

[Translated from the Latin by A. C. White.]

O Thou who rulest earth and ocean's depths,
Within whose mighty hand and sway lies all
That Science searches for, yet brings forth naught
But yields Thee praise,

Vouchsafe Thy presence on this solemn day
Filled with fair hopes and mournful memories,
A day which coming years shall oft recall,
Momentous, grand.

Give him to whom we now commit the care
Of matters arduous and fraught with fate
Endurance, might, a searching judgment, skill,
In measure full.

Within this place where arts have found their seat,
And all that should uplift our human race,—
Thanks to that strong-souled man who freely gave
Of heart and means,—

So let him long preside that he who reads
In future days the records of the past
Shall say: "He rendered better yet the good
He found at hand;

And on the deep foundations laid before
He, scanning close the years to come,
Aided by those who held the trust in charge,
A structure reared

That stands tower-like, and bears aloft a flame
Splendidly blazing to show forth the true
And good in man's brief life, quenchless and fixed
Till time shall end."

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

What has been the development of higher education in America? What lesson has Cornell University to learn from that development? What has the University to learn from its fundamental law and from its charter? These are the questions thrust upon us by the hour.

It is a bald commonplace to say that we are in a period of educational transition: but the one force of this great fact cannot be understood without looking at the past as well as the present. In the earliest history of the country one of the first interests of the people was the care of all grades of education. The true logical order of development was adopted and preserved. There was present no such folly as the notion that the welfare of the state can be adequately cared for by the simple establishment and support of a good system of common schools. On the contrary the idea was everywhere entertained that it was the business of the state to care for all grades of education from the highest to the lowest. The people set up a ladder along which the poorest boy in the community might climb into the highest institution of learning.

The scheme of public education was contemplated as a whole. We all learned in our childhood that in the early years of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, a law was passed requiring that every hamlet should have its school, and that every village of a hundred families should provide at public expense a school-master able to fit boys for the university. The fact is worthy of the praise it has received. But it is no less worthy of note that five years earlier than this legislation for common schools, a college had been established by vote of the colonial legislature and that for the support of this college a tax had been levied

even in those days of poverty and suffering, equivalent to one half dollar for every inhabitant. In the planning and rearing of an edifice the foundation is not in logical order the first thing to be cared for. We plan the structure; then we determine what the foundation shall be. And so it was with the fathers. It was not until after the terms of admission to Harvard College had been established that the kind and amount of instruction in the lower schools was fixed by law. And this, although the higher preceded the lower in chronological as well as logical sequence, yet the one was always the helper and counterpart of the other. While the lower schools were left to the care of the several localities, the higher were under the fostering support of the state as a whole. And thus all branches of education were made a part of the public concern.

Nor were these early provisions left without adequate support by the same authorities that had called them into existence. The legislature of Massachusetts during the colonial period gave more than a hundred special grants to Harvard College; the Connecticut legislature was the chief benefactor of Yale; Dartmouth was kept alive by the gifts of New Hampshire and Vermont. Higher education was cared for in Virginia, in Maryland, and in the other colonies of the South by similar authority. And finally, when the colonies threw off the foreign yoke, and obtained their freedom, the colleges and universities were not forgotten. The constitution of Massachusetts adopted in 1780 made it the special duty of the legislature to give ample support to institutions of learning, and especially to the university at Cambridge. And the ordinance of 1787 following this long line of illustrious precedents made it the fundamental law of the northwest, that schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged.

Such was the educational spirit of the fathers; and it was under a system thus conceived and developed that the men of the revolutionary age were trained for their great duties.

But with the adoption of the constitution and the modifications that came with the establishment of individual state governments, an important educational change took place; and it was only necessary that there should be a change of method in order to bring about a change of condition. Such a change took place, and in the course of a generation the interests of the higher schools fell into the almost exclusive care of the religious denominations. This is not to be regarded as a usurpation on the part of the churches, but rather as the natural result of that complete separation of church and state that had taken place. The consequence was that before the nineteenth century was far advanced the care of higher education had drifted into the hands of the churches, while the common schools remained the permanent wards of the state.

