTAL ZEAL

After this time, however, the government entered upon an era of almost feverish activity in the establishment of strictly government schools; first, day schools, then boarding schools and industrial training schools. Congress kept pace with this zeal in the liberality of its appropriations.

In 1877 it appropriated for schools, outside of treaty provisions, \$20,000, in 1880 \$75,000, in 1885 \$992,800, in 1890 \$1,364,568, in 1895 \$2,060,695, in 1899 \$2,638,390. During this period the average attendance rose in similar ratio from 3,598 in 1877 to 19,648 in 1898.

The increased appropriations by congress for the education of Indians naturally stimulated a desire on the part of the government to control the expenditures directly and in detail. Possibly this desire was much enhanced by the fact that such expenditure opened to the party in power a rich field for patronage.

At the same time it was discovered that the constitution, by implication at least, forbade the appropriation of public funds for denominational purposes. Concurrent conclusions, unfavorable to government support of missionary schools, were further strengthened by the fact that the Roman Catholic church had gradually outstripped the Protestant missionary bodies and was absorbing the lion's share of government support.

DECAY OF MISSIONARY EFFORT

During the first half of the century the Protestant missionary organizations had had well nigh a monopoly of government support; but, later on, the Roman Catholics had wrested from them the preponderance. In 1889 the Catholic church drew from the appropriations for this purpose \$347,672, as against \$128,518 drawn by Protestant bodies. In 1892 these amounts had risen to \$394,756 for the Catho-

lics and \$160,874 for the Protestants. In 1893 the Methodist Episcopal church withdrew from participation in government aid without, however, abandoning its schools. In 1895 this example was followed by the Presbyterians and Congregationalists, in 1896 by the Friends, and in 1897 by the remaining Protestant denominations. This left only the Catholics in the field with an appropriation of \$198,228.

This process was aided by congress which, in 1894, had declared its policy of gradually abandoning all support of denominational schools. This policy has since been followed, so that in 1899 the appropriation was reduced to \$116,862.

PRESENT ORGANIZATION

In their present organization the Indian schools under government control are designated as day schools, as reservation boarding schools, non-reservation boarding schools, and as industrial and normal training schools.

Day schools—Day schools are located in Indian villages or near Indian camps or settlements. They are, as a rule, in charge of a male teacher and his wife, who acts as housekeeper, or—more particularly in the pueblos of New Mexico and in the Indian villages of Southern California—of a lady teacher and an Indian housekeeper. The children spend from five to eight hours during five days of the week under the care of these employees and return to their homes in the evening. At noon they are furnished a substantial luncheon, except in the pueblos of New Mexico and in the villages of Southern California, where they generally return to their homes during the noon recess.

The instruction is of the simplest character. The children are taught to speak, read and write the English language within narrow limits, to cipher, to draw and to sing. In addition they get some rudimentary notions of geography, of natural history and of United States history. The methods are borrowed largely from the kindergarten and from object teaching.

Much stress is laid upon habits of cleanliness and order,

mutual kindness and prompt obedience. The boys receive some instruction in the use of tools, in gardening and in some instances, in the care of cows. The girls are taught sewing, cooking and other arts of housekeeping.

While day schools, as a rule, accomplish comparatively little in conventional school-room work, they achieve much in bringing to the Indians among whom they are located, the message and desire of better ways of living. The school as such serves as a concrete illustration of a civilized Christian home which the Indians learn to respect and in an appreciable degree to emulate. Where the teacher and housekeeper, at the same time, possess the inclination and the skill to attract to themselves the older Indians, to secure their confidence and to instruct them unobtrusively in the simpler arts of thrift and home-making, these schools become invaluable factors in the uplifting of the race. Moreover, they reconcile the Indian with the idea of sending his children to school, and render him more willing in due time to intrust them to the care of boarding schools, as well as more ready to appreciate and to accept the lessons of civilization that radiate from these centers of education.

According to the report of the commissioner of Indian affairs the government operated in 1898 142 day schools. The most successful of these are located in Wisconsin (16), in North Dakota (11), and in South Dakota (54); the least successful, probably, among the pueblos of New Mexico (14). This comparative lack of success, however, is not to be attributed to the teachers who are devoted and capable. It is due rather to the fact that these Indians live in a state of half-civilization which they owe to their Mexican and Spanish antecedents. This condition fully satisfies their ideals, and, consequently, they do not care to exchange it for the ways of their teachers.

The life of the day-school teacher is one of extreme isolation from the amenities and refinements of civilization. It argues on their part a degree of self-denial and devotion which even with persons of only ordinary goodness is sure to

emphasize the best traits and impulses of the soul. It is not rare, therefore, to find among them sanctified men and women whose very presence is an inspiration. I have no doubt that to this is due much of their benign influence upon the Indians among whom their lot is cast. It is an observation much to the credit of human nature that only rarely a teacher is found of a character so corrupt as to take advantage of the people and the children intrusted to his care.

The day schools are kept open for ten months. The salaries paid vary from \$600 to \$800 for the teacher and from \$300 to \$480 for the housekeeper, according to location.

Reservation boarding schools— These schools are located within the territory reserved for some tribe of Indians. They are in charge of a superintendent, assisted by a matron and such teachers, industrial and domestic helpers as the capacity and character of the school may require. In addition to the required number of school teachers, the school is provided with a cook, a seamstress, and a laundress whose office it is not only to supervise their respective departments, but also to instruct the girls in these arts. Similarly, there is for the instruction of the boys a farmer, an industrial teacher, and, at larger schools, a tailor, a shoe and harness maker, a carpenter and blacksmith. An experiment to provide for more methodical instruction in the use of tools by expert manual training teachers failed because the Indian office would not afford a salary for this position, sufficient to attract competent men.

In 1894 the experiment of connecting kindergartens with these schools was tried. The experiment proved eminently successful. The children entered into the work and the games with zest and intelligence. Their traditional shyness and reticence yielded naturally and readily to their objective interest in the exercises. They acquired the English idiom with much ease and learned to express their ideas freely and with eagerness. At the present time, there are forty kindergartens connected with boarding schools. Moreover, the use of kindergarten methods and of kindergarten material

has entered the primary classes in practically all these schools and in many of the day schools with similar good results.

The children spend from one and a-half to two hours each half-day with the kindergarten. Other children, in the majority of these schools, spend half a day—forenoon or afternoon—in the school room and the other half-day in domestic or industrial work of a character suited to their age. In a number of schools, however, which are lacking in facilities or in skill and good will on the part of the respective employees, the smaller children are detained in the school room during the entire day, much to their physical, intellectual and moral deterioration.

