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THE
Administration of Schools
In the Cities of the Dominion
of Canada

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty
of the Graduate School of Arts and
Literature in Candidacy for the Degree
of Doctor of Philosophy

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

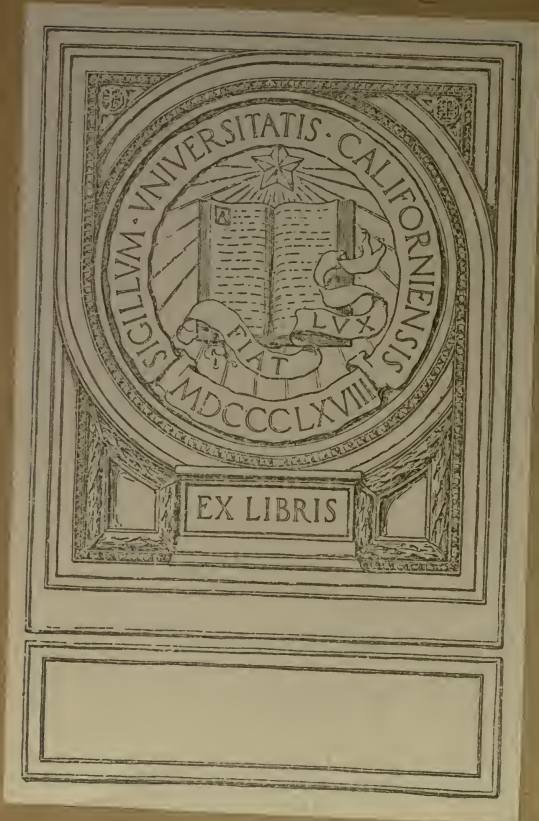
BY

William Leeds Richardson

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Preface

The study reported in this volume was begun in the spring of 1918. The information on which it is based was gleaned entirely from official sources and for assistance in this respect the author wishes at the outset to make due and sincere acknowledgment. To secure data from nine provincial departments of education and from nearly three score city school systems necessitating some personal visiting and an enormous mass of correspondence was in truth, a task of some magnitude. The study could hardly have been carried past the initial stages had it not been for the almost unanimous and cordial support of the provincial ministers and Deputy Ministers of Education. In most of the provinces the "Questionnaire for Information" (for copy see Appendix "E," page 301ff) was distributed to the cities and when completed, returned to the author, with the provincial department of education as intermediary. In other ways, also, provincial officials have been very helpful. In Ontario, the distribution and collection of the Questionnaire was effected by Principal Chas. G. Fraser, Secretary of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association. The list of Canadian city officials who completed the Questionnaire and who furnished other information on request, comprises Appendix "F," pp. 306ff. To all of these, the author is grateful.

Although the study was begun in 1918, many facts recorded refer to conditions as late as the year 1919. However, some of the information while the latest obtainable for the purposes of the study is taken from official reports put forth somewhat prior to the time when the work was commenced. It will thus be seen that the actual basis in fact must inevitably have changed by the beginning of the year 1921, when the reader will have an opportunity to examine the work. For example, much new and important legislation such as the Adolescent Act of the Province of Ontario, has lately been effected, but has not received notice in this study. As another instance of recent progress in educational

administration and not given credit in the following discussions, mention may be made of teachers' salaries in Canada. In almost all of the cities, salary schedules have been vastly improved in the last year or two. But it is literally an impossible feat for the student of educational administration carrying on a private investigation to secure the facts for every matter down to the last day, write these up, secure publication and not find that some of the bases are out of date. As is often said, "The line must be drawn somewhere."

There are, however, many, many other opportunities for further advanced provincial and urban legislation, and while the details of teachers' salary schedules have been changed, the contention that salary schedules are in the main illogical and unscientific in their construction will hold. One might speak similarly of other questions. So the reader is asked to be indulgent in the matter of the recency of the facts used as the basis of argument or recommendation and to apply the test, "Would not such and such a conclusion have been reached almost exactly if the writer had had the facts "down to the minute," so to speak? In many cases, however, the facts of 1921 will not be materially different from those quoted in this study.

Although every effort has been made to be mathematically precise in the statement of the various conditions as they are conceived to exist, the author is not sanguine that all inaccuracies have been removed, and so asks a sympathetic reading and interpretation. Both in manuscript and in type form, the material has been subjected to searching criticism by prominent Canadian and American educators. To Dr. C. H. Judd, Professor of Education and Director of the School of Education, and to Dr. J. F. Bobbitt, Professor of Educational Administration, both of the University of Chicago, the writer owes a special debt of gratitude for much valuable assistance, while the study was in the process of making. Dr. H. O. Rugg, of the Lincoln School of Columbia University, made important suggestions in reference to several chapters. In manuscript form the work was read and constructive suggestions were offered by Dr. A. M. Scott, Superintendent of Schools for Calgary, Alberta, by Mr. Robert Fletcher, Deputy Minister of Education for Manitoba, by Dr. Geo. W. Parmalee,

Secretary to the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the Province of Quebec, by Professor Peter Sandiford of the Faculty of Education of the University of Toronto and by Mr. Geo. W. Locke, Public Librarian, Toronto. The galley proofs were read by Miss Ruby Perkins, B.A., and Mr. Raymond Miller, M.A., graduates of Butler College, Indianapolis. My colleague, Assistant Professor Jordan Cavan, prepared the index to the volume. To all those who assisted in any way, the author is glad to make cordial acknowledgment of sincere gratitude.

W. L. R.

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CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

THE SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION.

The problems of the administration of public education have in recent years attracted much attention and noteworthy progress towards satisfactory solutions has been achieved. This is essentially true in cities everywhere. It is undoubtedly true in Canada, although as in other countries much still remains to be done.

In the cities of Canada, as elsewhere, the instruction of children rests finally in the ability and capacity of individual class-room teachers to impart knowledge and develop skill. In positions of authority over the teachers but having a connection with the pupils, somewhat more remote, are officials, both lay and professional, exercising various functions of supervision, direction, organization, inspection and legislation. The power or influence of some of these is limited to a circumscribed locality, which varies in size from a single school building or part of a building to that of an entire city. Other officials, however, exert an authority extending to the provincial boundaries. All such workers are engaged to a greater or less extent in educational administration; and the procedure which they employ exerts enormous influence on the success of school operation.

FUNDAMENTAL ASSUMPTIONS IN EDUCATION.

As preliminary to the principal discussions of this study, it will be well to set forth explicitly certain fundamental assumptions related to public education. While these assumptions are extremely important, their consideration in detail does not fall within the scope of these pages. It is believed that as enunciated the principles assumed will be universally accepted. Furthermore the mere statement, however brief, will tend to clear the way for the development of certain other principles which have specific relation to our main topics and rest in

fact at the very base of efficient administration. The principles which we consider fundamental and to be assumed are as follows:—

1. The welfare of the state and the happiness and contentment of the individuals of which it is composed are dependent upon the production of the maximum degree of intelligence, of power, of independence and of loyalty in every citizen.

2. In order to develop the intelligence, power, independence, and loyalty of its citizens, the state has established schools, set up the machinery for their government and regularly appropriates the funds for their maintenance.

3. In the administration of the people's schools, the primary consideration is the welfare of the children.

4. The people are justified in demanding loyal service from their school administrative officials and the economical use of school funds.

5. The people of any city are willing to agree to changes in the organization of their school system and to furnish all funds necessary to the adequate maintenance and extension of school facilities, *provided that they are convinced of the value of the proposed changes and the necessity of increased expenditures.*

The statements numbered one, two and three above will be accepted as a matter of course. Number four might pass with little debate except as to definition of terms. Loyal service of any administrator may or may not consist of keeping office hours punctiliously, or fidelity to inspectoral duties, or the constant use of the microscope in the class-room, or the restless hurrying hither and thither from building to building. As to economy, it is a matter of common observation that the expenditure of small sums of money in an unprecedented fashion, often occasions endless discussion, while the disbursement of large amounts in a traditional manner frequently escapes comment. The former may be economical and the latter extravagant. It is the principles underlying these matters, rather than the particular items which require re-examination and evaluation.

The author cannot place too much insistence upon his belief in the truth of assumption number five. But the proviso is important and of this proviso board members and expert educationists are quite generally neglectful. Educators both lay and professional are prone to expect that their decisions will be accepted and money provided by the people without adequate explanations of the new plans. Yet election or appointment to school office was never intended to mean that the official so elected or appointed was thereby given all power to make changes in educational practices without adequate explanation and without opportunity for discussion before the inception of the proposed changes. Nevertheless, deliberate and complete descriptions of what is being attempted in the modern democratic school are so exceptional that when they do appear they excite amazement. It is customary for school trustees to give an account of their stewardship (if at all) and to define new educational policies in one or two extempore ten minute speeches from an election platform. These brief addresses are not infrequently preceded by others on such topics as police, electric lighting, and good pavements and presented to audiences which scarcely represent the school district and often have little real interest in school affairs. City educational officers rarely go before an assembly of parents to explain in a carefully prepared address any one of the scores of new features demanding recognition in the modern school in order that it may meet the changed conditions of modern life. Is it to be wondered at, if the taxpayer vigorously objects to changes in school organization and to increased expenditures, for he knows not what? He is entitled to know and to be made to understand the object and reason for asking these mounting sums.

Therefore, educators interested in bettering the systems in which they work will do well to employ every device to appeal to the eye and the ear and thence the mind and the pocket of those to whom they are in fact responsible. As in all other departments of life, Canada is on the eve of enormous educational changes in the endeavor to meet the demands of a new era. These demands will entail increased expenditures for which funds will be provided if, but only if the citizens have complete confidence in their educational administrators.

To such feelings of assurance school officials may contribute in notable degree by adopting the policy of repeatedly making complete explanations well in advance of the event contemplated. The official who has taken the trouble to carefully prepare forward-looking educational policies may safely take the electorate into his confidence and in return is almost certain of securing their indorsement of all reasonable proposals.

THE PURPOSE AND AIM OF THIS STUDY.

This study brings together statistics and other facts concerning Canadian schools and school officials. Its aim is two-fold.

First, it endeavors to show, through a critical, non-partisan survey of official data, the present status of educational organization, management and administration in the cities of Canada. An attempt is made to analyse and compare the situations disclosed by the facts and to discover the problems involved. In some cases the problem resolves itself into the recognition of the unnecessary duplication of administrative work and the accompanying inefficiency and waste of effort and money. In other cases attention is drawn to important lines of school work which receive inadequate treatment or are virtually neglected. In still others the problem lies in the discovery of an immense variety of administrative procedure working under conditions which are essentially similar.

Questions are then raised as to whether the officials in one city are aware of the diversity of educational administration in other cities, and whether the various administrative devices have ever been evaluated.

In the second place, the study offers recommendations toward the solution of the problems revealed. This has entailed comment on the facts collected. Serious effort has been put forth to make the comment constructive. The recommendations are made in the light of what is considered the best theory and practice of those experts who have established a wide reputation for the soundness of their views. That suggestions and recommendations should follow a study of the data collected is inevitable and it is hoped that thoughtful discussion may ensue. The primary object of the work

is the collation of the facts, the arranging of these in systematic order for further study and the making of the whole accessible to students and administrators in Canadian city school systems. The ultimate object is to make a contribution toward the improvement of the schools of Canada.

A STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURE OF CANADIAN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS IS NEEDED.

That there is need for a careful scrutiny of Canadian educational administrative procedure must become evident upon due consideration. *Trained* educational administrators are in fact few in all countries. This is more readily understood when the comparative brevity of the period during which school administration has been thought worthy of serious attention is borne in mind. Of course all educational officials have had that sort of training which comes from doing the same (with some improvement, it is true) as did their predecessors in office. But college departments of education and professors who have made the study of educational administration their special field are still innovations. It follows that school officers who, as a preparation for their duties, have been trained through intensive, analytic and comparative studies of the administrative procedure now in use at the various educational levels in a number of cities, provinces, states and countries, are likewise not numerous. Educational officials have not worked and studied in academic fashion under the direction of college professors of educational administration. Little exception can be taken to the statement that few administrators of the upper levels of public education have had *specific* training for their tasks. It is indeed a notorious fact that the educational administrator with a comprehensive and varied knowledge of his field is a *rara avis* and he has little opportunity while in service to increase his ability. The following are reasons :

1. *The continued requirement of many petty duties prohibits giving the time and energy necessary for the improvement of administrative technique.* The director of school activities is confronted each day by a multitude of routine details requiring instant decision. It is small wonder that the decisions become more and more tradi-

tional in nature and that the matters which give rise to those decisions are less and less liable to fresh and scientific consideration and treatment. Practical school men of every grade, whether class-room teachers, principals, inspectors or superintendents are loud and unanimous in their protests because the daily pressure of routine details is so insistent that even special professional reading, if done at all, must be relegated to holidays and Sundays, or to the small hours after plans for the morrow have been worked out.