From this important change two results naturally ensued. The first was an undue multiplication of the higher schools. Every religious denomination had to rely upon its educational institutions for its clergy, and every denomination knew that the success of its educational strength depended largely upon priority of occupation. The consequence was that denominational schools or universities sprang up in all parts of the country. Before the half of our century was gone the map was sprinkled over with schools which rejoiced in high hopes, but which could by no possibility command the means for the establishment

of a high grade of education. Enlisted in these schools were some of the noble men of their time, and it is not necessary to under-estimate or depreciate the nature and character of their work. But no history of education in our country can be complete without recognizing the great fact that a fundamental change of policy in educational matters had now been adopted. In the 17th century there were Congregationalists in Massachusetts and Connecticut, Baptists in Rhode Island, Dutch Reformed in New York, Quakers in Pennsylvania, Roman Catholics in Maryland, and Episcopalians in Virginia; but until more than half a century had passed after the founding of Harvard, no other college or university had come into existence. As the sole occupant of the ground, Harvard had been able to determine the standard of its scholarship and so a high standard was established and maintained that an applicant for admission had to be able not only to read Latin at sight, but to speak it with fluency and accuracy. So high a standard indeed was maintained that a superintendent of education in Massachusetts recently expressed the opinion that in the 17th century with all the poverty of these primitive days, the requirements for admission to Harvard College were not simply relatively but actually higher than they are at the present time. But when the number of colleges came to be multiplied by the score the competition that ensued bore its natural fruit. The standard was depressed and the respect in which higher education had been held was correspondingly diminished.

The second result was akin to the first and yet in some respects was different from it. As the country developed, the people became more and more dissatisfied with the kind of education afforded. This dissatisfaction showed itself in many ways. One of the most noteworthy was in the constantly diminishing number of collegiate students. While there would seem to be every reason why the proportion should increase with the multiplying wealth of the country, it was found that the number was, in fact, rapidly diminishing. The first energies of a new region must of course be turned chiefly to material interests. The forests must be subdued, the prairies must be broken, mines must be opened, railways must be constructed, cities must be built, and a thousand things must be cared for before the sons of the country can be sent to college. But when this preliminary work has been accomplished or well advanced the father naturally begins to think that his boy should devote himself to the greater improving of his mind. But the depressing influences of our educational organization were so powerful that the force of this natural tendency was overcome; and during the first half of the century the natural law was not only thwarted, but was actually reversed. It is a matter of painful interest to note that in all parts of the country, down to the civil war, the proportion of boys going to the colleges and the universities was constantly growing less and less. Statistics carefully prepared in 1878 showed that the proportion was scarcely more than one-half what it had been in the days of the revolution and the colonial period.

Another consequence of the course affairs had taken was seen in the discontent that came to be expressed with the old requirements and methods of education. The schools had remained largely ecclesiastical—at least the education afforded had been confined to the more special interests involved in the education of the clergy. But now the advances of science and

the greater prevalence of free thought in every direction began to question as never before whether the old form and the old methods were the ones best adapted to the new age and the new requirements; and thus we are brought to what may be called the period of experiment.

One of the first to see that the cramped and rigid methods of the old curriculum were not adapted to the present day was Dr. Wayland, the distinguished President of Brown University. This eminent educator made strenuous endeavors to correct the evils as he found them. His thoughts were clear, and his methods perhaps would not now be regarded as incorrect. But he was at once confronted with the great fact that no great reform in education, any more than in religion, can be brought about by a single man or even a single generation. But Dr. Wayland proved to be only a reformer before the reformation.

An effort, in some respects similar, was made at Union College. But here, too, success was not very decided; and it was reserved for a university between the great lakes to make the first decided advance in the way of establishing courses of instruction on a more liberal basis. President Henry P. Tappan went to the University of Michigan in 1852, thinking that he saw the opportunity of accomplishing a great work in the development of new methods of education. With great sagacity and with great familiarity with educational theories and methods, he undertook the work of reducing these vague and chaotic ideas into something like order. And one of the chief merits of his administration was that he succeeded in formulating these groping elements into definite and organic shape. Here for the first time were successfully established courses of study parallel with the old classical course, each running through four years, and each leading to a baccalaureate degree. The solution attempted seemed a natural one, and if we were to judge from the prevalence of its adoption throughout the Middle and Northwestern states, we should be compelled to say it was highly successful. But such a judgment would not be quite accurate. For some reason or other the elements of discontent were not satisfied. The courses leading to different degrees were not equally prosperous. One or another flourished according to the relative strength of teachers, but seemed to have no inherent vitality; and so we find that after some twenty years of experiment in this direction the dissatisfaction was scarcely less than it had been before.