Indeed, experience has proved that half-day instruction which at first was forced upon the schools as an expedient, is one which every consideration of wisdom and prudence would commend. The sedentary life of the more or less crowded school room becomes irksome to these children accustomed to an active outdoor life; the interests of the school room are foreign to their heredities and traditions. The industrial features of the work, on the other hand, appeal more or less forcibly to their habits and tastes and stimulate practical interests which the parents can appreciate and which induce them to look with favor upon the school and to aid it in its work. The school room itself finds in these interests material for practice and discussion directly welcome to the pupil; it can thus more readily overcome aversion and secure an appreciative and sympathetic attitude on the part of the pupils. It adds to the work of the schools in a large measure all the advantages of mental stimulation which manual training yields. It is, consequently, not astonishing that the children in schools in which the half-day practice has not been adopted make less rapid progress, are backward in physical and intellectual development, and morally less earnest and responsible than the children of half-day schools.

The aim of the school, in so far as instruction is concerned, is to give to the pupils ability to read and write

English within the limits of ordinary primary school work, practical control of arithmetic for the needs of ordinary daily life, clear rudimentary notions of geography and United States history, drawing and singing, a knowledge of the laws of hygienic living, garden work, the cultivation of fruits and vegetables, and familiarity with the simpler requirements of agricultural and domestic industries suited to the locality. Moreover, in a few of the larger schools, the larger boys have much opportunity to acquire skill in carpentry, blacksmithing, tailoring and shoemaking.

It has already been indicated that these institutions are to the children not only school, but also home and community. The institution gives them shelter, food and clothing; it accustoms them to habits of cleanliness and decency; it cultivates their æsthetic tastes; it labors to secure right moral attitude and, at least in its Sunday school, seeks to impart the plainer truths of Christianity and to stimulate the religious life of the children.

In these last efforts, it is true, the schools are much handicapped by denominational jealousies which are ever ready to suspect proselyting, and which have forced the government into an attitude of indifference and inactivity in all matters that affect religion. In a number of reservations, however, missionary establishments, which are impartially encouraged by the government, supplement the work of the schools to a certain extent in matters of religion.

The superintendent of the reservation boarding school is subject in his work to the control of the Indian agent, who, as representative of the government, administers the affairs of the reservation. To this agent he makes requisition for whatever the school may need; through him he makes his reports and requests to the Indian office at Washington and receives replies and directions; through him he makes his recommendations, if any, for the appointment or dismissal of employees; from him he and his subordinates receive their pay.

Inasmuch as these agents are selected on partisan

grounds, usually at the suggestion of local politicians and as a reward for partisan service, this arrangement is fraught with much danger to the true interests of these schools. Until 1893—when superintendents, matrons and teachers were placed under civil service protection—all employees at these schools were at the mercy of the Indian agents, dismissals for partisan or patronage reasons were the order of the day, scandals of every description were frequent, and the schools accomplished good only when the agent happened to be a good man. After 1893 there came some improvement. Yet with reference to employees in the domestic and industrial service and in minor positions the same evils continued practically unabated. With reference to these the superintendents and even the Indian office were powerless, and frequently good superintendents were forced out of the service by combinations against them among the appointees of the agent or through the aid and influence of unscrupulous partisan inspectors or supervisors.

In 1896, at last, all employees of the school service were placed under civil service protection, and since that time there has been marked improvement in the conditions and work of these schools.

Nevertheless, from the very inertia of things—moral as well as material—the superintendents of these schools are frequently ignored, recommendations are made by agents without even the knowledge of the superintendents and honored by Washington officials. In a number of agencies, where the agent has practically no duties save those connected with the school service, this relation is peculiarly oppressive and acts generally as a hindrance in the development of the school.

As a remedy for these evils, friends of the Indians and of good government have repeatedly proposed the relief of these superintendents from the control of agents and the abolishment of unnecessary agencies, but the propositions have as repeatedly been “turned down” by spoilsmen in control at Washington.

On the other hand, there has been decided gain in the equipment, in the sanitary condition, in the general character of employees, and in the conduct of these schools. Employees are learning to look to efficiency as their chief reliance for continuance in office and for promotion, rather than to the favor of some patron. The consequent increase in self-respect on their part has operated as a barrier to a number of abuses which thereby became simply impossible, and have secured a spirit of genuine devotion to the work of the school on the part of the employees.

At the same time the Indian office has been relieved of attention to office-seekers and their patrons, which had occupied so much of the time of officials. It has, consequently, been enabled to pay increased attention to the schools themselves, to their equipment, their sanitary condition, their management. The new schools, erected within the last few years, are models in their way, and most of the older schools have in all these matters been greatly improved.

According to the report of the commissioner of Indian affairs there were in operation in the year 1898 seventy-five of these schools with a capacity of 8,825, an enrollment of 8,877, and an average attendance of 7,532 pupils. There were employed in their conduct 1,247 persons, including Indian cadets and apprentice assistants who are paid at the rate of \$60 per year. The cost of these schools to the government was \$1,149,155.90.

The life of the employees is comparatively pleasant and affords many social amenities. In many instances, towns inhabited by white people are within easy access. Where this is not the case there is, as a rule, a sufficient number of employees at the school to preclude the isolation and loneliness of day-school life. Usually a pleasant room is set aside and neatly furnished as an employees' sitting room. The employees are furnished quarters at the schools, but provide for their food. For this purpose they are organized in a common mess. Their expenses for board rarely reach \$12 per month, and more frequently fall below \$10.

They are employed for the year; but are granted thirty days leave of absence, and on occasion thirty days of sick leave without deduction of pay. Instruction continues through forty weeks; but in many instances a portion of the children are kept at the school throughout the year.

Superintendents are paid from \$900 to \$1,200; matrons from \$500 to \$720, according to the size of the school. Teachers receive from \$450 to \$720, according to experience; farmers and other industrial employees from \$600 to \$800; heads of domestic industries \$400 to \$600; their assistants \$300 to \$500; Indian apprentice assistants from \$60 to \$240. Promotion is based usually on experience and merit.

Non-reservation boarding schools—Of these there are at present twenty-five. Seven of them are distinguished as industrial training schools and three others as industrial and normal training schools.