2. *Even under favorable circumstances, the study of managerial practices is difficult.* For example, it might be supposed that the administrator by means of immediate contact and personal inspection could make direct comparisons between the systems of which he is an integral part and systems elsewhere. But to glean any considerable harvest of administrative procedures in the ordinary visit of a few hours or a day is an almost impossible task. The practised teacher with a well defined idea of what he would discover may bring home sheaves of notes and an enlarged enthusiasm as the result of a few hours in the class-rooms of other progressive teachers of his own subjects. Much of the work will have been under direct observation. This, supplemented by subsequent and immediate explanations by the teachers visited, forms a complete unit for consideration, modification, and possible adoption. With the administrator, however, it is not so. Assuredly he can gain knowledge and inspiration from visiting the officials with similar duties in other cities. But in the main, convincing knowledge of administrative procedures results only after long and intensive study, direct or indirect, of the problems involved. The educational administrator, in order to improve his practice must actually live the methods suggested through from start to finish, as indeed the class-room teacher does in a briefer period of time. Actual contact with educational procedures is often not a question of hours, but rather of weeks, months and perhaps years.

Moreover, direct comparison of administrative procedure is difficult to bring about. Business managers, advertising managers, sales managers, insurance agents, labor delegates, political party representatives, meet in

open convention and secret conclave, but invariably at the expense of "the firm." It has not yet, however, become the universal practice of "the firms" to whom educational administrators are responsible to subscribe for "trade" magazines for their employees, not to speak of paying travelling expenses incurred in attending professional meetings or in examining the work done by their conferees in other cities.

Another method of broadening knowledge and ability in school administration, beyond such administrative ability and skill as come from doing the same things over and over again, year after year, is to attend a post graduate school of education. In such a school advanced courses in scientific administration of schools are offered by teachers who from wide practice and exceptional opportunities for study and inquiry have become experts and authorities, with a continental reputation in this field. Of such schools there are not many. Canada has none; Europe has none; the United States, first to recognize the need and their possibilities, but a few. To attend any of these involves time and money and there again we are confronted with the crux of the difficulty.

Not less important than the plight of the practical educators is that of the people's representatives. These are those entrusted with the final determination of school policies—the trustees, board members or school commissioners. Seldom men of leisure, who can devote much time to intensive study of educational affairs, they are compelled to base discussion to no small extent on a fund of common sense. This fund of common sense and broad knowledge of business methods is not infrequently large but that fact can scarcely compensate for the lack of *specific* knowledge of the matters under consideration—the newest and best procedure in the management of schools. So they in like manner are driven to base their decisions in board and council meetings on what was done in the so-called similar circumstances of previous occasions. The custom persists of debating at great length routine matters which should long since have been delegated to the board's expert officials. Vital questions remain untouched or if treated, the resulting policies are defined in terms adequate perhaps two or three decades earlier. In

office, factory and warehouse, the astute business man is made secure by accurate and detailed information of his particular specialty as managed by himself and his competitors, in his own city, his own country and abroad. Also he possesses a wide acquaintance with other specialties only remotely related to his own. He can continually forecast the future. This same business man in school-board meeting, however, has, as a foundation for important decisions, only his own frequently self-confessed meagre past experiences.

3. *Canada has no general educational clearing-house.* The third reason why Canadian educators, professional and representative, may only with difficulty improve their administrative procedure is due to the lack of a federal bureau of education. The meagre fund of common knowledge of the best school management might be enormously increased if there were any central authority for collecting and disseminating information as to the latest and best in school managerial devices. In the United States, the Bureau of Education at Washington with clerks, statisticians and educational experts headed by a professional educator as Commissioner of Education, performs this most important function. Canada, however, has no officer, council or bureau whose specific task is to give advice or information to educators or to prescribe for the youth of the country in any dominion-wide fashion.

The United States Bureau issues many valuable bulletins and a large two-volume report each year. Since 1913, Volume I. of the annual report has been "a comprehensive interpretative review of the more important phases of the progress of education in the United States and all other countries." and Volume II. "a statistical summary of the schools and other educational agencies of the United States."

The bulletins put forth in large issues now number about fifty each year. Beyond question, this fund of information is extremely valuable to all who draw from it although more especially to those for whom it is particularly designed, the educators and administrators of schools of the United States.

This study, therefore, is an acknowledgment of the Canadian school administrator's difficulty, in

securing information concerning approved ways and means of conducting school business in other Canadian cities. It attempts to present in definite form a summary with analysis and comparison of some of the more outstanding features in the management of schools as this has been variously developed in the cities of Canada. Along with the statement of Canadian conditions is offered constructive comment based on theory and practice as observed both in Canadian cities, and those other than Canadian.

SOURCES OF THE MATERIAL.

The material upon which the study is based has been gathered from a variety of sources. The annual reports,¹ rules, regulations and by-laws² of the respective school boards of all cities issuing them have been obtained. Salary schedules were secured wherever available.³ General powers of school boards and officials as determined by the provincial parliaments and departments of education and shown in consolidated "school acts" have been studied.⁴ Where necessary the original acts have been consulted in the volumes detailing the annual proceedings of provincial legislatures. An extremely large body of material was received from school officials of the cities. This came by way of answers to an elaborate questionnaire comprising more than two hundred and fifty questions.⁵

The resulting study treats Canadian city educational administration. The Canadian laws defining "a city" are, however, not uniform. In the province of Quebec, any municipality containing "at least 6,000 souls" may be erected into a city by the Lieutenant Governor in Council. In Manitoba 10,000 inhabitants and in Ontario 15,000 inhabitants comprise the lower limit. In the three eastern provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, and also in the three western provinces of Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, cities are erected by special act of

¹For complete list see Appendix A.

²For complete list see Appendix B.

³For complete list see Appendix C.

⁴For complete list see Appendix D.

⁵For copy of Questionnaire see Appendix E.

incorporation. After correspondence with the Dominion Statistician and Controller of Census and with leading officials of the provincial educational departments, copies of the questionnaire were sent to school officers in sixty-three Canadian cities. The questionnaire was returned with replies by officials of fifty-eight Canadian city school systems.¹ Replies were requested but not received from officials of six other Canadian cities.

In addition to the material just listed, all of which comes from authoritative Canadian sources, free use has been made both for example and for suggestion as to method, of certain other material having its origin in the cities of the United States. This consists of standard text-books on public school administration and also of public documents.² Of the latter the more important are bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education, reports of city superintendents of schools and reports of the officials responsible for the surveys of certain American school systems.

The particular source of the facts tabulated or referred to in the subsequent chapters of this work may be found in each case upon reference to the footnotes.

METHOD EMPLOYED.

In defining the purpose and aim of this study in the first paragraphs of the chapter, the author has not been unmindful of the difficulties of the pioneer worker. These have frequently forced themselves into prominence. While somewhat similar studies have been made of administrative procedure for the city school systems of the United States, there was no model or basic study of Canadian conditions. In so far as it relates to Canada, therefore, the design incorporated in the study is essentially a new creation.

A basic principle in this design has consisted in a constant endeavor to employ methods truly scientific. Consequently the groundwork for the study in its entirety is objective fact. Application and requests have been made to all known sources for the submission of every variety of evidence. Partisan statements and

¹For complete list see Appendix F.

²See Bibliography, pp. 309 and 310.

personal opinion have been accorded no place. Accurate references for each piece of evidence are given so that any desired degree of verification is made easily possible. The objective facts received have been classified, spread out in clear view, carefully studied and summarized. Then impartial judgment and recommendations are based thereon.

LIMITATIONS AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY.

Although this study is based upon the large body of material collected for the purpose, it may be said to be exhaustive only in so far as this material is concerned. To be absolutely exhaustive would have required much detailed information not available. From some cities, certain forms of additional data could not be secured because they do not exist. For example, such documents as annual reports of school officers, rules and regulations and by-laws, for the majority of Canadian cities have never been published. Other pertinent information might have been secured by an additional questionnaire or by further correspondence. While every courtesy has been shown the author in this regard, it was felt that increased demands should not be made upon the patience of school officials at this time.

Another method for the further enlargement of the basis for analysis and comparison would consist of personal interviews with officials, the examination of board minutes over a series of years, and other special study of administrative procedures to be pursued in each city. Although admitting the enormous advantages of this plan, for very obvious reasons, a visit of even two or three days to each of more than sixty cities, extending from Halifax to Victoria, could not be undertaken.

The following chapters, entitled, "The School Board," "The Finances of the Board," "The Officials of the Board,—The Secretary-Treasurer and the Superintendent," "The Teaching Corps," "School Attendance and Medical Inspection," "School Buildings and Grounds" constitute a report of the completed study. Each contains many sub-topics related to the major title. The plan pursued throughout has been to submit appropriate groupings of facts in connection with each topic or sub-topic. These summaries are immediately followed by pertinent comment and whenever the matter seemed to

warrant it, by discussion of a more elaborate nature.

With the exception of the introductory chapter and the final chapter of "Conclusions" each chapter of the study has been summarized in its entirety, the summary in every case being given a position antecedent to the body of the chapter. Each chapter closes with a series of recommendations.

CHAPTER II.

THE SCHOOL BOARD.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER II.

This chapter of our study treats educational administration by the school board in Canadian cities as disclosed by the facts, whether local or provincial. Many topics of school administration related to the major topic of the chapter will be only casually touched upon or entirely omitted. To include them in detail would unduly prolong the discussion. Many of these will be dealt with in due course in subsequent chapters.

1. The term "Administration" as used in this study means the carrying into effect by one body of the laws or the will of another. The discussions in this study of administration refer to the higher levels of provincial and city authority.

2. The British North America Act, 1867, made public education in Canada a matter for regulation by each province and in accordance with this provision the legislatures of the provinces have set up provincial departments of education. These exercise general supervision and direction but have delegated the details of organization and management to the various localities. City public school systems are directly controlled by boards of education appointed or elected to represent the qualified voters of the school district.

3. In some cities there are two school boards, one for public or common schools, the schools of the majority and another for the schools of the Roman Catholic or the Protestant minority. In most cities, both elementary and secondary education are directed by one body, but in a few cases there is in addition to the Public School Board for elementary schools a specially constituted High School Board for secondary education.

4. The local body for school administration may have any one of a variety of titles. The names "Board of School Trustees," "Board of Education" and others stress a notion which no longer represents the principal function of the board.

5. The number of members in a Canadian city school board varies from 5 members to 23 members. The discussion points out

- (a) In Canada, the most frequently chosen size is 5 members.
- (b) Sixty per cent. of city boards number not more than 9 members.
- (c) The area or population of a city bears no consistent relationship to the number of members of the school board.
- (d) In the United States, for cities of population not exceeding 100,000 the general situation is similar to that in Canada.
- (e) For cities of the United States of population greater than 100,000 the practice is increasingly in favor of small boards of not more than 5 or 7 members.

6. In the cities of the maritime provinces, and in Montreal and Quebec all school board members are appointed. In Ontario, the usual method is election, but a few additional members are appointed in certain cities. Elsewhere, and generally in Canada the method is election, 78 per cent. of Canadian school board members securing office by this means.

7. In 10 cities in Ontario and in 4 cities in Manitoba, school board members represent city wards. Elsewhere throughout Canada representation is for the city "at large."

8. Elections are usually annual and not separate from other civic questions.

9. The usual tenure of office in Ontario and the western provinces is two years, but in Quebec and the three maritime provinces tenure ranges from three to six years. American practice is indicated.

10. Halifax is the only Canadian city which makes a salary appropriation for its school board members. A few American city school board members receive compensation.

11. Women may serve as school board members in all the provinces except Nova Scotia and Quebec. In 1916-18, women members totaled 13.2 per cent. of all city school board members.

12. Two Canadian city school boards meet "when necessary," 45 meet monthly, 7 meet semi-monthly, and one meets weekly.

13. Respecting standing committees there is a wide range of practice.

(a) Sixteen city school boards have no standing committees, but 40 other boards have regular standing committees, ranging from 2 to 7 in number and in addition 2 boards have a special committee for each school in their control.

(b) Committees for "management," "property" and "finance" are almost invariably found in Canadian City school boards. Other committees less usual are for "supplies," "special subjects," "health," "audit," etc.

(c) The number of members in a standing committee ranges from 2 to 14. Three members constitute the mode and 4 the median.

(d) The power of the committees ranges from "no power" to "full power." Few boards permit their committees to initiate new business.

14. Quotations are made from typical reports of the standing committees of the Board of Education for Toronto. Comment is offered as to the duties of a standing committee.

15. The quotations are used to lend point to a discussion on the legitimate work of a standing committee. This is said to be:

(a) The collection and preparation of new material to be submitted to the board as a basis for the formulation of new policies.

(b) The securing and examination of reports of officials as to the work which they are doing in accordance with their duties and responsibilities to the board.