And now if we inquire for the cause of this failure, we shall find that it was in the fact that the new method had compelled the student to choose his course of study at a period of life when his judgment was still immature. The boy was required to say almost from the time he began to prepare for college which course he would enter, and having at that early age once come to a decision, was obliged to follow out that course to the end. If he prepared for the scientific course, he could not enter the classical; nor if he prepared for the classical could he enter the scientific. With developed years his tastes often changed. He sometimes found in the course of his studies, either through the inspiring influence of the great teacher, or through a sudden awakening of latent tastes and powers, that he had altogether mistaken his aptitudes, and that accordingly he must either abandon his course or retrace his steps.

The frequency of such changes, although every effort would seem to have been made to make them difficult or impossible, might be illustrated in a hundred ways.

One of the most respected Greek scholars in the country to-day, began his collegiate course as a scientific student, and scores of scientific chairs are filled with men who began as devotees of the classics, but who, after changing their course, have distanced their scientific classmates.

These constantly recurring facts were enough to show that there was something unnatural in the plan that compelled the boy to decide before he had arrived at the period of considerable intellectual maturity. The prevalent system seemed to adopt the belief that if the boy thought that he would be a stage driver, it educated him in such a way as to make it difficult for him to be anything but a stage driver! With a complete understanding of the true nature of liberty, it called upon him early in his education to exercise his volition for once, and then forever to abdicate his power of choice. It is not strange that a very large number of boys smitten with the love of freedom flocked into the new courses that were opened. But when once they had entered upon the new course they found naturally enough that they had no greater liberties than had their fellows. The consequence was that in the new courses all over the country a surprisingly small number of students held on to the end. Classes of fifty or more in the Freshman year dwindled to half a score or half a dozen before the time of graduation, and even these often found that in the very studies of which they had been making a specialty they were not superior to those who had followed in the old courses until within a year or two of graduation.

Such was the condition of educational affairs twenty years after the changes to which I have alluded. Surely it is not strange that further change was seen to be inevitable. The adoption of parallel courses so far as they were maintained in integrity were now seen to have failed in accomplishing the results that had been sought. Accordingly between 1860 and 1870 there was heard in all parts of the country a call for further reform. The demand was made for the power of choice on the part of the student after his education had advanced so far as to give him maturity of judgment. The call was first responded to at Harvard College in the administration of President Hill; and the principles on which the changes rest were most fully expounded by Mr. Eliot in two articles in the *Atlantic Monthly* in 1869 a short time before his accession to the presidency of that venerable university.

The method by which these new demands were met was the natural one of breaking up the rigid curriculum of the old course and giving the student a large freedom of choice among the studies offered. The theory was that although the boy at the time of beginning to prepare for college does not know, or at least is not likely to know, how his tastes and aptitudes will ultimately shape themselves, he is likely to know at some time before the completion of his college course. It is obvious that if that period can be ascertained, it should be fixed upon as the point at which the right of election should begin. The Harvard authorities said that the boy ought not to be allowed to elect before he has arrived at the proper maturity; but when he reaches that maturity he should be allowed the same liberty of choice in studies that we give him in the choice of other things. In civil life we hold him in pupilage and under restraint until he reaches the years of his majority. We then give him his liberty, simply holding him to accountability in regard to the way in which he uses it. So shall it be in education. So it is, indeed, in all those coun-

tries where the science of education has been studied with most care and has been most fully developed. In Germany, where educational theories and methods have been most successfully studied, and where education, as nowhere else within the last quarter of a century, has shown what it can do for a country and a people, this principle has come to be universally adopted. The pupil is kept to a rigid course of study until the end of his career at the gymnasium, or real school. But when he enters upon his studies at the university his liberty of choice becomes absolute. Thus we see that the prevailing thought at Harvard was in general accord with the best experience of the old world. Practically, then, we were brought for the first time in American educational history to something like the real freedom of a true university system. It was not until after 1870, that really advanced studies in philosophy, in philology, in biology, in physics, in history, or in any of the great realms of modern thought, could possibly be carried on in any of the American universities. The pupil had everywhere either to content himself with a smattering of a vast number of things without very much of any one thing; or he was obliged to seek instructions in a foreign land. Up to this time everybody in college had been taught as much as anybody. But now specialization became possible, and the pupil for the first time was able to gain that advanced instruction which would fit him more perfectly for the active duties of life. And it is for this reason that the administration of President Eliot at Harvard must ever be entitled to the distinction of forming a great epoch in the development of higher education in America.