The remaining fifteen, in their original scope of work, differed little from the reservation boarding schools. Differences in organization, however, as well as differences in environment, have exercised a salutary influence upon them, and have lifted them in aims and attainments far above the latter.

In the first place the superintendents of these schools are bonded and directly responsible to the Indian office. There is between them and the authorities at Washington no intervening Indian agency with its demoralizing possibilities. Their authority in the management of the schools is complete. The consequent sense of responsibility and self-respect in the head of the school finds its reflection in the attitude of his subordinates, as well as in the attitude of the pupils. Undivided loyalty on the part of the employees does away largely with factional hindrances. Efficiency and devotion to duty have a vastly greater share in appointments, in tenure and in promotion.

The beneficial influence of this better condition of affairs is further enhanced in the majority of instances by the

environment of these schools. They are, as a rule, located at a distance from the Indian country and in the vicinity of civilized American towns which afford the schools—teachers and pupils—the stimulus of constant contact with the ideals and amenities of civilized life. The work thereby gains in every respect—in scope, in depth, in intensity, in vitality, in permanence of influence upon the pupils.

The pupils at these schools are on an average more advanced in years than those at reservation schools. Frequently, they have had some previous training in day schools or reservation boarding schools. They are, because far away from their Indian homes, more constant and more regular in attendance; and, for the same reason and because of their vicinity to English-speaking communities, they gain a better control of the English idiom.

Their class-room work is, therefore, more thorough and more extended, and reaches far into the advanced grammar school courses of study, laying special stress upon language practice, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history, nature study, drawing, and civil government.

Their facilities for training pupils in the domestic and industrial arts are much greater than in reservation schools; and the effectiveness of their instruction in these arts is much enhanced by the fact that pupils have frequent opportunities to observe the practical applicability and value of these arts in the environment of the schools.

The superintendents are paid from \$1,200 to \$1,500 per annum. Other employees are paid on the same scale as in reservation schools.

The most noted and successful of these schools are located at Flandreau in South Dakota, Pipestone in Minnesota, Mount Pleasant in Michigan, Fort Mojave in Arizona, Carson in Nevada, Perris in California, Tomah in Wisconsin, Wittenberg in Wisconsin, Fort Lewis in Colorado, and Pierre in South Dakota.

Industrial training schools—These schools are located at Carlisle in Pennsylvania, Chemawa near Salem in Oregon,

GRADE SCHOOL
Chilocco in Oklahoma, Genoa in Nebraska, Albuquerque in New Mexico, Lawrence in Kansas (the Haskell institute), Grand Junction in Colorado, Santa Fe in New Mexico, Phoenix in Arizona, Fort Shaw in Montana.

In the essential features of their organization these schools are similar to the schools just described. In the scope of their work, however, in equipment and in cultural facilities they excel, as a rule, in a high degree.

With a view of training teachers systematically and in greater number for the work of teaching, the government in 1894 added to three of these schools normal departments. This was done at Carlisle, at the Haskell institute and at Santa Fe, and these schools were henceforth distinguished as industrial and normal training schools. The experiment proved fairly successful with Carlisle where, indeed, similar work had been previously done, and, more especially, with the Haskell institute. The school at Santa Fe during the first years accomplished little in this direction, but of late has begun to gain success under a gifted superintendent.

Haskell institute—The following sketch of the work of Haskell institute will afford an idea of the scope of these schools, as well as of the possibilities of Indian education under government control:

Haskell institute is located near the city of Lawrence, in the state of Kansas. The school was opened in 1884. It has now a capacity of 550 pupils. The main buildings are substantial stone structures. The dormitories, school building and some other buildings, are heated by steam, lighted by electricity, provided with hot and cold water, and supplied with modern sanitary conveniences. The entire plant consists of about thirty buildings and has its own water works. A farm of 650 acres is attached to the institution.

The institution is under the direction of a superintendent, aided by an assistant superintendent, who acts also as physician, and by three clerks. In their daily movements the pupils are under the supervision of a disciplinarian—exclusively for the boys—and a corps of six matrons and

housekeepers. The academic department of the school is administered by a principal teacher, assisted by fifteen teachers, suitably assigned to the kindergarten, the model school, the normal department, the commercial department, and the department of music—vocal and instrumental.

In addition there are the departments of manual training and of domestic science, and a printing office, each under competent leadership.

In the girls' industrial department, sewing, cooking, laundering, and other features of housekeeping, are taught and practiced in supplying the needs of the institution in these matters.

Similarly, in the boys' industrial department, farming, gardening and dairying, carpentering, blacksmithing, masonry and plastering, steamfitting and engineering, wheelwrighting, painting, harnessmaking, tailoring, shoemaking and baking are taught and practiced.

In a well-equipped hospital the physician and two nurses take care of the sick.

In a number of departments, graduates and other advanced pupils are employed as assistants at salaries ranging from \$60 to \$120 per annum. In 1898 there were 18 of these.

Much attention is paid throughout the institution to music, vocal and instrumental. In addition to general singing exercises, the school has organized special choruses, glee clubs, a string orchestra, and an orchestra of mixed instruments, all of which render music very creditably.

For purposes of study and for the stimulation of self-culture, the institution is provided with a carefully-selected reference library, as well as with magazines and other periodicals placed at the disposal of pupils in a comfortable and well-lighted reading room.

Religious nurture is provided in a Sunday school on Sunday forenoon; in a short, undenominational religious service on Sunday afternoon, and in certain devotional exercises connected with the daily movements of the school. Moreover, pupils who may wish to do so are given oppor-

tunity to attend religious service in the city on Sunday morning in the churches with which they may be affiliated. Pupils enrolled in the Young Men's Christian association and in the Young Women's Christian association hold their meetings at the school on Sunday evenings. They welcome all non-members who may wish to attend.

The model school is arranged in eight grades and is planned for eight years of work. In scope and content it compares satisfactorily with the ordinary public school courses for elementary schools, and is fully abreast with the times in matter and method.

The model course is followed by a preparatory course, intended for pupils who may desire to enter the normal or commercial course. It embraces a general review of arithmetic, the first rudiments of algebra, the systematic study of English grammar, the reading of literary masterpieces, composition work, English history, zoology, botany and music.

The normal course, planned for two years, deals with the rudiments of algebra and geometry, with elementary physics, general history, rhetoric, American and English literature, and—on the professional side—with psychology, history of pedagogy, pedagogics, discussion of methods, and practice teaching under the direction of a critic teacher.