16. Discussion as to the powers and duties of city school boards opens with a summary from the manual of school law for British Columbia.

17. With some variations, powers and duties are similar in other provinces,—the provincial departments endeavoring to secure general uniformity within the

province while permitting scope for variation as localities may deem expedient.

18. Study of the Provincial manuals discloses discretionary duties as well as mandatory. The probable tendency is that discretionary duties gradually become mandatory.

19. Trustees are responsible for all duties. With the growth of cities and educational requirements, expert officials are retained to whom are delegated certain specific duties.

20. Board members frequently confuse responsibility with personal performance. This results from traditional usage and is accentuated by the vague and mixed phraseology of the provincial manuals.

21. Existing statements of duties and powers of school boards should be carefully scrutinized and revised so as to remove ambiguity as to duties to be personally performed by board members and those to be delegated to officials.

22. City school board administration is shown to consist of three large functions—executive, legislative and inspectorial. Illustrations are offered for each of these and their importance is indicated.

23. The chapter closes with a series of recommendations.

CHAPTER II.

THE SCHOOL BOARD

ADMINISTRATION DEFINED

It will be expedient early in our study to come to a conclusion as to the meaning of "administration." Just what is comprised within the term when brought into connection with public education? All government in Canada is of the representative responsible type. As in other matters the people issue mandates to their representatives in parliament to provide educational facilities for the people's children. The resulting educational "acts of parliament,"—the legal machinery for the creation of public school boards, compulsory education laws, certification of teachers, rules and regulations as to text-books, as to the purchase of land and erection of school houses, and so forth,—all typify the exercise of that form of authority in which power has been delegated by one body to another. *This exercise of authority on behalf of another, this endeavor to bring into effect the laws or the will of another* is what is meant by the term "administration" as used in this study. The major concern of the study is the administrative functions of the upper levels of Canadian city school systems.

THE ORIGIN OF THE POWER OF A CITY SCHOOL BOARD.

A brief historical reference to the initial stages of Canadian city school systems will be necessary as an introduction to the discussion of present-day organization. The current forms of organization have been derived from the powers granted to the Canadian provinces under the British North America Act, 1867,¹ and since that year from the enactments of the various provincial legislative assemblies. The Act of 1867 is the constitutional act for the Dominion of Canada. It defines in general outline the legislative powers of the provinces to each of which a large measure of autonomy was given. Provincial autonomy made possible considerable variation and this has, in fact, been effected in

¹The British North America Act, 1867, 30 Victoria, chap. 3.

the development of a great variety of all kinds of provincial administration.

Education in the four provinces which originally confederated as the Dominion of Canada and in those provinces which might subsequently enter the union, is briefly but explicitly provided for in section number 93, the educational section of the act. The legislature of each province "may exclusively make laws in relation to education." Hence, education being provided for in the act uniting the provinces, in so far becomes a part of the constitution of each province. The individual character of each province as a unit for educational legislation was retained. Each was given complete powers, which, with a single exception to be mentioned later,¹ permitted the educational structure to be developed in the way the people of each province might determine as best suited to their individual and peculiar needs.

The method is essentially similar in all, the following being a brief account. The provincial legislature enacts educational laws, which in general are presented to the House as Government measures. A basic statute provides for the constitution of a provincial Department of Education to be presided over by a Minister of Education or Superintendent of Education or of Public Instruction. In Quebec the head of the Department of Public Instruction has the title Superintendent, and the educational affairs of this province are under the particular care in Parliament and in the Cabinet of the Secretary of the Province. In other provinces a member of the Legislative Assembly and of the Cabinet or Government of the day with the title Minister of Education, has direct oversight in Parliament of all subsequent measures respecting the conduct of public education within the province. The statutes of the individual provincial legislatures likewise provide for a deputy minister, a superintendent of education, inspectors and other necessary departmental officials and the duties of each are prescribed. The Provincial Departments of Education thus formed, administer the educational legislation which is effected from time to time by the provincial parliaments.

¹Vide infra p. 19.

LOCAL AUTONOMY.

One of the most important duties committed by the legislatures and the departments of education to the qualified voters of each city is the organization and management of the local school system. This is invariably delegated to elected or appointed representatives of the people who are given corporate powers and constitute a board for the direction of public school affairs. Local autonomy, such as does not violate the spirit of provincial law or the more specific departmental rules and regulations, is thus assured. City school boards and their properly appointed officials constitute local administrations for the provincial government and thus administer the general laws and departmental rules and regulations within city bounds. So it appears that in Canada, public education is a function of the State and is directed by the people themselves through their representatives in the provincial legislatures and local school boards. Provincial laws, departmental rules and regulations and the more highly detailed by-laws of local school boards then, are simply expressions of the will of the people as to what shall be done in the matter of education. Such laws, rules and regulations must, in their turn, be administered. The various phases and aspects of the administration of public education which the provincial parliaments have so delegated to the city school boards, form the subject of discussion of the following pages.

SEVERAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN ONE CITY

A. *Boards for "Public" and "Separate" Schools.*

While public education in many Canadian cities is controlled by a single school board, in other cities there are several boards and in effect several school systems within the same city boundaries. Previous to confederation, laws had been enacted in both Upper and Lower Canada having for their object the protection of the rights in educational matters of the Roman Catholic minority in the former province, and of the Protestant minority in the latter. These enactments permitted the

minorities to conduct denominational schools having all the rights and privileges of the "public" or "common" schools, supported by the respective religious majorities. The British North America Act takes cognizance of these earlier laws by including clauses which forbid the provinces entering into the union to take away or affect the rights which had been acquired by earlier statutes.

"No province may legislate prejudicially affecting any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons had by law at the time of the Union—the rights of minorities in respect of separate schools are strictly guarded."¹

The provincial parliaments of Quebec,² Ontario,³ Saskatchewan,⁴ and Alberta,⁵ have included the necessary legislation in their statutes and the larger cities of these provinces have availed themselves of the privileges thus granted. The result is that according as the qualified voters profess adherence to the Protestant or to the Roman Catholic faith, they elect their representatives for educational affairs. Consequently, two school boards are chosen and two school systems result in the same city. Wherever established, such denominational schools are commonly termed "separate" schools, but in the province of Quebec they are known as schools for "Dissidents." Unlike other provinces, the separation in the Province of Quebec commences in the Department of Public Instruction, where, under the Superintendent, are two Secretaries, the French and the English, representing the Roman Catholic and the Protestant interests in education. The two secretaries are deputy ministers. The Department administers the general

¹Riddell, W. R., Justice of Supreme Court of Ontario. "The Constitution of Canada."

²Code Scolaire de la province de Quebec, sec. 2616-2634.

³The Separate Schools Act, 3-4, Geo. V., chap. 71. The Board of Education Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 94, sec. 5 (1) and 2.

⁴The Schools Act, Saskatchewan, 1917, sec. 39-44.

⁵The School Ordinance, Alberta, C.O., Cap. 75, sec. 41-45.

school law of the Province, and also the regulations adopted by the Roman Catholic and Protestant Committees of the Council of Public Instruction. In general, in all cities, the duties and powers of separate school boards, their officials and teaching staffs are the same as those of other schools in the same provinces.

B. The High School Board.

Not only may certain Canadian cities have two school boards—"separate" (Roman Catholic) and "public" (Protestant and all other creeds)—to direct the education of elementary¹ school children, but there may be an additional board to control the high schools. In the cities of Belleville, Saskatoon and Regina, for example, secondary education is directed by a board especially created for that purpose. In some cities of the province of Ontario, as for example, Toronto, with separate elementary schools directed by a separate school board, the public elementary schools along with the high schools (the latter for the children of all citizens) are controlled by another body known as the Board of Education. In addition to the regularly elected members, the Board of Education includes one or two members appointed by the separate school board to represent them in discussions relating to the high schools. These appointed members, however, have no voice in the consideration of public school business.

It is worthy of note then, that in some Canadian cities the direction of all public education, both elementary and secondary, is entrusted to one board. In others, the elementary education is directed by two boards, public and separate, the former also controlling the secondary schools. In a third group, there are public and separate school boards, each having their own elementary and high schools. In a fourth group of cities, there are three boards,—a public (elementary) school board, a separate (elementary) school board, and

¹Elementary—that is, generally including grades I. to VIII., or the instruction planned for the compulsory education period, generally to 14 years of age.

a high school board. The following table, No. 1, includes the facts so far as these have been obtained. It may fairly be questioned which of these plans of controlling the public education of a city is most conducive to efficiency, economy, the maximum development of intelligence in every individual, and true patriotism.

TABLE NO. 1.—NUMBER OF SCHOOL BOARDS IN EACH CITY OF CANADA WITH GENERAL FUNCTIONS OF EACH BOARD.¹

Columns are numbered and have meanings as follows :

- Col. 1. One school board controlling all public education.
- Col. 2. Two school boards : one board controlling public elementary and all high schools ; one board controlling separate elementary schools.
- Col. 3. Two school boards : one board controlling public elementary and public high schools ; one board controlling separate elementary and separate high schools.
- Col. 4. Two school boards : one board controlling public elementary schools ; one board controlling high schools.
- Col. 5. Three school boards : one board controlling public elementary schools ; one board for separate elementary schools ; one board for high schools.
- Col. 6. Three school boards : two boards, one in each of two districts, controlling Roman Catholic elementary schools ; one board covering the same two districts controlling Protestant elementary schools.
- Col. 7. Four school boards : two boards, one in each of two districts controlling Roman Catholic schools ; two boards, covering the same two districts, controlling Protestant schools.

¹ For the information contained in this table, letters were sent to the Mayor of each city. In a few instances the reply was forwarded by some other official. Cities not included in the list made no reply.

TABLE NO. 1—(CONTINUED)

CITIES.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Brandon, Man.	x
Brantford, Ont.	..	x
Calgary, Alta.	x
Edmonton, Alta.	..	x
Fort William, Ont.	..	x
Fredericton, N.B.	x
Guelph, Ont.	..	x
Halifax, N.S.	x
Hamilton, Ont.	..	x
Hull, P.Q.	..	x
Kitchener, Ont.	x
Lachine, P.Q.	x
Lethbridge, Alta.	..	x
London, Ont.	..	x
Medicine Hat, Alta.	..	x
Montreal, P.Q. ¹	..	x
Moose Jaw, Sask.	x
New Westminster, B.C.	x
North Battleford, Sask.	x
Ottawa, Ont.	x
Outremont, P.Q. ²	x	..
Peterborough, Ont.	x
Portage la Prairie, Man.	x
Prince Albert, Sask.	x
Quebec, P.Q.	x
Regina, Sask.	x
St. Hyacinthe, P.Q.	x
Saint John, N.B.	x
St. Thomas, Ont.	..	x
Sarnia, Ont.	..	x
Saskatoon, Sask.	x
Sault Ste. Marie, Ont.	x
Stratford, Ont.	x
Swift Current, Sask.	x
Sydney, N.S.	x
Thetford Mines, P.Q.	..	x
Three Rivers, P.Q.	x
Toronto, Ont.	..	x
Valleyfield, P.Q.	..	x
Vancouver, B.C.	x
Victoria, B.C.	x
Westmount, P.Q.	x
Windsor, Ont.	..	x
Winnipeg, Man.	x
Woodstock, Ont.	..	x

¹ The High Schools are private institutions.² Children of Outremont secure high school education in Montreal.

THE TITLE OF THE LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE BODY.

In Canada, the local body organized for the purpose of controlling and managing schools is known by various names throughout the provinces. In the cities of Quebec, the schools of the religious majority and in Nova Scotian cities, all public schools, are managed by a body called "The Board of School Commissioners." For boards of the religious minority in Quebec cities and also for the boards of all cities of New Brunswick and British Columbia, the official title is "Board of School Trustees." In cities of Ontario the name most frequently chosen is "Board of Education." There are only four exceptions, the title in each case being, "Public School Board." The latter form has also found favor in the cities of Alberta, but the provinces of the Middle West, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, designate their school governing bodies by the title, "Trustees of the School District."

Whether the body to whom is delegated the direct management of the schools is designated "Board of Education," "Board of School Trustees," "Board of School Commissioners," or "Trustees of the School District" may seem to be a matter of small moment and truly other questions will arise of far greater import. There is a feeling, however, that several of the terms used have become misnomers for the directing or managing bodies in many cities with modern ideas as to the correct functions of the board. The primary meaning of the term "public school trustees," for example, is the notion "in trust"—the holding of property in trust for the people by a corporate body empowered to buy and sell land and erect buildings. The expression "board of education" seems to be somewhat more comprehensive, but even this tends to an undue emphasis upon one aspect of the board's work—the personal performance by the board members of certain specific tasks relating to education—which personal performance is no longer compatible with the best interests of the children. It was formerly customary for the members of the board, for example, to pass judgment on the qualifications of applicants for the teaching staff, on subjects to be taught, on methods of discipline and such matters which are now in many cities relegated to the board's professionally trained officials.