There was one point, however, at which the method adopted at Harvard was open to somewhat serious question. All its plans rested upon the theory that the student ought in no case to be allowed to elect his studies until he had arrived at substantial maturity of judgment. This was indeed a great truth but it was not quite the whole truth. While it is unquestionably true that unrestrained freedom of choice by immature minds is to be deplored, there is still another truth that must not be overlooked. There are varieties of tastes—call them if you will fundamental differences—that make it impossible to train successfully all of a group of boys to the same standard. These differences are partly matters of sheer ability and partly matters of taste; for if a boy has so great an aversion to a given study, that he can never be brought to apply himself to it with some measure of fondness, he is as sure not to succeed in it as he would be if he were endowed with mental incapacity. Neither Macaulay nor Prescott ever learned the mathematics of their university course, and when I read that rather than learn them either of those distinguished scholars would have abandoned their university career, I do not care to inquire whether the inability was in the intellect, or in the fancy, or even in the will. Another student has a similar aversion or inaptitude—call it what you will—for Greek. The question in regard to him ceases to be whether the study of Greek is the best discipline to which his mind can be subjected. It is a query of altogether another nature. It is nothing more nor less than this: Shall he take Greek or shall he take nothing? This was the alternative which the old college course presented, and it was in answer to it that hundreds of boys the country over said, "If that is the option, then I will take nothing." It was that answer that reduced the proportion of students in our colleges

and led to the establishment of the scientific courses just as 150 years before the same condition led to the establishment of the real-schools of Germany.

Now, looked at from this point of view, the establishment of co-ordinate courses of study is seen after all to have a rational justification. Let us avoid the liability of misunderstanding. The question with an individual student may be whether the classical education is intrinsically better than the scientific education. But such can never be the case with a university. The scholar must ask himself the question whether for him it is better to study to be an engineer or to be a lawyer. But it is not the business of a university to say that either of these professions is higher than the other. It is simply its duty to furnish the best attainable education for both—in short, the argument is identical with that which justifies the existence of technical schools. It is the demand on the part of an intelligent public.

But this demand was not generally heeded by the older colleges. Even Harvard, which has taught so much and learned so much, is at best following *longo intervallo*, for it is only within the last year that she has begun to listen to the inquiry whether after all there may not be some place under her broad roof for those who have not had the precise training of the fathers. She is listening, I said, and that is much; for the French say that whoever listens is about to surrender.

Thus we are brought logically as well as historically to the plan of organization which has been wrought out on similar lines of development in the old world and in the new. This is the lesson brought to us. As the students, under the best system in the old world, have the option of taking either the classical course of the gymnasium or the scientific course of the real-schools and then go to the university, there to have their complete liberty of choice, so at length in America we are coming to have the opportunity for choice, first at the beginning of preparation, then after the period of disciplinary training is past and when the period of technical or professional endeavor is to begin. How are we to apply lessons of this development for our guidance.

The first of the two great conditions that we have pointed out has been amply complied with thus far in the history of Cornell University. The second condition is yet to be developed. If I am right in my interpretation of the history of educational forces and tendencies, it is our duty now to seek for that middle line which separates the period of necessary training from that period of maturity, the development of which is dependent on a more absolute freedom.

And here let it be said that the history of education is coincident with the history of civil freedom. As we hold that in political affairs of everyday life and comfort, that in the affairs there can never be the highest individual development without the existence of that freedom which inspires all the energies of our natures, so in the development of our intellectual growth the highest success can never be attained without something of the freedom which is the necessary condition of that enthusiasm which is always essential to its fullest attainment. It must never be forgotten that the possibilities of the greatest successes always carry with them the possibilities of feebleness and failure. The one is always the counterpart of the other. It is quite possible that there is more of crime and more waste of energy in a land of freedom,

than in a land of oppression. But of far greater importance is the other fact, that there is immeasurably more of devotion to the higher interests of self and of society. Herein indeed lies the chief advantage of freedom. It is not that there is less of crime under its influence or less of waste; for there is certainly the possibility of even more; but it is that there is offered immeasurably more of incentive to the highest order of development. And hence it is that in the history of education the very highest results have never been reached excepting under systems that have given the largest liberties of choice. Hence it is, that, although there has been much of good teaching, there have been until the last generation no schools in America where such scholars could be made as were yearly turned out in great numbers from the universities of the old world.