The commercial course, planned also for two years, affords instruction and practice in stenography, typewriting, commercial arithmetic, commercial law, parliamentary rules, bookkeeping, business correspondence, banking, penmanship and business practice.

Graduates of the normal department are offered the opportunity to devote one additional year to preparation for kindergarten work under the direction of the kindergartner of the institution, and in connection with a well-equipped kindergarten, where they are permitted to observe the work and occasionally to assist in it.

Members of the three special departments are exempt from industrial training; they devote their entire time to

class-room work. All others give one-half of the day to class-room work and the other half to manual and industrial training. In both of these they acquire a commendable degree of skill and efficiency.

The fact that the Kansas state university is located at Lawrence exerts a stimulating influence upon the institution. The professors of the university take an active personal interest in its welfare and favor it from time to time with courses of lectures adapted to the needs of the pupils. As a result the desire grows in their hearts to secure for themselves university training after graduation from Haskell. At present there are two graduates of the institution in the law school of the university.

Quite a number of acceptable teachers have gone forth from the normal department of the institution in the years of 1896, '97 and '98, and have found employment in Indian schools. With very few exceptions, these have shown a commendable degree of judgment, devotion, progressiveness and continuity in their work, repelling by their conduct the pessimistic allegation made by detractors of the Indian character, that they would prove capricious and unreliable.

Of the 25 normal graduates put out by the institution in the three years, 14 are now acting as teachers, one as principal teacher, one as disciplinarian, one as lumber inspector, two as clerks, one as farmer and dairyman, one as assistant matron. One has entered the training school for kindergartners, one the high school in a western city, and one the law school of the university.

Carlisle — The organization of the Indian school at Carlisle, in the state of Pennsylvania, is, in its main features, similar to that of Haskell institute. It differs, however, in many details of management, because of the strong personal characteristics of its superintendent.

The school has a capacity of 800 pupils. This, however, may be nearly doubled with the aid of the excellent "outing system," which is a distinctive feature of the institution.

By this system the Carlisle school requires its students to

spend one or more years of their school life away from the school in carefully selected white families, under the supervision of the school. For their services in these families they receive current wages, but are required to attend public schools for four or more months during the winter. Thus they gain direct, personal experience in self-support by honest work and an insight into the responsibilities and amenities of civilized family and institutional life in its best and most attractive forms, while at the same time they are reasonably protected against the demoralizing factors of white civilization which are so much in the way of success in the outlying districts near the Indian country.

The growth of this system has been quite remarkable and emphasizes its value. It began tentatively with a few pupils in 1880. In 1898 the superintendent reported that "an average of 250 remained out during the winter attending the public schools, and 600 were out during the vacation." "Each pupil," he continues, "earned wages according to ability, the boys' earnings aggregating \$13,541.30, of which they saved \$5,208.61, and the girls' earnings aggregating \$8,184.20, of which they saved \$3,098.50."

Other distinctive features of this school are found in its excellent department of music, its art school, and, more particularly, in its systematic attention to physical training. The school has a well-equipped gymnasium in which both girls and boys receive instruction and training. The football team of Carlisle has a national reputation for clean and vigorous play; it receives and meets with credit challenges from the best colleges of the land.

Contract schools—In addition to maintaining these strictly government schools, the Indian office pays \$108 per pupil to 25 Catholic mission boarding schools for the education of 1,098 children; \$30 per pupil for 21 children in two Catholic day schools, and \$167 per pupil for 200 pupils in Lincoln institute at Philadelphia, and for 120 pupils in Hampton institute, located at Hampton, in the state of Virginia.

Of these, Hampton institute deserves special mention. It was originally established with the help of northern philanthropists for the industrial and normal training of negroes in 1868. Its support to-day is derived from small endowment funds, liberal annual contributions from the north, and \$10,000 annually paid to it in its capacity as an agricultural school by the state of Virginia.

In 1878 seventeen young Indians were brought to it from Florida, where they had for three years been kept as prisoners of war. From this was developed the present Indian department of the institution, superior in equipment and in the spirit that controls its work. Here, too, originated the outing system which, subsequently, grew into an educational factor of vast importance at Carlisle.

The distinctive feature of this school, however, is its broad missionary spirit. Bound to no particular denomination, yet respecting all and respected by all, it is deeply religious in spirit and work, and labors to inculcate its own missionary zeal in the hearts of its students.

In its young Indian students it stimulates a keen sense of responsible manhood and womanhood. It teaches them to experience and to appreciate the advantages of the intelligent Christian civilization of which it furnishes them the example. It stimulates and nurtures in them a deep sympathy with their own people in their sufferings and needs, and a fervent desire to bring to these in due time the blessings of which they themselves have become participants.

There are still a number of independent schools that receive no support whatever from the government. Some of these do much good so that it would be a gratifying task to give a detailed account of their organization and work. Nothing, however, could be gained by this for the presentation of the subject in its general bearings. On the whole they are similarly organized, with the exception that they pay more direct and persistent attention to religious training, inasmuch as they are affiliated with particular religious denominations.

Supervision — The direction and supervision of the Indian schools rests with the Indian office which, in its turn, is under the direction and supervision of the secretary of the interior. In the Indian office the details of the work are intrusted to the education division, now probably the most important division under its control. The education division consists of a chief clerk, with a corps of subordinate clerks, stenographers and copyists. To this division all reports are made; by it all directions and orders are drafted and issued.

The education division is aided in its work by the superintendent of Indian schools and by five supervisors, assigned in their work to five districts respectively. These officials constitute a branch of the Indian school service which occupies a very uncertain position, which can be designated neither as subordinate nor as co-ordinate, and which in its effectiveness depends wholly on the force of character of the incumbents and the good will of the commissioner. They have duties, but no rights; and even their efforts to perform these duties may be rendered practically nugatory by the ill-will of the education division or of the commissioner.

A similarly anomalous relation exists between the commissioner and the secretary of the interior with regard to all matters which the latter may wish to control directly. For this purpose the secretary has established under his direct control an Indian division, independent of the Indian office, and to which all orders and directions which the secretary may designate must be referred by the Indian office for approval. The power of this Indian division is further reinforced by a corps of inspectors in the field appointed on partisan grounds and responsible to him alone.

Here too, therefore, the effectiveness of the commissioner in his work depends wholly upon the good will of the secretary of the interior, who may reduce the commissioner to practical non-existence in so far as the judgment and the conscience of the latter are concerned.