These titles for the local bodies of public school administration are clearly an indication of the earlier conception of function, and to-day are harmful in that they tend to perpetuate ideas which do not or should not longer obtain. Professor Ellwood P. Cubberly suggests the term "board of school control" because "it expresses more accurately the real function of a school board in any city where modern conceptions as to its work prevail." This title might be objected to on the ground of possible confusion with the "board of control" of the city council in some Canadian cities. Undoubtedly, it is possible to have a board modern in every respect except in the particular of its official name and this may safely be left over until a better understanding is secured as to the legitimate work of a modern school board. A consideration of the latter will presently occupy our attention.

THE SIZE OF THE BOARD—CANADIAN CITIES.

A more significant diversity in practice appears in the number of members in Canadian school boards. Table No. 2 gives the facts.

TABLE NO. 2.—THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS IN CANADIAN CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.

No. of Members.	No. of Cities.	No. of Members.	No. of Cities
3.....	1	13.....	0
4.....	0	14.....	2
5.....	17	15.....	0
6.....	3	16.....	1
7.....	10	17.....	1
8.....	1	18.....	1
9.....	3	19.....	1
10.....	10	20.....	0
11.....	1	21.....	1
12.....	2	22.....	1
		23.....	1

It might be argued that cities large either in population or in area will require large school boards. The following table gives the facts in this connection for fifteen representative Canadian cities.

TABLE NO. 3.—COMPARISON OF FIFTEEN CANADIAN CITIES AS TO THEIR POPULATION, AREA AND THE SIZE OF THEIR SCHOOL BOARDS.

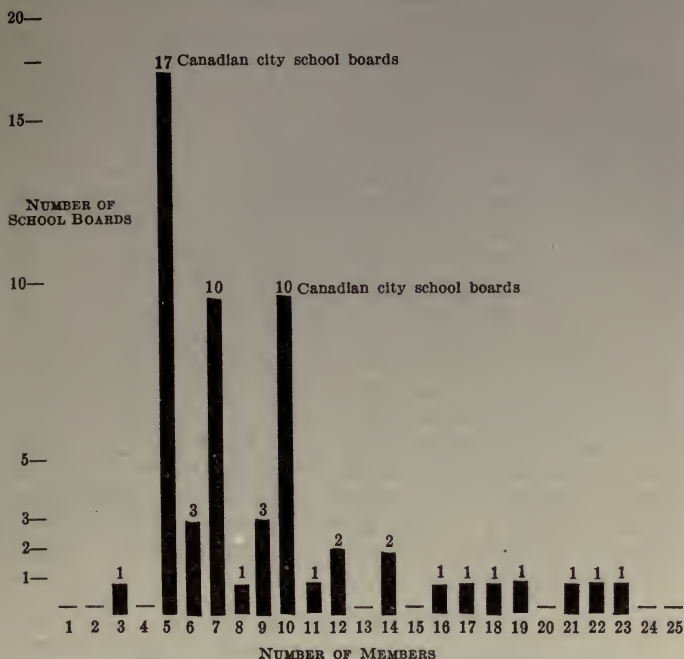
City.	Population, 1917	Area in sq. miles.	No. of members in School Board
Montreal.....	650,000	48	7
Toronto.....	460,526 ¹	32	16
Winnipeg.....	182,848	24	14
Quebec.....	120,000	8.8	9
Hamilton.....	107,832	10	23
Vancouver.....	105,000	22.5	7
Ottawa.....	101,549	9.6	18
Halifax.....	60,000	6.8	12
London.....	57,301	10	14
Edmonton.....	56,760	43.2	7
Calgary.....	56,514	40.5	7
St. John.....	45,000	21	11
Victoria.....	45,000	7.5	7
Regina.....	40,000	13	5
Brantford.....	27,664	4.6	10

In this table it is interesting to note, for example, that Toronto, with smaller population and area than Montreal, has twice as many school board members. Hamilton, with a population about the same as Vancouver, although having only half the area, has a school board three times as large. The table clearly shows that neither the area nor the population of a city have exercised any consistent determining influence on the size of the school board.

A better understanding of the wide range of practice in this feature of city school administration may be obtained from the accompanying diagram. This graph (Diagram No. 1) shows that the "mode" or most frequently chosen size is 5 members, and the median or center of the distribution is 7 members, while 35 of the 57 cities or 61 per cent have boards with 9 or fewer members. Considering whole provinces, it may be remarked that all of the larger boards are to be found in Ontario, while the cities in the provinces of Quebec, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, on the other hand, are almost unanimous in their practice of entrusting the management of school affairs to small school boards of five or seven members each.

¹1916.

DIAGRAM NO. 1.—THE SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS IN FIFTY-SEVEN CITIES OF CANADA.



THE SIZE OF THE BOARD—CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

No Canadian city has at any time had such a large school board as have had some of the American cities. The city of Philadelphia, for example, provides a very extreme case of a large board. By the year 1905 it had gradually increased to a total of 559 members. The school board of Boston numbered 116 members in 1875, in which year an amendment to the law reduced it to 24 members. Further reduction has since been made. Philadelphia now has a board of 15 members and in Boston, school business is controlled by a board of 5 members. Indeed the practice in recent years in American cities has been to delegate school business to comparatively small boards so that now there are only 6 cities in the whole United States with school boards numbering more than 20 members. The following

graph (Diagram No. II.) gives a view on this point for 138 American cities whose population lies between 25,000 and 100,000.

With reference to the graph (Diagram No. II.) for American cities of medium size, it will be noted that 9 members comprise the school board in 39 cities, the largest number for any single size of board thus constituting the mode, while a board of 7 members occupies the median position of the distribution. Either 5, 7, or 9 members comprise the school board in 94 cities, or 64 per cent. of the 138 American cities of medium size. As there are only two cities in Canada which may be said to rank with the large cities of the United States, it is difficult to institute a comparison. However, an examination of American cities with population larger than 100,000 indicates that they exhibit the practice and tendency toward small school boards in a still greater degree than American cities of medium size. Of the 45 cities in this class, New York until recently had a board of 46 members, but in 31 of these larger cities, the school boards do not exceed 9 members, while New York now has 7 members, and 11 other cities including Boston, Rochester, Toledo and Seattle have school boards of 5 members.

COMPARISON AS TO SIZE

If we compare the American cities of medium size (population 25,000 to 100,000) with the Canadian cities, (omitting Montreal and Toronto) we find markedly similar tendencies. This is evident to the eye from the form of the two graphs. The following summary based on the graphs is of assistance in marking the similarity.

TABLE No. 4.—COMPARISON OF THE SIZE OF CITY SCHOOL BOARDS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.

	Number of members in Mode	Number of members in Median	Per Cent of Cities with boards not exceeding nine members.
United States.....	9	7	64
Canada.....	5	7	60

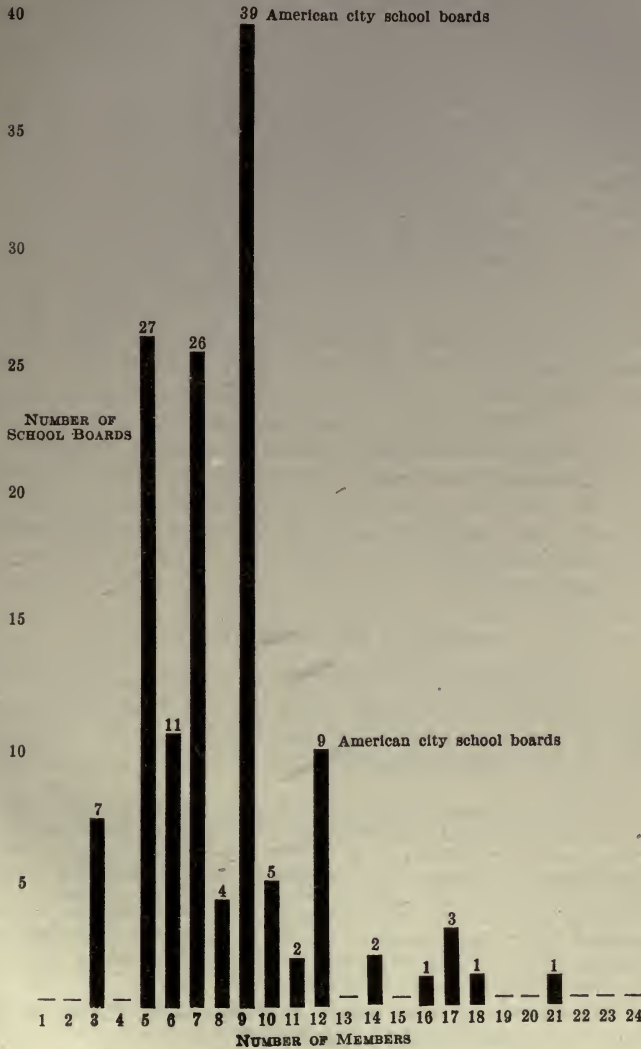
That is to say:

1. The most favored school board in the United States is composed of 9 members, while in Canada it is 5 members.

2. In both countries 7 is the central number of

DIAGRAM NO. II.—SIZE OF SCHOOL BOARDS IN 138 AMERICAN CITIES BETWEEN 25,000 AND 100,000 POPULATION.

(From "Current Practice in City School Administration." U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1917, No. 8, p. 2, by W. S. Deffenbaugh).



members for school boards. Above and below seven there are an equal number of boards.

3. In both countries 3 boards of every 5 have a membership of not more than 9 members.

Later in this chapter it will be urged that the important functions of a school board are legislation and inspection of the results of legislation. If this is valid¹ it should be at once evident that several Canadian city school boards have too many members. The work is similar to that of the board of directors of a national bank, or a large mercantile company. It should not lend itself to set speeches delivered to the visitors' gallery or to the press. Rather there should be that cordial interchange of opinion and advice which comes when a group of serious, business men gather with their books and papers of information around a table. Short speeches and to the point become the custom. More and better business is accomplished. For such work, boards of five and not more than nine members are best adapted.

"The board of education must be composed of a number sufficient to make it a strong, representative, workable body. It should not be so small in numbers that one or two may dominate its action. It shall not be so large as to make it cumbersome and unwieldy. A board of seven members is suggested."²

MEMBERS APPOINTED OR ELECTED

"Appointment" of members to the city school boards is the method used in the three maritime provinces, and also in the cities of Montreal and Quebec. In each case the appointments are made partly by the City Council

¹"The state should establish by law, the confining of the powers of the school board to legislative activities and the oversight of its expert agents."—Sutton, W. S. "The School Board as a Factor in Educational Efficiency," in *Educational Review*, Vol. 49, March, 1915, pp. 258, ff. The Report of the Educational Commission of the City of Chicago, William Rainey Harper, Chairman, recommended "that the function of the Board be chiefly legislative, the executive work being delegated to the superintendent and the business manager." Also see pp. 44 ff.

²Commissioner A. S. Draper in Eighth (1912) Report of the New York State Education Department.

and partly by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. The city councils in both Halifax and Montreal appoint exactly half of the local school board, but in each of the other maritime cities, the council appoints the majority of the board. Election by ballot of the ratepayers is the method of choosing members of school boards in the remaining cities of Quebec and in all cities in Manitoba and the western provinces. Many Ontario cities have an elected board for the "public" or elementary school business, which is increased by one or two appointed members who meet with the elected members but take part in discussion only when high school affairs are under consideration. The additional members are appointed by the local Separate School Board. This plan is followed in Toronto, London, Brantford, Kingston, Windsor, Fort William, Guelph, Chatham, Sarnia, and Woodstock. In the city of Hamilton, Ontario, 16 members are elected, 6 are appointed by the City Council and 1 member is appointed by the Separate School Board. A similar plan of election and appointment determines the school board of 21 members in the city of Belleville.

Upon reduction to percentages it is found that 78 per cent. of Canadian school board members are elected, which almost exactly parallels the condition in the United States where 79 per cent. of the school board members in cities between 25,000 and 100,000 population are elected, the remaining 21 per cent. being appointed. The proportion of appointed boards in the American cities of population more than 100,000 is somewhat higher at 35 per cent. In Canada, Montreal, the largest city, appoints its school board. Toronto, the second Canadian city in population, elects 14 trustees and appoints 2 more.¹ A similar plan is followed in a few other Ontario cities.² As was stated previously, the school boards in the maritime provincial cities are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council and by the City Council.

Considering the merits of the two methods—appointment and election, it is difficult to decide in favor of either the one or the other. Appointment is an effort to prevent the management of the schools from falling

¹See page 21.