But through the introduction of elective work a rapid change is now taking place. At three or four of the great educational centres of the country the conditions of the highest success have at length been recognized and introduced. The result is that now for the first time in our history we are making what may be fairly called scholars. It may now be said as it might not have been said even ten years ago, that there are a few educational points in the country where education is carried on in a spirit and with a success which would not suffer from a comparison with what is done in the old world.

If, then, it is certain, as I hold it to be, that the best and highest results are only to be attained through liberty of choice, that is to say, through the recognition and encouragement of elective work, the only question of a practical nature is in regard to the time when such elective work should begin. Ought it to begin at the beginning of the university course, at the beginning of the second year, at the beginning of the third, or at the beginning of the fourth; or ought certain studies to be prescribed throughout the whole of the course, and all the others be elective?

Undoubtedly, if our primary and secondary schools were all that they ought to be, the period of transition would be at the time of passing from the high school to the university. But will any body claim that the high schools are doing all that ought to be done of a disciplinary nature? Are the boys and girls at the time of leaving the high school quite ready for the full freedom of absolute and alternate choice? This I think can hardly be claimed. A fair interpretation of the experience of the old world and the development of the new, would seem to point to the end of the second year as the period when the disciplinary work may safely be brought to an end, and when liberty of choice for development in special directions ought to be begun. All courses after that time except for technical and professional work should be opened to perfect freedom of election.

But there are other questions of importance that confront us. Our development must be directed not only by the experience of the past, but also by the suggestions and requirements of our chartered obligations. We are commissioned to carry out not simply the lessons of experience, not simply even the great purposes of this State in giving us our charter, but also the behests of the federal government which endowed the University with the fund on which its prosperity so largely rests.

As I examine these provisions I find certain clearly defined purposes. The federal law has at once a def-

nitensness and comprehensiveness that are worthy of all admiration. Embodied in that fundamental law is the mandate that "The leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts, in such manner as the legislatures of the states may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life." If we examine these pregnant words and analyze their meaning, we find clearly expressed the following great purposes: First, The leading object of the University shall be to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts. Second, that these studies shall include military tactics. Third, that they shall not exclude other scientific and classical studies. Fourth, that this work shall be done in such a manner as the legislature of the State shall prescribe. Fifth, that the education thus provided, is to be both liberal and practical; and, Sixth, that all is to be done for the purpose of educating the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions of life.

Surely nothing could be broader and more catholic than the noble intent here set forth. While the first article is to provide education relating to agriculture and the mechanic arts, care is taken not to limit the purpose of the act to those objects alone. On the contrary, the law lays upon us its stern commands not to exclude other scientific and classical studies. Nay, further, the legislature is commanded to make its provisions in order that "The kind of education may be liberal as well as practical, and that it may furnish education in the several pursuits and professions in life." We must then furnish education in agriculture and the mechanical arts. We must furnish scientific and classical education. We must furnish education in the various pursuits and professions of life. Such is the mandate of the general government.

Now turning to the charter of the University for the purpose of learning how the State has fulfilled the requirements laid upon it by the terms of the grant, we find the same broad and comprehensive liberality. Not only is the lofty purpose of the federal law reiterated, but also, as if to take away every possibility of doubt as to the comprehensiveness of the plan, it is further stated that such other branches of science and knowledge may be embraced in the plan of instruction and investigation, as the Trustees may deem useful and proper. It is therefore but a fair interpretation of the law to say that after suitable provision has been made for agriculture and the mechanic arts our duty will not have been completed until provision has also been made for liberal studies in science, in letters, in philosophy, in all the various pursuits and professions of life.

Up to the present time the University has very properly laid great stress upon the first requirements of the federal law and its charter. This was clearly an obligation resting upon the University authorities. How well those authorities have fulfilled this trust I need not in this presence declare. No one can visit the farms, and the museums, and the laboratories, and the class-rooms that have been provided for students in these various branches without seeing with what fullness the Trustees have met these requirements. It was not possible in the first years of the life of the University to provide for all the needs of the several departments with an equally liberal hand. But thanks

to the careful investments, and the wise management, and the large liberality of the Trustees, the resources of the University have been greatly amplified; and now the question suggests itself whether the time is not near at hand, now that the industrial departments are so fully equipped, when the other purposes of the organic law of the University may also be more perfectly carried out.