It is true that technically the superintendent of Indian schools may appeal from the commissioner to the secretary

of the interior, and the commissioner from the decision of the secretary to the president of the United States. In view, however, of the hopelessly autocratic relation that runs through the chain, that is practically out of the question, as it would tend to increase ill-will.

Under these conditions the fact that Indian education has prospered reflects credit upon all concerned. It argues, on the part of the subordinates, a commendable degree of force of character and on the part of superiors an equally commendable degree of moderation and sense of justice.

CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

There can be no doubt that an education which inculcates the tastes and establishes the ideals of current civilization constitutes the proper first step in the work of introducing the Indians into American citizenship. It is equally evident that the cultivation of these tastes and ideals is well nigh impossible under the conditions and influences of tribal life on Indian reservations.

The mere recital of a few of the leading differences between the two civilizations will sufficiently emphasize these difficulties. The Indian civilization looks upon the tribe or family as the unit; with us it is the individual. With the Indian he is richest who gives most; with us it is he who keeps most. The Indian claims hospitality as a right until the means of his host are exhausted; and this hospitality is freely granted. To the Indian, land is as free as the water he drinks; proprietorship continues only so long as the land is tilled or otherwise in use. The Indian prizes the worthless pony, whilom his companion and friend in the lost occupations of the chase and war. The cow is to him only a poor substitute for the buffalo; he knows nothing of her value as a giver of milk and a breeder of cattle. Woman in Indian civilization is a producer and possesses in full Indian life an economic value and independence to which in our civilization she is largely a stranger. His religious rights and ceremonies afford the Indian, in addition to a

certain degree of spiritual elevation, opportunities for intense social enjoyment for which he looks in vain in the new civilization. Add to this that the wants of the Indian are few and easily gratified by simple forms of homely skill in which the industries and other acquirements of the Indian school find little application; that chiefs and medicine-men in the very nature of things look with distrust and disdain upon a civilization which robs them of power and influence; that time-honored tradition imposes upon the young Indian silence and obedience,—and you have an array of adverse conditions which is appalling.

Against these odds the Indian schools are pitted. The government, it is true, made an effort to come to their aid in a well-intentioned allotment scheme. In this, a certain amount of land was allotted to each member of a tribe for purposes of agriculture or stock-raising. The allotment was to be held by the respective allottees inalienably for a period of twenty-five years, and it carried with it under certain conditions rights of citizenship.

In most instances, however, this well-meant measure developed into a new obstacle to the work of the schools. The Indians are gregarious; they live in bands and villages. The isolation of farm life is distasteful to them. They prefer, therefore, to lease their lands to white farmers and to enjoy the meagre income from this source and from certain government annuities in tribal bands and villages as heretofore.

Nevertheless the schools are steadily gaining ground even against this added difficulty, partly through their direct influence in day schools and reservation boarding schools, partly through the medium of "returned students" from the more advanced non-reservation schools.

Honor and grateful admiration is due the young heroes and heroines who annually go forth from the Indian schools pitting their lives against adamant walls of tradition and superstition, wresting victory for themselves and their unwilling people from conditions which seem all but hopeless. It

is not to be wondered that of these soldiers of a new dispensation some fall by the wayside or succumb in the unequal struggle; but the misfortune, rather than dishonor, of these should not render us blind to the steady valor of the young men and women who are steadily pushing ahead, gaining new ground inch by inch, until even now the observer who looks beneath the surface sees victory assured. So great, indeed, has been the gain already achieved that in many instances where twenty years ago Indian savagery ruled supreme, it would be difficult now to find any of its features as enumerated above clearly manifest. The busy farmer, the thrifty housewife, the skillful artisan, the careful tradesman are no longer rare; on a number of reservations they are beginning to be respected as marks of superiority to which all should aspire. The Indian schools can point with satisfaction to fervent missionaries, devoted teachers, physicians, lawyers, field matrons, nurses and trained workers in other fields who owe the impulse to their career, and much of their equipment to the work and influence of these schools.

In response to the outcry against the efficiency of Indian education on the part of superficial observers and prejudiced detractors of the Indian, the Indian office a few years ago gathered statistics as to the success in life and fidelity to the "white man's ways" on the part of "returned students." As a result it was enabled to announce that fully seventy-five per cent of these could be rated as excellent or good; that less than ten per cent were poor or bad, and the remainder fair or indifferent. Surely an encouraging showing.

Schools of Indian territory—The schools of the so-called "five civilized tribes" of Indian territory are not included in the above sketch. Indian territory comprises more than 40,000 square miles of rich, arable land, with valuable coal and asphalt deposits. It was set aside in 1832 for certain Indian tribes who formerly occupied the southern and gulf states. The five civilized tribes of to-day include 30,000 Cherokees, 14,500 Choctaws, 10,000 Creeks, 6,990 Chicka-

saws and 2,000 Seminoles. In addition there are in the territory 18,500 freed men and 200,000 whites.

Missionary zeal availed itself promptly of this new field for its efforts. Substantial boarding schools were erected, more particularly by the Presbyterians, Methodists and Baptists.

Much good radiated from these centers of civilization. In due time, however, the Indian authorities began to make appropriations for these schools. Ultimately, they took entire charge of them. Unfortunately, administrative affairs were largely in the hands of whites who, by intermarriage or bribery, had been adopted into the tribes, and there came over the schools, as well as over all other public interests, the blight of extreme partisanship and nepotism which rapidly degraded them in character and efficiency.

In 1898, therefore, the government at Washington found itself compelled to come to the rescue and to assume supervisory control over the affairs of all these tribes except the Seminoles.

Under the act by which this was done, the conduct of the schools and orphan asylums in the four tribes involved was placed under the direction of a "superintendent of schools in Indian territory," appointed by the secretary of the interior. Under him there is for each of the tribes or nations a "supervisor of schools," whose duty it is to inspect the educational institutions in his district and to assist in their organization and conduct. The superintendent reports to the commissioner of Indian affairs at Washington through the United States inspector for the Indian territory, who is his immediate superior.

The initial report of the superintendent shows that there are in the four tribes 24 boarding schools, with an enrollment of 1,758 pupils, and an average attendance of 1,480, taught and cared for by 234 employees at an annual expense of \$236,824. This does not include 363 neighborhood schools, in which more than 10,000 children are taught at an annual expense of \$113,380. In character and equipment, however, these schools are very poor.