²For complete list see Table No. 1, pages 22 and 23.

under any sort of sectarian or political influence. Cities which have adopted this plan cannot be said to have surrendered the direct control of their schools as the appointive authority has received its power originally from the people. The plan is an illustration of the general tendency of many communities to concentrate authority in one body. In the case of the Canadian cities in which school commissioners are appointed, the City Council and Lieutenant-Governor in Council, ordinarily responsible for city or provincial affairs, become responsible also for the conduct of city schools. They delegate their responsibilities, in this regard, to appointed representatives. Canadian public life is replete with so many instances of eminently satisfactory officials *appointed* to perform public services other than educational, that one hesitates to say that the appointment of school trustees would not, in view of the honor involved, attract the highest grade of liberal-minded, cultured business men. On the other hand, much argument would be required to effect a change where the method of choosing the people's representatives for directing schools is that of election. Nor does it appear to be advisable, except in so far as modifications to be pointed out later may seem to be desirable.

MEMBERS "AT LARGE" OR FOR CITY WARDS.

Whether appointed or elected, members of school boards in Canada generally represent the entire city rather than some ward or district. The ward system is in use, however, in the four cities of Manitoba, and in Toronto, Ottawa, Hamilton, Kingston, Guelph, Stratford, Kitchener, Sault Ste. Marie, Belleville, Woodstock, in Ontario—a total of 14 cities in Canada. The argument often advanced in favor of ward representation is that this tends to secure members whose first interest is the local school. This is offset, however, by the disadvantages which arise when ward members play for certain privileges for their constituents instead of considering the welfare of the youth of the city at large. While not always true, there is a remarkable tendency for men of large affairs to refuse to undertake school board work as representatives of a ward. They will accept the responsibilities if representation is for the entire city.

SPECIAL ELECTION FOR SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS.

When election is the method, it is invariably held annually. At the same poll in all of the provinces except Quebec, the ratepayers mark separate ballots for the election of school board members, for the election of city councillors and also for civic questions which may have been submitted to them on referendum. The poll takes place in the month of January in the cities of British Columbia and in most of the Ontario cities; in the month of July for Quebec cities (for school commissioners only) and in the month of December in London and St. Thomas, Ontario, and in all of the cities of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta.

It is a question of some moment, respecting Canadian school board elections, as to whether the plan almost universally adopted (with the exception of the Province of Quebec), of holding these on the day on which the mayor and municipal councillors are elected is beyond argument. Dr. Leonard P. Ayres of the Russell Sage Foundation, says:

“In the excitement of the general election, the welfare of the schools becomes temporarily a matter of minor consideration and school interests become obscured by political interests.”¹

It is surely more economical to elect both city council and school board at the same polls. Is there not a tendency however, for discussion concerning a municipally owned street car system, or the direction of the fire department or the location of an abattoir, overshadowing discussion of all school questions? Would not candidates for school boards, giving an account of their stewardship and explaining their policies in education receive a larger and more attentive, more interested, more critical audience if they came up for election three or four months before or after the municipal elections? Would not the public press be able and willing to devote more space to a discussion of school results, problems and policies if the two elections were separated? Such a course would tend to awaken and develop an enlightened public sentiment and create a demand for a broader knowledge of school conditions.

¹“School Organization and Administration.”—Cleveland Educational Survey, p. 122.

TENURE OF MEMBERS

Regarding tenure, school trustees and commissioners in the cities of the province of Quebec and in the maritime provinces, hold office for periods varying from three to six years, with the single exception of the city of Sydney, N.S., where the tenure is only one year. The school commissioners of St. John, N.B., are appointed for a term of six years, which is the longest Canadian school board tenure. In Hamilton, Kingston, Belleville and Guelph, the appointed members hold office for three years. All other school board members in Ontario, Manitoba and the West—or in 65 per cent. of Canadian cities reporting—are elected for two-year terms. Arrangements have been made in all Canadian cities, with the exception of Sydney, just noted, by which the continuity of the school board is maintained by having only a part retire from office each year.

It may thus be seen that the tenure of school board members in Canadian cities ranges from one year to six years, with the majority of cities favoring a tenure of two years. In the United States,¹ 28 per cent. of the larger cities—population 100,000 and over—give their school board members a tenure of five or six years, and 35 per cent. of the cities of this class give board members a tenure of four years. American cities of population less than 100,000 also favor the longer tenures. Of these, 45 per cent. permit a tenure of from four to seven years, 40 per cent. give board members a tenure of three years. Only 15 per cent. of American cities limit their school board members to a tenure of two years—the tenure permitted to school board members in 65 per cent. of Canadian cities.

A short tenure for school board members gives the citizens a frequent opportunity to reject undesirable candidates. On the other hand, the often recurring election may give expediency an unwarranted sway in arriving at decisions as to important educational policies and tends to induce radical changes which may be either good or bad. There is evidently much to be said both for and against the long tenure. Many public spirited citizens view the possibilities of the long tenure falling to

¹Deffenbaugh, W. S., "Current Practice in City School Administration, pp. 4-6.

an unscrupulous member with genuine alarm. It is said, however, that better men are attracted to school board service when the tenure is long and the turmoil of elections less frequent. The older members of the board can take time to explain their educational ideals to the new members and gradually initiate them into their administrative duties. The board as a whole, where the individual members have a long tenure, is given a continuity of service which makes it possible to plan and carry into complete execution educational policies often requiring a long time to bring to fruition. With a long tenure, school board members can calmly study the problems of administration in their own and other cities. Conferences of officials, the study of advantages and disadvantages and comparison of results would indubitably assist in reaching a decision as to the tenure of office best suited to various Canadian cities.

WOMEN MEMBERS

In Nova Scotia and Quebec women may not serve on the school board. There is no restriction elsewhere. Twenty women were elected to school boards in each of the years 1916 and 1917 and 25 women in the year 1918. Of the 57 Canadian school boards reporting on this question, 36 boards had no women representatives for the years 1916-18. In this period there were 65 women trustees in a total of 493 board members, or 13.2 per cent.

SALARIES FOR SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS.

Halifax, N.S., is the only city in Canada which makes a salary appropriation for its school board. One thousand dollars is annually set apart for this purpose, of which \$200 is paid to the chairman of the board, the balance of \$800 being divided among the remaining 11 members on the basis of the number of meetings attended. Of 176 American city school boards, the members of 25 receive compensation for their services. For some of these, the remuneration is fixed at a stated amount for each meeting attended and for others the amounts vary around \$40 or \$50 per month, while in others an annual salary is paid to each member. San Francisco and Rochester, N.Y. are outstanding examples of the latter

practice. In the former city each school board member receives a salary of \$3,000 a year; in the latter city \$1,200 a year.

FREQUENCY OF MEETINGS

Of a total of 55 cities, two, the Protestant Board of Maisonneuve and the Roman Catholic Board of Three Rivers, meet "when necessary" or "when required." The Roman Catholic Board of Montreal meets weekly. Seven other boards, viz., those of Toronto, Sault Ste. Marie, Regina, Saskatoon, Swift Current, Edmonton, Medicine Hat, meet semi-monthly; the remaining 45 boards meet monthly. It is remarkable that more than sixty per cent. of Canadian school boards in cities of all sizes, including some of the largest, Vancouver, Winnipeg, Hamilton, Ottawa and Montreal (Protestant) manage to transact their business in monthly meetings. Information is not at hand as to the average length of these meetings, or as to whether attendance is generally by the entire board, or as to detailed modes of procedure. Do these boards in fact manage their schools not so well, as well, or better than others requiring semi-monthly or weekly meetings? Do they commit executive and supervisory functions entirely to the officials appointed for those purposes and are themselves thus free to attend to legislation and to an examination of the reports submitted to them by their officials, as to the success of the board's legislative measures? Some of these boards are among those with a large membership. Perhaps they assign much of the board work to committees of the board. When the board consists of fifteen or twenty members, it may easily be divided into two or three committees, each of which will be as large as the entire board in other cities. This raises the question of the committee method of conducting the business of a school board.

STANDING COMMITTEES: NUMBER AND SIZE.

The "standing committees" of boards for the administration of Canadian city school affairs exhibit a great range of diversity and in practically all respects. More than two-thirds of the boards have four or more committees. Some of the Quebec city boards have no

committees. On the other hand, Halifax, Guelph, Sault Ste. Marie, Brandon, Belleville, Kitchener and Windsor have six standing committees. Belleville reports standing committees for Finance, Management, Sites and Buildings, and also a special committee for each school in the city. The following table No. 5, shows the number of committees appointed by school boards.

TABLE NO. 5.—THE NUMBER OF STANDING COMMITTEES IN CANADIAN SCHOOL BOARDS AND THE CITIES IN WHICH THEY ARE APPOINTED.

Number of Standing Committees.	Number of Cities.	Names of Cities.
0	16	viz :—All of Quebec (except Montreal); Prince Albert, Swift Current, North Battleford, Revelstoke.
1	0	
2	3	Montreal, Kitchener, ¹ Victoria.
3	10	Charlottetown, Sydney, St. John, Belleville, ² Kingston, Stratford, Sarnia, Lethbridge, Vancouver, Nelson.
4	16	Fredericton, Ottawa, Peterborough, Hamilton, Chatham, Woodstock, Fort William, Winnipeg, St. Boniface, Portage la Prairie, Regina, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw, Weyburn, Calgary, Edmonton.
5	6	Toronto, London, Brantford, St. Thomas, Medicine Hat, New Westminster.
6	4	Halifax, Guelph, Sault Ste. Marie, Brandon.
7	1	Windsor.

Comparing this with the practice in the cities of the United States, we find very similar conditions. Mr. Deffenbaugh reports that the great majority of the cities of population over 25,000 have from three to eight

¹Kitchener has two standing committees—finance and supply—and a management committee for each school in the city.

²Belleville has three standing committees—finance, management, sites and buildings, and also a special committee for each school in the city.

standing committees.¹ In fifteen American cities of this class, the board has no standing committees while a few have as many as ten or more.

Wherever the work of the board is developed in committees, three committees almost invariably found are "property," "teachers" (each under various names) and "finance." Table No. 6 summarizes the character of the committees as indicated by their names and the vogue of each committee as indicated by the number of boards appointing it for the consideration of special business.

TABLE NO. 6.—NAMES OF STANDING COMMITTEES, THEIR FUNCTION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL BOARDS APPOINTING THEM.

Names of Committees.	No. of Boards.	Principal Function.
School Management.....	29	} 40 Management.
Teachers.....	3	
Teachers and Management.....	1	
Internal Management.....	1	
Education.....	1	
Supervision.....	1	
Administration.....	1	
Appointments.....	1	
Discipline.....	1	
Pupil Transfer.....	1	
Finance.....	36	} 37 Finance.
Finance and Supplies.....	1	
Property.....	12	} 36 Property.
Buildings and Supplies.....	9	
Buildings.....	8	
Sites and Buildings.....	3	
Buildings and Supplies.....	2	
Real Estate and Buildings.....	1	
Grounds, Health and Recreation..	1	
Supplies.....	13	} 20 Supplies.
Furnishing.....	5	
Purchasing.....	2	
Advisory Commercial.....	3	} 12 Special Subjects.
High School.....	2	
Advisory Industrial.....	2	
Advisory Technical.....	1	
Industrial.....	1	
Advisory Industrial, Manual		
Training and Household Science	1	
Manual Training and Domestic		
Science.....	2	

¹Op. Cit., pp. 28-31.

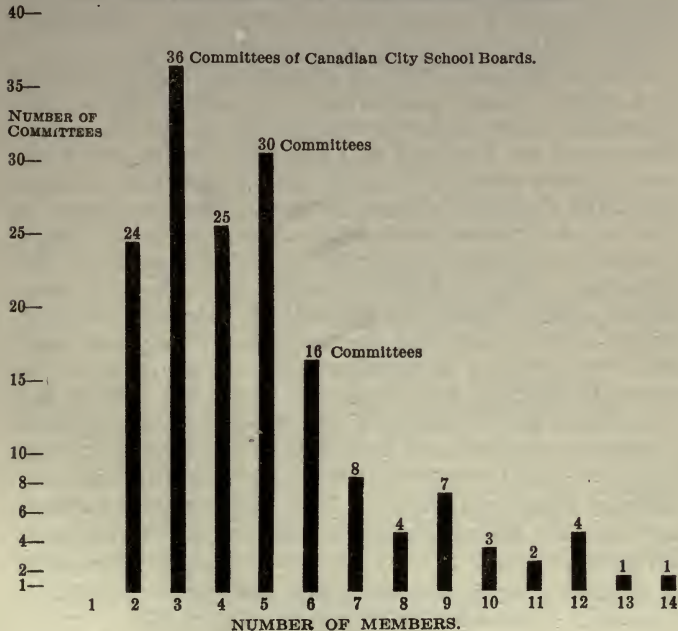
TABLE NO. 6, *Continued.*

Names of Committees.	No. of Boards.	Principal Function.
Medical.....	2	6 Health.
Health.....	2	
Dental and Medical.....	1	
Hygiene.....	1	
Audit.....	2	9 Miscellaneous.
Cadets.....	2	
Legislation.....	2	
Reception.....	1	
Printing.....	1	
Sports.....	1	

From this table, (Table No. 6) we learn that each of the 40 boards having standing committees, has chosen to have a committee to consider the various phases of school management, 37 of the 40 have finance committees and 36 have property committees.