As I look at the possibilities of enlarging the scope and the influence of the University in the near future, I think of many directions in which such advancement is called for. But there are three directions in which I wish very briefly to turn your attention:

The first is to a larger provision for the education of teachers. I shall not weary you with any speculations in regard to the importance of the teacher's profession; nor is it necessary to dwell on the fact that the teacher's vocation is one that is peculiarly open to the industrial classes. But there is a single consideration, of more especial interest to which I would briefly allude. It is the fact that everywhere higher education to be successful must rest on the basis of good secondary schools. It is our duty always to remember, though sometimes the fact is lost sight of, that the gold of the Indies cannot make a great and successful university, unless there are good preparatory schools for the supply of well-trained students. Coupled with this is the further truth that there cannot be well trained pupils without very carefully trained teachers. There is doubtless much poor teaching in our colleges and universities, but there is probably much less of it than in our secondary schools. In the colleges of our land there are hundreds of professors, whose thoroughness and skill, considering the great disadvantages under which they labor, would compare favorably with what one would see in England, in France, or even in Germany. But where in all our broad land are the secondary schools that will do so much for a boy between ten and sixteen years of age as is done in hundreds of the schools in continental Europe?

The remedy for this evil, is in my judgment twofold. The universities must furnish teachers that are not indeed required to teach everything, but are capable of teaching what they teach with greater enthusiasm and thoroughness and success. They must also be men and women trained in the art of giving instruction. And these two general principles afford the key to the remedy. First, we should furnish more ample instruction in those branches that are most in demand in superintendents and principals of the secondary schools. These studies are pre-eminently the mathematics and the classical languages. In all mathematical studies our equipment at this University is ample and strong. But the same cannot be said of our outfit for studies in the classics. It is not enough to say, what may truthfully be said, that the instruction is excellent, and that all is given that is asked for. The great fact remains that students wishing to fit themselves especially for the teacher's profession will seek those colleges where there is the most abundant instruction in those things which they wish to learn. No college or university therefore can ever be very strong with the great profession of teachers unless it is strong in the branches to which those teachers attach the greatest importance. It is only by making the classical department strong that any college or university can have great strength with the intermediate schools.

The other method of strengthening our relations

with the schools is through a professor of the science and art of teaching. Several of the prominent universities in our country have recently appreciated this necessity and have appointed such professors. Beneficial results have everywhere ensued; and it is quite worthy of our thought whether in the near future such an addition to our teaching force is not loudly called for.

The second profession to which I alluded is the great profession of the law. There is perhaps no one of the learned professions that absorbs so much of the talent of the country; certainly there is no one in which there is greater necessity for careful and comprehensive training. When we think how much of our legislation, for good or for bad, how much of the administration of our law, how much of the government of our cities, how much even of the defence of our lives and property is dependent upon this profession, we cannot fail to admit that the better education of lawyers is one of the needs of the day.

This is a necessity, moreover, that is coming to be very generally recognized. As society becomes more mature the relations of its members become more complicated and the legal intricacies of dispute become more difficult. It naturally follows that with these advancing complications there is a corresponding advance in the requirements for admission to the ranks of the legal profession. In a primitive society, like that, for example, of Virginia in the days of Patrick Henry, a study of law for six weeks was deemed a sufficient qualification for admission to the bar; but in the state of New York at the present time, where commercial and social and legal relations have become more highly organized and involved, the terms of admission to practice in the profession are correspondingly exacting. Not only has the time of required study been extended to three years, but the state bar association has also taken pains distinctly to recommend by resolution to all aspirants for honorable place in the profession, that at least a large part of their professional studies be carried on in a school organized for the purpose of giving systematic instruction. Such a course, though at one time regarded somewhat generally as of very doubtful utility is now recommended almost universally by the most enlightened members of the profession. It has been under this advance of public opinion that law schools have multiplied in number, and that some of the best of them have recently been greatly improved.