STATISTICAL TABLES

TABLE 1—*Number of Indian schools and average attendance from 1877 to 1898*¹

YEAR	BOARDING SCHOOLS		DAY SCHOOLS ²		TOTALS	
	Number	Average attendance	Number	Average attendance	Number	Average attendance
1877.....	48	102	150	3 598
1878.....	49	119	168	4 142
1879.....	52	107	159	4 448
1880.....	60	109	169	4 651
1881.....	68	106	174	4 976
1882.....	71	3 077	76	1 637	147	4 714
1883.....	80	3 793	88	1 893	168	5 686
1884.....	87	4 723	98	2 237	185	6 960
1885.....	114	6 201	86	1 942	200	8 143
1886.....	115	7 260	99	2 370	214	9 630
1887.....	117	8 020	110	2 500	227	10 520
1888.....	126	8 705	107	2 715	233	11 420
1889.....	136	9 146	103	2 406	239	11 552
1890.....	140	9 865	106	2 367	246	12 232
1891.....	146	11 425	110	2 163	256	13 588
1892.....	149	12 422	126	2 745	275	15 167
1893.....	156	13 635	119	2 668	275	16 303
1894.....	157	14 457	115	2 639	272	17 220
1895.....	157	15 061	125	3 127	282	18 188
1896.....	156	15 683	140	3 579	296	19 262
1897.....	145	15 026	143	3 650	288	18 676
1898.....	148	16 112	147	3 536	295	19 648

¹ Some of the figures in this table as printed prior to 1896 were taken from reports of the superintendent of Indian schools. As revised, they are all taken from the reports of the commissioner of Indian affairs. Prior to 1882 the figures include the New York schools.

² Indian children attending public schools are included in the average attendance, but the schools are not included in the number of schools.

TABLE 2 — Enrollment and average attendance at Indian schools, 1897 and 1898, showing increase in 1898; also number of schools in 1898

KIND OF SCHOOL	ENROLLMENT			AVERAGE ATTENDANCE			Number of schools
	1897	1898	Increase	1897	1898	Increase	
Government schools:							
Non-reservation boarding.	5 723	6 175	452	4 787	5 347	560	25
Reservation boarding.....	8 112	8 887	765	6 855	7 532	677	75
Day.....	4 768	4 847	79	3 234	3 286	52	242
Total.....	18 603	19 899	1 296	14 876	16 165	1 289	342
Contract schools:							
Boarding.....	2 579	2 509	1 70	2 313	2 245	1 68	2 29
Day.....	208	96	1 112	142	68	1 74	3
Boarding, specially appropriated for.....	371	394	23	23	326	1 4	2
Total.....	3 158	2 999	1 159	2 785	2 639	1 146	34
Public.....	303	315	12	194	183	1 11	(3)
Mission boarding 4.....	813	737	1 76	741	662	1 79	17
Mission day.....	87	54	1 33	80	22	1 58	2
Aggregate.....	22 964	24 004	1 040	18 676	19 671	995	295

TABLE 3 — Annual appropriations made by the government since the fiscal year 1877 for the support of the Indian schools

YEAR	Appropriation	Per cent increase	YEAR	Appropriation	Per cent increase
1877.....	\$20 000		1880.....	\$1 348 015	14
1878.....	30 000	50	1890.....	1 364 568	1
1879.....	60 000	100	1891.....	1 842 770	35
1880.....	75 000	25	1892.....	2 291 650	24.3
1881.....	75 000		1893.....	2 315 612	.9
1882.....	135 000	80	1894.....	2 243 497	1 3.5
1883.....	487 200	260	1895.....	2 060 695	1 8.87
1884.....	675 200	38	1896.....	2 056 515	1 .2
1885.....	992 800	47	1897.....	2 517 265	22.45
1886.....	1 100 065	10	1898.....	2 631 771	4.54
1887.....	1 211 415	10	1899.....	2 638 390	.0025
1888.....	1 179 916	1 2.6			

1 Decrease.
 2 Three schools transferred to the government and contracts made for two schools which were paid by vouchers in previous year.
 3 Thirty-one public schools in which pupils are taught not enumerated here.
 4 These schools are conducted by religious societies, some of which receive from the government for the Indian children therein such rations and clothing as the children are entitled to as reservation Indians.

TABLE 4 — Location and capacity of government day schools, June 30, 1898

LOCATION	Capacity	LOCATION	Capacity
Arizona:		New Mexico—Continued.	
Hualapai—		Pueblo—Continued.	
Kingman.....	50	San Ildefonso.....	40
Hackberry.....	60	San Juan.....	50
Suppai.....	60	Santo Domingo.....	30
Navajo—		Taos.....	40
Little Water.....	25	Zia.....	35
Oreiba.....	40	Zuni.....	60
Polacco.....	40	North Dakota:	
Second Mesa.....	40	Devil's Lake, Turtle Mountain, 3 schools.....	140
California:		Standing Rock, 4 schools.....	130
Big Pine.....	30	Fort Berthold, 4 schools.....	150
Bishop.....	40	Oklahoma:	
Hat Creek.....	30	Kiowa.....	30
Independence.....	30	Whirlwind.....	20
Manchester.....	40	South Dakota:	
Mission, 11 schools.....	319	Cheyenne River, 3 schools.....	67
Potter Valley.....	50	Pine Ridge, 31 schools.....	1 085
Ukiah.....	30	Rosebud, 20 schools.....	631
Upper Lake.....	30	Utah:	
Michigan:		Shebit.....	30
Baraga.....	40	Washington:	
Bay Mills.....	50	Colville, 2 schools.....	80
Minnesota:		Tulalip—	
Birch Cooley.....	36	Lummi.....	40
White Earth—		Swinomish.....	40
Gull Lake.....	30	Neah Bay—	
Montana:		Neah Bay.....	56
Tongue River.....	40	Quillehute.....	60
Nebraska:		Puyallup—	
Santee—		Jamestown.....	30
Ponca.....	34	Port Gamble.....	25
Nevada:		Chehalis.....	40
Walker River.....	34	Quinalt.....	40
New Mexico:		Skokomish.....	40
Pueblo—		Wisconsin:	
Acoma.....	50	Green Bay, Stockbridge.....	50
Cochita.....	30	Oneida, 5 schools.....	140
Isleta.....	50	La Pointe, 10 schools 1.....	502
Jemez.....	40	Total capacity 1.....	5 164
Laguna.....	40	Total number of schools 1.....	142
Pahuate.....	30		
Santa Clara.....	30		
San Felipe.....	30		

TABLE 5 — Location, capacity and date of opening of government reservation boarding schools

LOCATION	Capacity	Date of opening	Remarks
Arizona:			
Colorado river.....	80	Mar. —, 1879	
Keams canyon.....	90	— —, 1887	
Navajo.....	120	Dec. —, 1881	
Pima.....	150	Sept. —, 1881	
San Carlos.....	100	Oct. —, 1880	
White Mountain Apache.....	65	Feb. —, 1894	

1 Including Lac Court d'Oreilles No. 3 day, which was a contract school for seven months during this fiscal year.

TABLE 5—Continued.