The number of members constituting a standing committee ranges from 2 to 14, as shown in the following frequency graph.

DIAGRAM NO. III.—THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS IN THE STANDING COMMITTEES OF CANADIAN SCHOOL BOARDS.



As may be seen from the graph, a committee of three members constitutes the mode,—the committee most frequently chosen. Four members is the size of the committee occupying the median position of the distribution. Eighty per cent of Canadian school board standing committees are comprised of not more than five members and ninety per cent. of not more than six members.

POWERS OF STANDING COMMITTEES

Of 42 answers received to the question, "Does new business originate with the standing committees?" 15 are affirmative and 10 are negative—in full board only. Five boards report that committees "usually," and 12 say that committees "sometimes" initiate new business. Seven boards permit their standing committees to dispose of small matters when the board is not in session, and 21 boards sometimes authorize their committees to act or sanction action under certain circumstances if the committee immediately reports for confirmation. Fifteen boards, however, do not permit their committees to take final action under any circumstances.

The committee plan of conducting the discussions of a school board undoubtedly has advantages. The committee as a rule has few members; all are interested; discussions are informal and there is time to go to the root of every matter. On the other hand, this method withholds detailed information from some members of the board—information which they frequently ought to have, and places responsibility on the members of the committee. Many boards receive and consider committee reports which are already in printed form and consist of the opinion of the majority of the committee. Other opinions or alternatives are not set forth. The report is said to be considered clause by clause but "consideration" is scarcely the word. It is true that a member may at any time delay adoption by asking questions and proceed to debate, to the manifest impatience of other members. In actual general practice, however, the custom followed consists of the chairman calling out "Clause 1," "Clause 2," "Clause 3" as rapidly as possible, while the members call back "carried," "carried," "carried," or "agreed," "agreed."

REPORTS OF STANDING COMMITTEES

An examination in detail of committee reports from a number of cities would probably reveal the fundamental error. Unfortunately such reports are rarely made available for study. The Board of Education of Toronto is the only Canadian Board which publishes the reports of its committees. The following quotations are taken from the report for January, 1918.

- (A) 1. That the following teachers be granted leave of absence, subject to the regulations of the Board :
- (a) Mr. _____, Assistant Master in Brock Avenue School, a member of the probationary staff, for military service.
 - (b) Mrs. _____, Kindergarten Assistant, in the Duke of Connaught School, for one year, on account of personal illness.
 - (c) Miss _____, teacher in Queen Victoria School, for January and February, on account of personal illness.
 - (d) Miss _____, teacher in Alexander Muir School, for the months of February, March and April, on account of personal illness.
- (B) 2. That Miss _____, teacher in Fern Avenue School, be granted leave of absence for one day to write on an examination in Music, without deduction of salary.
- (C) 3. That authority be granted to open additional classes as follows, and that the Property Committee be requested to provide accommodation where necessary :
- (a) Queen Alexandra School—1 class.
 - (b) Frankland School—1 class.
 - (c) Rosedale School—1 class.
 - (d) McMurrich School—1 class.
 - (e) Palmerston Ave. School—1 class.
 - (f) Grace Street School—1 class.
 - (g) Niagara Street School—1 class.
 - (h) Winchester Street School—1 class.
- (D) 4. That if the accommodation at the schools named below becomes overtaxed on February 1st, the situation be relieved as follows :
- (a) Coleman Avenue School—by transferring a sufficient number of pupils to Gledhill Avenue School.
 - (b) Kew Beach School—by transferring a sufficient number of pupils to Williamson Road School.
 - (c) John Fisher School—by transferring a sufficient number of pupils to Eglinton School until midsummer
 - (d) Howard School—by transferring a sufficient number of pupils to Keele Street School, where there is a double portable at present unoccupied, or by fitting up a room in the building owned by the Board on Boustead Avenue.
- (E) That the date of appointment of _____ be changed from January 1st to September 1st, 1918.

- (F) That the resignation of Miss ———, Stenographer in the Supply Department, be accepted.
- (G) That tenders be advertised for teachers' desks, tables, and chairs, etc., and for pupils' desks, including kindergarten furniture.

COMMENT ON REPORTS.

It would be interesting to know whether this species of routine detail occupies a place on the agenda for directors' meetings of the Bank of Montreal, of the Massey-Harris Company or of the Canadian Pacific Lumber Company or of other similar business corporations. Do well established Canadian mercantile houses have in their employ executive officers who are capable of deciding as to detail comparable with that just cited and if so, do the respective boards of directors permit, even require their executive officers to actually perform such duties? It may be more than suspected that some school officials are so spineless that they shirk all responsibility. Every routine detail must receive committee sanction. This relieves them of any subsequent argument. They can say, "The committee so decreed." On the other hand, some school boards engage experts with professional training, make them officials of the board, place them in executive positions and then continually harass these officials in the performance of their work. The board delegates responsibilities to the official and then declares by its acts that it has no confidence in the judgment of its own officials.

It may be contended respecting the clauses just quoted that in each case the official had in fact exercised his executive function. He was merely reporting action to the board, asking for approval, confirmation, etc., etc., all of which is open to debate. The questions raised are,—What committees of a school board are necessary? How often and how long should committees meet? What is the proper function of each committee?—and the related question, What are the proper functions of the board's officials?

The work of school board members either as a board or in committee is so fundamental to the success of a school system that further comment seems warranted in order to press home the contention that the time of committees is consumed with details which should never

be submitted to them. Let us refer to the clauses quoted above on page 41 and 42 of the discussion for more specific illustration. Consider clause A-1. (a). Assuming that other men have previously been given leave of absence for military service, might not the first of these previous cases similar to A-1. (a), have been placed in legislative form or be considered as a precedent for the case in the clause quoted? Three other clauses, A-1, (b) (c) (d), relate to requests of teachers for leave of absence on account of illness. On a staff of any size such requests will occasionally be made and no doubt have been granted scores of times. Such being true, why make these instances the matter of *special committee report*? Another teacher, B-2, asks leave for one day to take a Music examination. If such permission were ever previously allowed, it would seem to be fair that the superintendent, chief inspector, the head of the system howsoever designated, grant this request on the basis of precedent and the authority which his office implies. If this is the first instance of this nature, the board should develop the necessary legislation impersonally. The proper official could then act executively on the basis of the new legislation with respect to all subsequent similar cases, until the board saw fit to change its legislation.

Cases (C)-3 and (D)-4, represent a different type. In case (C)-3 the property committee is requested to provide accommodation for additional classes. It is impossible for the committee as such to do the actual providing. The matter will at length come to the attention of the superintendent of buildings, through whose workmen the accommodation will be provided. This has happened before and will happen again. Must each instance follow this devious course? Would it not be reasonable for the Board to instruct the building superintendent to take necessary action on the written request of the chief inspector? Instance (D)-4, the transfer of pupils from an overcrowded school, is a matter for *immediate* attention by the chief inspector and the principals of the particular schools. Clauses (E), (F), and (G) seem trivial to be submitted to or considered by a committee of six or eight business men.

Should the time of the committees have been occupied with the consideration of any of the clauses

quoted? Our suggestion is that on the first or second or third appearance of the cases of which the clauses represent the Nth instance, the board should carefully develop the necessary legislation and from that point onward such matters should never again come before the board or its committees in the form of requests for permission to act. They ought to fall within the administrative duties of the Board's officials.

Another reason why a committee of a school board should not consider such matters as are indicated by the clauses quoted, has already been suggested but is worthy of repetition. It will come up for discussion later in connection with the duties of the officials of the board. This reason is suggested by the word "expedite." The very serious impairment of school efficiency on account of the lengthy proceedings of report to officials, committee action and board action in such cases as those typified by quotations (C), (D), (G), should be apparent to any casual observer.

THE LEGITIMATE WORK OF A STANDING COMMITTEE

The reports from which the clauses quoted were taken contain other items to which objection cannot be made. This raises a question as to the legitimate work of a standing committee. It would be a manifest advantage if this duty could be precisely defined. Every official would then know what matters he should bring to the attention of the committee. Also each member of the committee could easily determine whether the items introduced for consideration were in order.

Was the business represented by the quotations from the reports legitimate business for a standing committee? Should the management committee, for example, at its meeting today, refuse Mr. B. leave of absence for military duty, having granted Mr. A.'s similar request at a previous meeting? Presumably Mr. B.'s request will certainly be granted. It is a matter of routine that it come before the committee. But if it is certainly to be granted why take up the time of the committee? Could not the chief inspector dispose of it?

Or consider the last item (G) quoted on page 42. We may assume that certain new buildings are to be

furnished. By regulation of the Board, purchases exceeding \$50 require advertisement for tenders. This is the customary procedure. Yet it appears to be necessary to pass special legislation to enable the Supply Commissioner to go ahead with his ordinary duty. This sort of clause has appeared in similar committee reports to the same board many times. Must this always be the case? Should the board not require its officials to proceed with routine duties without special motions in committee? Should it not legislate so that its officials may act? Could the proper official not be permitted to act in this matter without the special permission of the committee? What fair inference may be drawn if business such as that typified by these two illustrations cannot be trusted to the board's departmental officers?

Speaking negatively then, we have one large body of business which does not properly fall within the province of a standing committee. Such committees should not attempt to perform the work of officials of the board. Neither should they hinder the performance of the work of the board's officials. The latter are experts. They have been engaged, and assigned to duties. Their duties have been carefully detailed and incorporated in the rules and regulations of the board. If there is a clear duty of an official which has not been so treated legislatively, this should be attended to at once. Then such legislation being accomplished, all subsequent cases coming under it should be definitely and permanently relegated to the proper official for action. It is a sufficient safeguard to have all acts of officials reported in writing at stated intervals with accurate reference to the authority for each act.

In general, it may be said that a standing committee exists for the purpose of facilitating the work of the parent body. In doing this, it should exercise two distinct functions. The first of these is of a research character.

1. *A standing committee should gather, arrange and tentatively discuss the facts* necessary to the final performance of the board's functions and this being done *it should report to the board comprehensively both facts and findings.* This provides the basis for amended and new legislation.

It may be remarked that this relates to what is essentially new business,—that for which there is no rule or regulation and no precise precedent. If there are rules and regulations to govern the point or if there are precedents, then officials should be instructed to act in the light of these. Moreover, the actual collection and arranging of the facts may be largely the work of officials or it may have been done by members of the committee or by both officials and members. It may entail correspondence with other cities and the examination of reports of other school boards, or of other associations of people interested in public education. This assumes that the school board is concerned in developing the broader, newer aspects of education and has so organized and instructed its committees that the committees will tentatively prepare the material necessary for the formulation of educational policies. It also assumes that the committee has time for this more difficult type of business because routine matters which may be efficiently and expeditiously disposed of by the board's officials are not brought before the standing committee.

The second type of work which may be properly undertaken by a standing committee is a phase of inspection. The people's representatives must not only legislate in school matters, they must also see that rules, regulations and instructions to officials are made effective.

2. A standing committee should receive and examine reports of officials detailing the work of the officials and the progress of all types of school affairs in accordance with regular authorized duties of officials and any special legislation of the board. The reports of the officials and the comments of the standing committee should be regularly presented to the board for adoption.

This provides the necessary check and safeguard that officials are in fact attentive to duty and actually doing those things which the board has decided should be done, and also that they are not acting without proper authorization. The committee of a few members with informal discussion can examine minutely each item of the reports submitted. On minor matters they can make suggestions to officials or if necessary they may request that definite instructions be issued by the entire board.

These two major functions comprise the legitimate work of a standing committee. The discussion in this respect foreshadows that of the legitimate work of the Board, which will now occupy our attention.

POWERS AND DUTIES OF SCHOOL BOARDS AS SET FORTH IN PROVINCIAL LAWS

BRITISH COLUMBIA PROVIDES A TYPICAL EXAMPLE

An examination of the various provincial Manuals, Codes and Ordinances relating to Canadian schools reveals very explicit detailing of the powers and duties of school boards. These include, according to the manual for the province of British Columbia, the providing of school accommodation and tuition free of charge, the purchase or lease of land and buildings, the erection, enlarging and altering of buildings, the supplying of furniture and equipment, the providing of fuel and light. The school trustees have the custody and safe-keeping of all school property. They must insure the buildings and furniture. They determine the sites of schoolhouses. It is their duty to appoint the number of teachers for whose salaries provision has been made in the estimates. They are to appoint, dismiss, and fix the salaries of other officers or employees. Report has to be made annually to the Municipal Council upon the expenditure of school money. They must also report annually to the provincial Superintendent of Education as to their proceedings and the returns of all schools on forms supplied for the purpose. The Board of Trustees determines the schools which the pupils shall respectively attend. They are empowered to make by-laws relative to the organization and meetings of the board. They must prepare a detailed estimate of the sums of money required for the current year's expenses and cause to be published annually a detailed audited statement of all receipts and expenditures.¹

VARIATIONS IN THE MANUALS OF OTHER PROVINCES.