But the great law school has its peculiar necessities. It must be situated in connection with a great library, must have intimate relations with other branches of learning—in short must have its abode in a great university. Its students must have opportunities for the study of history, and such other branches as are of allied significance. It is not enough, simply that a few lecturers should group themselves together and teach certain technical details of the profession; it is needful, rather, that if the men of our coming generations are to grapple with the great legal questions of the day, they have their intelligence broadened, their judgment developed, and their knowledge amplified. Nothing short of this will answer the demand of the times, and these advantages, cannot well be furnished excepting at the universities.

For such facilities Cornell University offers peculiar advantages. The instruction in history, in political economy, and in the various subjects of political science is already given in considerable abundance.

For the present, our buildings would be ample for the accommodation of very considerable classes, and it is a question which may well be considered whether the time is not near at hand when such a department should be added to those already in the University.

No institution of higher learning can be regarded as complete without a school of medicine; but the requirements of a medical school are more numerous, and cannot be supplied without an expenditure which the University is not at present in a condition to undertake. But there are cognate branches of study which are quite within our sphere. Already a valuable course in science preparatory to the medical profession has been organized and is regularly given.

There is still further opportunity to establish a department cognate to medicine that would be of great use to the people of this State. I

mean a school of pharmacy. A recent law has recognized the importance of such schools by requiring that every practicing apothecary shall have taken a course of instruction. The facilities here for such a course are ample and excellent. Our laboratories, and the number of our teachers invite the immediate consideration of the subject, and I believe it would be found that a very large benefit to an important profession would be the result.

It is only in these ways, and in this spirit, that we can fulfill the noble purpose of him whose name the University bears, as expressed in that declaration which is the motto of the seal which I have accepted, and which is stamped upon every diploma. "I would find an institution where any person can find instruction in any study."

But I must relieve your patience. I cannot, however, close what I have to say without giving expression to the painful sense of solitude with which I assume the duties which have been placed upon me. As I wander about these grounds, as I think how within the past short score of years, this matchless site has been crowned with noble structures, as I contemplate how libraries and museums and laboratories have arisen "as if from an enchanter's magic wand," more in number than have ever before in America, perhaps ever before in the history of education, been built up within the administration of a single executive officer, I am weighed down with the sense of the obligations which all these possibilities and promises suggest. But the spirit which I have everywhere met would seem to be enough to inspire the faintest heart with some feeling of hope, if not almost of confidence and cheer. And so in my hopeful moments I try to forecast the future. I see in imagination these courses of study perfected and extended; I contemplate new departments added and developed; I behold museums and laboratories established and amplified; and, as the crowning glory of all, I behold a great library, arising to fulfill the provisions of a noble and unthwarted purpose. As I picture all these provisions, shedding their influence for good or for evil over the future generations of this State, and as I think of all their possibilities and promises, and see them in imagination crowning these beautiful hills, I reverently pray to God that all fruits of wisdom and benevolence may be vouchsafed to the people of this State and that all our efforts may be sanctified to the building up of noble men and women, and the universal flourishing of all good learning, and of every form of christian civilization.

RECEPTION.

A fitting close for a most delightful day, was the Reception held in the Armory. The music was by the 54th Regt. Band of Rochester. At about eight o'clock the guests began to assemble, and from that time onward until a late hour the floor was thronged with people. The hall was tastily and conveniently arranged. At the east end of the hall a carpet had been laid and upholstery had also been provided making this corner a miniature drawing-room. In the background surrounded by flowers and evergreens was the full length portrait of the founder. The floor was crashed and the walls draped with flags, portraits and other appropriate emblems. President and Mrs. Adams were assisted in receiving by Professor and Mrs. Newbury, Dr. Hitchcock and Mrs. Professor Williams. The time until ten o'clock was taken up in general handshaking and promenading, the band furnishing excellent music. The supper was served in a most creditable style by our popular caterer, Goddard. Soon after ten the dancing commenced and from that time until shortly after midnight the floor was filled with merry dancers and brilliant costumes.

Among those present were Trustees, Hon. H. W. Sage, Mynderse Van Cleef, Hon. Hiram Sibley, Hon. H. B. Lord and Hon. Erastus Brooks. The Faculty were represented by Professor and Mrs. Newberry, Professor and Mrs. Thurston, Professor Wait and wife, Professor and Mrs. Fuertes, Professor Comstock and wife, Professor and Mrs. Crane, Dr. Law and wife, Professor Caldwell and daughter, Professor and Mrs. White, Mr. and Mrs. Griffin, Mr. and