LOCATION	Capacity	Date of opening	Remarks
California:			
Fort Yuma.....	250	Apr. —, 1884	
Hoop Valley.....	200	Jan. 21, 1893	
Round Valley.....	70	Aug. 15, 1881 Sept. 12, 1893	Suspended after July, 1883, by burning of building
Idaho:			
Fort Hall.....	150	— —, 1874	
Fort Lapwai.....	250	Sept. —, 1886	
Lemhi.....	40	Sept. —, 1885	
Indian Territory:			
Quapaw.....	90	Sept. —, 1872	
Seneca, Shawnee and Wyandotte.	130	June —, 1872	Begun by Friends as orphan asylum in 1867 under contract with tribe
Kansas:			
Kickapoo.....	30	Oct. —, 1871	
Pottawatomie.....	80	— —, 1873	
Sac and Fox and Iowa.....	40	— —, 1871 Sept. —, 1875	Iowa Sac and Fox
Minnesota:			
Leech Lake.....	50	Nov. —, 1867	
Pine Point.....	100	Mar. —, 1892	Prior to this date a contract school opened in November, 1888
Red Lake.....	50	Nov. —, 1877	
White Earth.....	40	— —, 1871	Building burned in February, 1895
Wild Rice River.....	65	Mar. —, 1892	Prior to this date a contract school opened in November, 1888
Montana:			
Blackfeet.....	125	Jan. —, 1883	
Crow.....	160	Oct. —, 1884	
Fort Belknap.....	110	Aug. —, 1891	
Fort Peck.....	200	Aug. —, 1881	
Nebraska:			
Omaha.....	75	— —, 1881	
Santee.....	80	Apr. —, 1874	
Winnebago.....	100	Oct. —, 1874	
Nevada:			
Pyramid Lake.....	120	Nov. —, 1882	
Western Shoshone.....	50	Feb. 11, 1893	
New Mexico:			
Mescalero.....	100	Apr. —, 1884	
North Carolina:			
Eastern Cherokee.....	160	Jan. 1, 1893	Prior to this date a contract school opened in 1885
North Dakota:			
Fort Berthold ¹	90	Nov. 21, 1894	
Fort Totten.....	350	— —, 1874 Jan. —, 1891	At agency At Fort Totten
Standing Rock, agency.....	120	May —, 1877	
Standing Rock, agricultural.....	100	— —, 1878	
Standing Rock, Grand River.....	80	Nov. 20, 1893	
Oklahoma:			
Absentee Shawnee.....	75	May —, 1872	
Arapaho.....	130	Dec. —, 1872	
Cheyenne.....	200	— —, 1879	
Fort Sill.....	125	Aug. —, 1891	

¹ Building burned March 30, 1898.

TABLE 5—Continued.

LOCATION	Capacity	Date of opening	Remarks
Oklahoma—Continued.			
Kaw.....	60	Dec. —, 1869 Aug. —, 1874	In Kansas In Indian territory
Osage.....	180	Feb. —, 1874	
Oteo.....	75	Oct. —, 1875	In Nebraska
Pawnee.....	125	— —, 1865 — —, 1878	In Nebraska In Indian territory
Ponca.....	100	Jan. —, 1883	
Rainy Mountain.....	50	Sept. —, 1893	
Red Moon.....	75	Feb. —, 1898	
Riverside (Wichita).....	100	Sept. —, 1871	
Sac and Fox.....	120	— —, 1868 Apr. —, 1872	In Kansas In Indian territory
Seger.....	120	Jan. 11, 1893	
Oregon:			
Grande Ronde.....	100	Apr. —, 1874	
Klamath.....	140	Feb. —, 1874	
Siletz.....	80	Oct. —, 1873	
Umatilla.....	100	Jan. —, 1883	
Warm Springs.....	160	Nov. —, 1897	
Yainax.....	100	Nov. —, 1882	
South Dakota:			
Cheyenne River.....	130	Apr. 1, 1893	At new agency. At old agency school for girls opened in 1874 under missionary auspices in government buildings school for boys opened in 1880
Crow Creek, Agency.....	140	— —, 1874	
Crow Creek, Grace Mission.....	50	Feb. 1, 1897	Prior to this date a contract school opened in 1888
Hope (Springfield).....	60	Aug. 1, 1895	Prior to this date a contract school opened in 1882
Lower Brule.....	140	Oct. —, 1881	
Pine Ridge.....	200	Dec. —, 1883	Suspended February 8, 1894, when building was burned. Reopened in new building February 7, 1898
Sisseton.....	130	— —, 1873	
Rosebud.....	200	Sept. —, 1897	
Yankton.....	150	Feb. —, 1882	
Utah:			
Ouray.....	80	Apr. —, 1893	
Uintah.....	90	Jan. —, 1881	
Washington:			
Puyallup.....	200	June —, 1871	
Yakima.....	140	— —, 1860	
Wisconsin:			
Lac du Flambeau.....	160	July 10, 1895	
Menomonee.....	160	— —, 1876	
Oneida.....	120	Mar. 27, 1893	
Wyoming:			
Shoshone.....	200	Apr. —, 1879	
Total.....	8825		

TABLE 6—Location, average attendance, capacity, etc., of non-reservation training schools during fiscal year ended June 30, 1898