The powers and duties as summarized above for British Columbia are substantially the same for other

¹Manual of the School Law and School Regulations of the Province of British Columbia, pp. 16, ff.

provinces. There are a few notable differences. For example a city school board in the province of Manitoba¹ may constitute one or more of the public schools to be a model school for the preliminary training of teachers. In this province as well as in some others the trustees are enjoined by the school act to see that the British national flag is hoisted during the school hours of each school day. In the province of Ontario, city "separate" school boards are empowered to appoint a committee for the special charge, oversight and management of each school.² Money may be expended (within limits set) for establishing and maintaining cadet corps and to provide uniforms for classes in military drill and for promoting and encouraging gymnastic and other athletic exercises.³ The board may pay the travelling expenses of any of its members or of any teacher in attending meetings of the Ontario Educational Association or other like associations of teachers in Ontario.⁴ Other powers conferred upon city school boards in Ontario are such as the providing of dental and medical inspection, the supporting of allowances to superannuated teachers, the establishing of free lectures open to the public and the inauguration and maintenance of a Penny Savings Bank or any system introduced for the encouragement of thrift and the habit of saving.⁵

THE AIMS OF PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENTS AS TO THE POWER OF CITY BOARDS

Further examples might be quoted but these are sufficient to indicate that provincial education departments in placing the instruction of the youth of the cities under the general control of local commissioners or trustees have been actuated by two notions. First they evince a desire to give scope for the expression of a great

¹The Public Schools Act, R.S.M.C. 143, sec. 118 (e), (g).

²"The Separate Schools Act," Ontario, 3-4, Geo. V., chap. 71, sec. 45 (g).

³"The Public Schools Act." Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec. 75.

⁴"The Public Schools Act." Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec. 76.

⁵"The Public Schools Act." Ontario, 9 Edw. VII, chap. 89, sec. 73.

variety of local opinion. Second through the fineness of detail, the intention is shown of directing natural development of local boards along lines which will not interfere with the unified system determined upon for the province. The common intention of all education departments is well indicated by the opening paragraph of "General Directions to Trustees" in the Manual for New Brunswick.¹

"The Trustees represent the inhabitants of the District, and are to transact all School business in their stead, and on their behalf. The interests of education cannot thrive in any District unless these officers efficiently discharge their duties."

DUTIES AND POWERS OF TRUSTEES ARE IN SOME INSTANCES MANDATORY.

One is impelled to make several distinct types of comment upon careful scrutiny of these so-called "*powers and duties.*" In the first place let us consider the obligation placed upon the trustees by these clauses. For example, the volume of school law for Ontario² gives twenty-four clauses under the caption, "Duties of Trustees." Are all of these clauses of the nature of a peremptory command? The section is prefixed by the following statement :

"It shall be the duty of the boards of all public schools and they shall have power"

This general statement is followed by the clauses :

"(a) To appoint a secretary

"(b) To fix the time and place of meetings of the board. . . .

"(c) To provide adequate accommodation . . . etc., etc.

It is evident that such matters actually do constitute duties which are not to be neglected and also that the necessary power has been conferred upon the trustees in order that nothing may interfere with the performance of those duties. Clearly the board *must* function respecting the clauses quoted. There is no alternative. The business thus detailed is mandatory.

¹Manual of the School Law and Regulations of New Brunswick, p. 179.

²Op. Cit.

OTHER DUTIES APPEAR TO BE DISCRETIONARY.

Regarding other clauses under the same caption and prefixed by the same general statement quoted above, this is however not the case. For example :

“(c) *In the case of a rural school* to examine the school house”

“(h) *if deemed expedient* to establish kindergartens and classes for industrial training, and instruction in household science, and establish school gardens and summer or vacation schools.”

“(j) To provide and pay for such dental and medical inspection in the absence of Regulations *as the board may deem proper.*”

“(e) *If deemed expedient,* to purchase for the use of the pupils, text books and other school supplies”

“(u) To permit the school-house and premises to be used for any educational or other lawful purpose *which may be deemed proper.*”

Similar examples might be given from other provincial manuals. The italicized phrases¹ of the clauses just quoted—“in the case of a rural school,” “if deemed expedient,” “which may be deemed proper,” remove these clauses from the realm of absolute command. They are regarded as debatable. Time and circumstances are considered as possibly operative. Trustees are accordingly permitted to use discretionary powers respecting certain items of business to which, however, their attention is explicitly drawn. On the other hand, as shown above, boards of trustees are distinctly enjoined to carry into effect certain other matters. Concerning them, minute details may be debated, but in the large these matters are mandatory. It appears therefore that the “Duties of Trustees” as detailed in provincial manuals are frequently of a mixed kind. Some “duties” are of the nature of rather pointed suggestions open for adoption at discretion. Others, however, are in general character peremptory commands.

¹Not italicized in the original.

MANY DISCRETIONARY DUTIES EVENTUALLY BECOME
MANDATORY.

In the second place, an examination of the development during the last century of the duties of Canadian city school trustees might form the basis of interesting historical discussions. In this study of present day practice a brief indication will suffice. It is noteworthy for example, that many administrative features concerning which discretionary powers may now be used will in all probability soon become mandatory. Manual Training and Domestic Science in the upper elementary grades, medical inspection, dental clinics, open-air classes, are examples of innovations rapidly becoming general in city schools and likely to become obligatory in the immediate future. In like manner many of the obligations now found among the "Duties of Trustees" were originally left open to the judgment of the board and only gradually became mandatory. That the prescription of duties of trustees as detailed in provincial manuals is the result of a gradual evolutionary process really requires little proof.

THE ENGAGEMENT OF EXPERTS FOR DUTIES OF SPECIAL
CHARACTER.

Another interesting line for historical discussion would consist in tracing the development of departments of education in all cities. These consist of a number of specialists in building construction, in school administration, school supervision, medical inspection and others. A secretary-treasurer has almost invariably been the first official appointed to devote all his time to work originally performed by some member of the board. Frequently in the early days this officer was also supervisor, or superintendent. Sometimes trustees acted as "visitors" or inspectors. But as the cities grew, the special character of the work of the secretary-treasurer and of supervision became pronounced and separate offices were created. A similar development may be recorded of the building department. In the early days, the total number of school houses in a city was small and the erection of a new structure was a comparatively rare occurrence. To design the proposed new building an architect was specially employed and

frequently erection took place under the personal supervision gratuitously given, of individual trustees. But with the increase in number and size of city schools and of their special architectural features, a superintendent of buildings and trained assistants have been engaged. This is necessary both for efficiency and economy. These are outstanding examples of the impressive fact that the engaging of specialists to direct the work of various departments in the central offices of the board was originally for the express purpose of relieving the trustees of self-imposed duties which they could no longer adequately perform.

VAGUE AND MIXED PHRASEOLOGY IN DEFINING DUTIES.

This brief historical reference serves to introduce another line of comment. An examination of the duties of trustees as detailed in provincial manuals of school law reveals an astonishingly vague phraseology in the definition of these duties. City boards have gradually added special officials. Little distinction, however, has been made between personal responsibility and specific performance as between the trustees and the new officials. This is due to the persistence of the original and traditional ideas respecting the relation of school trustees to the schools. The following typical clauses prescribing duties of board members will serve as an illustration :

"1. To appoint a chairman, a secretary . . . and such other officers and servants as may be required by this ordinance.

"6. To take possession and have the custody and safe keeping of all the property of the district.

"18. To suspend or dismiss any teacher for gross misconduct, neglect of duty

"24. To suspend or expel from school any pupil who upon investigation by the board is found to be guilty of truancy, open opposition to authority, habitual neglect of duty¹"

¹Office Consolidation of the School Ordinance, Alberta, 1913. Sec. 95, p. 28 ff.

TRUSTEES ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR ALL, BUT CAN ACTUALLY PERFORM ONLY PART.

Who is responsible for the work indicated by these clauses and who actually does the work? Should these duties be stated under a single caption, that is, are the clauses entirely analogous with respect to duty, power, responsibility and performance. In actual practice, trustees can execute only clauses 1 and 6. Clauses 18 and 24 are typical of business which must be done by expert officials. These latter clauses presuppose an accurate definition of the duties of pupils and teachers. There is required then, a type of sound official judgment *such as can arise only out of specific training and long experience in the actual performance of such duties.* Such clauses typify business requiring very expert knowledge. School boards with rapidly changing personnel should not undertake such work. For it, they very properly engage specialists who should have their confidence and be given power commensurate with their immediate responsibility for efficient performance. The point of view taken herein is that on such matters all possibility of conflict should be avoided. But conflicts between officials and trustees frequently arise owing to a phraseology in the definition of duties which has neglected to take into account the changed conditions of modern city school administration. The point is partially covered in the Alberta School Ordinance in which the whole section from which the clauses above are quoted has the caption: "DUTIES OF TRUSTEES AND THEIR OFFICERS." This is probably an indication of the belief of the Alberta Department of Education, that many duties for which trustees are primarily responsible must in actual practice be performed by officials to whom the details of the work should be committed. In general such sections in the provincial manuals place all power and responsibility upon the trustees alone.

It must be admitted that the trustees are individually and collectively responsible to the people for the entire management of the local system of schools. But no legislator will seriously contend that the intention of the law in defining duties and powers of trustees is that in addition to being personally responsible, the trustees shall also give specific performance. But this is the

plain reading of the law and in many cases it is the actual practice of the trustees. They originally took over the duties of parents respecting education and were at first in frequent actual contact with teachers and children in the performance of those duties. This personal contact and performance is no longer possible. The Manuals still very properly make the trustees *responsible* for the efficient performance of educational processes but seem to err in retaining the traditional phraseology which indicates that the trustee shall himself *actually do the work*. Hence much time-consuming discussion in board meetings concerning business which should be wholly delegated to the board's expert officials.

FACTS AND NEGATIVE COMMENT TO BE FOLLOWED BY
POSITIVE SUGGESTIONS

To this point our discussion of the duties and powers of school board members has been based entirely on existing facts. It has been shown that there are both similarity and dissimilarity in these duties and powers as prescribed by the various Canadian provinces, that each provincial department of education has permitted scope for a certain amount of variation as local opinion and circumstances might seem to warrant, and that duties and powers as at present set forth in provincial manuals are mixed—discretionary and mandatory with a tendency for the former to pass over into the latter. Moreover, with the development of cities in size and the increased complexity of school facilities, school boards have found it expedient to engage experts. Upon these they have in a general way placed the actual performance of work for which they, the trustees, are still responsible but which they can no longer actually execute. Clear distinction, however, as to responsibility and performance in the prescription of duties and powers of trustees and officials has not been determined with the result that there is frequently a sharp difference of opinion among trustees and their officials and the further result of considerable inefficiency. Much of the comment offered on the foregoing has been negative in character. Positive suggestions will now be made.

CARE IS NEEDED IN REVISING EXISTING STATEMENTS OF
DUTIES AND POWERS.

The first suggestion which may be offered grows out of the discussion in the paragraphs immediately preceding. In the necessary revision and restatement of duties and powers of school board members, the work of trustees should be clearly stated in terms which leave no doubt.

- (1) As to each item for which trustees are responsible, and
- (2) As to those tasks which trustees are themselves to perform.

Similar clear statements should be made of the duties of all officials. If correctly set forth, trustees and officials need not clash in the execution of their respective duties. Trustees should be responsible for all but should actually carry out only those things which they are specifically enjoined to do. They will carefully examine the whole educational field of labors and will unreservedly delegate to officials those tasks which require expert knowledge. If officials fail in the performance of delegated tasks, trustees will not themselves take over the work of the officials. Neither will trustees interfere with the officials in the execution of expert duties. Rather they will recognize that their responsibility consists largely in seeing to it that expert work is assigned to the proper officials and that it is in due course brought to a successful consummation. Their remedy for negligence or inefficiency rests in direct action respecting the official concerned.

THE FUNCTIONS OF A CITY SCHOOL BOARD

THREE PHASES OF ADMINISTRATION.

The administration of schools from the point of view of the school board member, whether elected or appointed, falls naturally into distinct categories. The people have placed upon their representatives the burden of attending to the details of the establishment and support of their schools. This entails the provision of adequate accommodation and equipment and the securing of sufficient properly qualified officials and teachers. The latter, all employees of the board, must be

carefully directed so that their labors, the result of the total effort put forth, will accord both with local desires and also the restrictions and requirements of the higher provincial authority. Such administration of schools consists of three phases. It is executive or it is legislative or it is inspectional. Concerning all this the people expect and their representatives should be glad to give periodical accountings.

THE EXECUTIVE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL BOARD.