LOCATION OF SCHOOL	Date of opening	Number of employees	Rate per annum	Capacity	Enrollment	Average attendance
Carlisle, Pa.....	Nov. 1, 1879	82	\$167	1 800	961	851
Chemawa, Oreg.....	Feb. 25, 1880	57	167	400	354	330
Chilocco, Okla.....	Jan. 15, 1884	66	167	450	331	271
Genoa, Neb.....	Feb. 20, 1884	41	167	350	293	277
Albuquerque, N. Mex.	Aug. —, 1884	84	167	300	312	302
Haskell institue, Kans.	Sept. 1, 1884	67	167	500	553	463
Grand Junction, Colo.	—, 1886	23	167	170	171	158
Santa Fe, N. Mex.....	Oct. —, 1890	60	167	200	260	210
Fort Mojave, Ariz....	Oct. —, 1890	38	167	150	156	151
Carson, Nex.....	Dec. —, 1890	24	167	150	166	144
Pierre, S. Dak.....	Feb. —, 1891	17	167	150	173	146
Phoenix, Ariz.....	Sept. —, 1891	60	167	400	480	418
Fort Lewis, Colo.	Mar. —, 1892	44	300	314	285
Fort Shaw, Mont.	Dec. 27, 1892	40	250	300	280
Perris, Cal.	Jan. 9, 1893	22	167	150	180	171
Flandreau, S. Dak....	Mar. 7, 1893	27	167	200	304	204
Pipestone, Minn.....	Feb. —, 1893	19	167	90	150	102
Mount Pleasant, Mich.	Jan. 3, 1893	26	167	160	186	150
Tomah, Wis.....	Jan. 19, 1893	20	167	125	146	114
Wittenberg, Wis. ¹	Aug. 24, 1895	19	130	133	116
Greenville, Cal. ²	Sept. 25, 1895	6	50	57	35
Morris, Minn. ²	Apr. 3, 1897	15	100	92	79
Clontarf, Minn. ²	Apr. 4, 1897	8	80	42	33
Chamberlain, S. Dak..	Mar. —, 1898	10	167	80	37	36
Fort Bidwell, Cal.....	Apr. 4, 1898	5	150	24	21
Total.....		880	5 885	6 175	5 347

¹ 1,500 with outing system.² Previously a contract school.

TABLE 7—Schools conducted under contract, with number of pupils contracted for, rate per capita, and total amount of contract for fiscal years ending June 30, 1895, and June 30, 1899

NAME AND LOCATION OF SCHOOL	1895			1899		
	Number allowed	Rate	Amount	Number allowed	Rate	Amount
Banning, California.....	100	\$125	\$12 500	52	\$108	\$5 616
Baraga, Michigan.....	45	108	4 860	19	108	2 052
Blackfeet, Montana.....	100	125	12 500	34	108	3 762
Bayfield, Wisconsin.....	30	125	3 750	19	108	2 052
Bernalillo, New Mexico.....	60	125	7 500	34	108	3 672
Colville, Washington.....	65	108	7 020	34	108	3 672
Cœur d'Alene, Idaho.....	70	108	7 560	41	108	4 428
Crow Creek, South Dakota.....	60	108	6 480
Crow, Montana.....	85	108	9 180	34	108	3 672
Devils Lake, North Dakota.....	130	108	14 040	72	108	7 776
Flathead, Montana.....	300	150	45 000	161	108	17 388
Fort Belknap, Montana.....	135	108	14 580	49	108	5 292
Harbor Springs, Michigan.....	95	108	10 260	34	108	3 672
Odanah, Wisconsin, boarding....	50	108	4 400	34	108	3 672
Odanah, Wisconsin, day.....	15	30	450
Lac Court d'Oreilles, Wisconsin, day.....	40	30	1 200
Osage, Okla., St. Louis.....	50	125	6 250
Osage, Okla., St. Johns.....	40	125	5 000
Pine Ridge, South Dakota.....	140	108	15 120	86	108	9 288
Rosebud, South Dakota.....	95	108	10 260	61	108	6 588
San Diego, California.....	95	108	11 875	51	108	5 508
Shoshone, Wyoming.....	65	108	7 020	34	108	3 672
Tongue River, Montana.....	40	108	4 320	26	108	2 808
Tulalip, Washington.....	100	108	10 800	50	108	5 400
White Earth, Minn., St. Benedict.	90	108	9 720	51	108	5 508
White Earth, Minn., Red Lake..	40	108	4 320	27	108	2 916
Pinole, California.....	20	30	600	10	30	300
Hopland, day, California.....	20	30	600	11	30	330
St. Turubius, California.....	30	108	3 240	6	108	648
Green Bay, Wisconsin.....	130	108	14 040	45	108	4 860
Kate Drexel, Oregon.....	60	108	6 000	24	100	2 400
Bay Mills, Michigan.....	20	30	600
Shoshone mission, Wyoming....	20	108	2 160	20	108	2 160
Total.....	2 435	\$274 205	² 1 119	\$119 022
Hampton institute, Virginia ¹ ...	120	167	20 040	120	167	20 040
Lincoln institution, Philadelphia, Pa. ¹	200	167	33 400	200	167	33 400
Grand total.....	2 755	\$327 645	1 439	\$172 462

¹ Specially appropriated for by congress.² Not including the two schools of Osage and two Pottawatomie schools at Sac and Fox agencies, Okla., nor one day school at La Pointe agency, which was converted into a government school during year.

TABLE 8—Amounts set apart for education of Indians in schools under private control for the fiscal years 1890 to 1899, inclusive

	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Roman Catholic	\$356 957	\$363 349	\$394 756	\$375 845	\$389 745	\$359 215	\$308 471	\$198 228	\$156 754	\$116 862
Presbyterian.....	47 650	44 850	44 310	30 090	36 340
Congregational.....	28 459	27 271	29 146	25 736	10 825
Episcopal	24 876	29 910	23 220	4 860	7 020	7 020	2 160
Friends.....	23 383	24 743	24 743	10 020	10 020	10 020
Mennonite.....	4 375	4 375	4 375	3 750	3 750	3 750	3 125
Unitarian	5 400	5 400	5 400	5 400	5 400	5 400
Lutheran, Wittenberg, Wis..	7 560	9 180	16 200	15 120	15 120	15 120
Methodist	9 940	6 700	13 980	600
Mrs. L. H. Daggett.....	6 480
Miss Howard.....	600	1 000	2 000	2 500	3 000	3 000	3 000	3 500
Special appropriation for Lincoln institution.....	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400	33 400
Special appropriation for Hampton institute.....	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040	20 040
Woman's National Indian Association.....	2 040	4 320
Point Iroquois, Mich.....	900	600	600	600
Plum Creek, Leslie, S. Dak..	1 620
John Roberts.....	2 160	2 160	2 160
Total.....	\$562 640	\$570 218	\$611 570	\$533 241	\$537 600	\$463 505	\$370 796	\$257 928	\$212 954	\$172 462