Strictly speaking, a school board is working in its executive capacity when it acts or delegates its power to others to act for it, to the end that the purposes for which it was constituted may be brought into effect. Specifically a board is executive when it purchases a building site, erects a new building or enlarges an old one, engages an architect or secures additional teachers, inaugurates Kindergarten instruction or classes in English for foreigners, provides free text books or free dental clinics, institutes open air classes, secures an accurate survey of the educational plant by experts from outside the system or when it acts respecting any other of the scores of duties imposed upon it by parliament acting through the provincial department of education.

One of its most important executive acts is to secure a capable educator who will be the general manager or superintendent for the system. It is scarcely debatable whether in the interests of complete harmony and efficiency this official should not have delegated to him as the board's generalissimo all details of administration including the selection and assignment to duty of all teachers and other officials. This is an important consideration and will receive attention in a subsequent chapter.

THE LEGISLATIVE FUNCTION OF THE BOARD

It has already been pointed out that provincial departments of education in their rules and regulations have permitted considerable scope for local opinion. Some duties of the city board are clearly discretionary. Even mandatory duties, applicable to the province at large, are frequently susceptible to a variety of interpretation as to detail. In giving effect to provincial

requirements, the city board must carefully and deliberately legislate in order to meet local needs as well as to satisfy the higher authority. This legislation when completed results in rules, regulations, by-laws, and instructions to officials and teachers of all ranks.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE NEEDS OF SCHOOL BOARD LEGISLATION.

The following questions for decision will serve to illustrate the attention which a school board must give to its legislative function. The Manitoba Act for example, empowers trustees "to provide if deemed expedient, for children between three and six years of age, a course of instruction and training according to the methods practised in Kindergarten schools"¹ It follows that one duty of trustee boards in the cities of Manitoba is to consider the whole question of Kindergarten instruction. What does such instruction involve? By whom may it be given? What accommodation is required? Shall such accommodation be established in every school building? Or, consider the clause of the School Law of New Brunswick, which says: "The board of trustees shall have power and it shall be its duty to erect, enlarge, alter, repair, improve school buildings and their appurtenances. according to the requirements of the case"² School boards in the cities of New Brunswick in response to this command must consider a multitude of problems which the clause quoted involves; problems of architecture, building material, hygiene, sanitation, heating, lighting, ventilation, and others. They are acting for the people. A taxpayer, in erecting a new dwelling for himself and his family or in improving his residence, studies these and many such related questions with extreme care. His representative on the School Board should do as much.

Again we may cite from the Ontario Public Schools Act a clause in which trustees are given power "to provide and pay for such dental and medical inspection of the pupils as the Regulations may prescribe, or, in

¹R.S.M., 1913, Chap. 58, Sec. 13A (a).

²The Schools Act, N. B., 63 V., chap. 32, sec. 105 (6).

the absence of Regulations as the board may deem proper."¹ The last clause of the same section empowers the trustees, "If deemed expedient, to provide books, stationery and other materials necessary in connection with the establishment and maintenance of a Penny Savings Bank, or any system introduced for the encouragement of thrift and the habit of saving."² Once more it becomes immediately evident that the city boards in Ontario must legislate further in fulfillment of the powers granted or imposed. Shall the medical inspection be carried on by qualified physicians or by properly trained nurses? Shall it look simply to the prevention and spread of contagious diseases or shall it include examination for eye, ear, throat and other physical defects? Shall the parents be urged to act? Shall nurses visit the homes? Shall a free dental clinic be established? Shall such work all or any of it be undertaken in school hours? Does medical inspection of school children fall properly within the duty and care of school authorities? Or in the case of the "Penny Bank" clause should the work involved be "saddled upon the teacher?" How often may children deposit or withdraw from their accounts? In case of default, should the school board agree to be held liable for losses sustained?

A casual reading of Canadian provincial school acts discloses enormous power delegated by the provincial parliaments and departments of education to local city school boards. Practically every clause of such power requires legislation by local school boards.

INDIVIDUAL CASES AND PERMANENT POLICIES

Distinction should be made as between a decision on some question for which there is no precedent and the legislation resulting in the determination of a general policy. The point was commented upon earlier in this chapter when the reports of standing committees were under discussion. In the present connection it may be said that all matters arising in board meeting should be viewed in the large as applying possibly to all teachers, to all schools, to all pupils or to all cases of contagion or sickness as the case might be. If instant and particu-

¹The Public Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec. 73(j)

²Op. Cit. 9 Edw. VII, chap. 89, sec. 73 (X).

lar decision is necessary this should be given as a matter of course. Later, if all pertinent information is not immediately accessible, it should be secured as soon as possible by board members and officials. It may be obtainable locally or correspondence may be necessary with other cities. With all possible information before them, the board may impartially develop the necessary legislation. This done, thrashing out the whole question again when a similar case arises and the giving of "snap" judgments is reduced to a minimum, or becomes absolutely unnecessary. The board and its officials after calm deliberation and after effecting the resulting legislation have determined the appropriate general policy in advance. Action thereafter is automatic and all parties to the point at issue in the future can readily foresee the outcome. Anticipatory legislation in the development of permanent policies invariably lessens the labours of school boards.

THE SCHOOL BOARD'S INSPECTORIAL FUNCTION.

ILLUSTRATIONS FROM SCHOOL FINANCE.

The third large function of school boards is the inspection required to discover whether or not their legislation is being carried into effect. To many it may seem that this function is one which might properly be delegated to the board's officials, and to the board's officials much may and should in fact be so delegated. There will still remain inspectorial duties for the board. These are accomplished largely through the careful periodical examination of the reports of officials. To the questions relating to school finance a somewhat detailed discussion will be offered in a subsequent chapter, but school finance is likewise relevant to a discussion of the duties of board members and provides interesting illustrations with regard to inspection. Specifically, do school trustees know month by month and at the end of the year whether their officials entrusted with the expenditure of public money are actually receiving full value? Do they know whether it costs more per 1,000 cubic feet to heat school building Number One for the month of January than School building Number Two, for the same month? Does it cost more or less to teach 100 first book pupils and pass them into the

second than 100 fourth grade pupils and pass these into grade five? Does it cost more or less to conduct Household Science lessons with 100 Senior Fourth girls for one year in Queen Alexandra School than in Kent School, both in Toronto, or in these schools as compared with Ryerson School, London, or Connaught School, Ottawa? Are there wide differences in the cost of general supplies per 100 pupils per year in the different schools under the direction of a school board?

These questions will suggest a score of others in school finance, concerning which the board have made the initial decisions as to the expenditures, have provided the funds and have instructed their officials to spend the money carefully and wisely and presumably this is in fact the case. But there is frequently only presumption. The school board does not know what the real facts are. They should know. It is a part of their trusteeship to be able to say thus and so about public school funds on the basis of objective fact rather than on mere opinion. This constitutes a division of the inspectorial function of members of a school board, which if neglected is a bounden duty not performed.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF SCHOOL BOARDS AS TO INSPECTION.

Other parts of the inspectorial function of school trustees which may be mentioned are those which have to do with school attendance, with progress through the grades, whether slow, normal or accelerated; and with the results of instruction. It is not the business of the trustees to do the work of the attendance officer, or of the Census bureau, or of the medical health department or of the teachers. But in so far as such work is undertaken under their direction, they are responsible for seeing that it is done. They should ask for the necessary facts and figures, not in terms of "good" and "poor" but so arranged that they may be studied by laymen who, if not expert, are at least intelligent. Professor Bobbitt says: "The community and the board of directors do not have to understand methods of teaching (and other technical matters) in order to inspect the results of the

work and thus see if they are coming up to standard.”¹

The inspectorial function of a school board is enormously important. It is frequently overlooked or considered unnecessary. The simple fact that the board has decided that such and such shall be done is often permitted to end the matter. There is no definite knowledge or record accessible to board members or to the public concerning the extent to which the board's decisions have become effective. Such inspection and the requisite legislation which must often precede it comprise a vast share of the work to perform which board members are elected or appointed. It is freely admitted that school board members are not parsimonious of time and energy. But these should be used to advantage. The business of school boards of fifty years ago should not be the business of school boards of to-day. The officials of the board can often much better than board members execute the old type of school business. Board members themselves, should devote their attention to their executive, legislative and inspectorial functions exacting from their expert officials a full measure of the type of duty which those officials have been specially trained to perform.

CHAPTER II.—RECOMMENDATIONS.

An outstanding feature of this and subsequent chapters is the discovery that for every topic studied there is a great variety of custom or procedure. This characteristic of the administration of public education in Canadian cities will frequently come into view as our study proceeds. With regard to the present topic—the school board,—the following recommendations are made toward securing an improved administration of public education:

1. Education department officials in all the provinces, members of school boards and board officials in all cities should become at least broadly conversant with the variety in composition, methods of appointment and work, and with the other prominent characteristics of all Canadian city school boards.

¹Bobbitt, J. Franklin—“Report of the School Survey of Denver, Colorado.” Part I., p. 84.

2. There should be a scientific evaluation by these officials of every sort of mode of procedure in school administration which they employ, viz,—the composition of school boards, method of appointment of members, tenure of office, frequency of board meetings, powers of committees, and all else related to the work of the city school board in its administration of public education.

3. Conferences of *Canadian* departmental and city school board officials should be arranged. At these meetings the proposed evaluation of administrative modes of procedure would be discussed and compared with a view to setting up the highest possible standards of efficiency. The ultimate aim would be improved administrative method in the direction of the newly developed standards of educational administration.

4. The following topics are suggested for the proposed conferences:

(A) Is efficient and economical administration of public education in a city promoted by having more than one school board? One board for all public education in a city is recommended.

(B) What title for a city school board most aptly designates its principal function? "Board of school control" is recommended.

(C) How many members are required for the most efficient school board? Boards of five, seven or not to exceed nine members are recommended.

(D) What are the advantages and disadvantages of Appointment and Election? Election is recommended.

(E) What are the advantages and disadvantages of representation "by wards" or for the city "at large"? Representation "at large" is the plan recommended.

(F) When should school board elections be held? An election day for school board members distinct from all other voting is recommended.

(G) How long should school board members hold office after election? A tenure of office of three or five years is recommended.

(H) What can be done to shorten the time spent in school board meetings? A proper division of duties as between board members and their expert officials is

recommended. If however school boards undertake the full quota of legislative and inspectorial duties (as is further recommended) it will still be necessary to conduct extensive meetings. But then the time so employed would be more profitable to educational interests.

(I) Should school board members be paid for services rendered? Under improved educational administration as suggested herein, the services of board members will probably continue to be given freely as a patriotic duty.

(J) Re Standing Committees.

What committees are necessary, how many members should comprise a standing committee, what in general should be the functions of a standing committee?

1. It is recommended that Management, Property and Finance be the only standing committees. A properly constituted progressive board served by trained officials could probably dispense with these committees.

2. The committees should never exceed five members.

3. The functions of each committee should be clearly defined.

4. The functions of committees should be, in general,

(a) The collection and preparation of facts and findings to assist in new and progressive legislation by the board.

(b) The securing of proper reports of work done by officials, and the careful examination of these reports in the light of the board's legislation as to duties of officials.

5. It is further recommended that Provincial departments of education carefully scrutinize and revise the statements of their respective manuals of school law as to the powers and duties of school boards.

6. In the process of revision and re-statement of duties and powers of school boards the following considerations should hold.

(a) Reasonable uniformity throughout a province is desirable.

(b) There should be scope for local initiative and variations owing to special circumstances.

(c) Mandatory and discretionary duties and powers should be arranged in two classes.

(d) School board members should be considered responsible for all the activities of the system which they control, but

(e) Clear distinction should be drawn as between duties which school board members must personally perform and those which they must delegate to their expert officials.

(f) It should be illegal for school board members to undertake work of a professional character in connection with the schools, or to hamper officials in the prosecution of their professional labors. The members should develop general policies and delegate the actual carrying out of such policies to their expert officials. If the action of the official is unsatisfactory, the board has its remedy with the official.

7. Since it is true that there is a vast difference between the duties possible to rural boards on the one hand and urban boards on the other and further between the duties possible to boards of small cities and those undertaken by the boards of large cities, it is recommended that provincial departments of education in revising and restating the duties and powers of school boards should constitute the following classes :

(a) Duties and powers of school boards of cities of the first class. (Population 100,000 and over.)

(b) Duties and powers of school boards of cities of the second class (Population 50,000 and less than 100,000).

(c) Duties and powers of school boards of cities of the third class. (Population less than 50,000).

(d) Duties and powers of rural school boards.

8. It is recommended that city school boards carefully examine their rules, regulations and by-laws, and also the methods, usages and customs of their public business with a view to modernization. This will entail

(a) Distinguishing sharply between those items of business which they should themselves personally

execute and those which they have assigned or ought to assign to their expert officials.

(b) The impartial development of all necessary legislation as soon as one or two similar instances shall arise.

(c) Giving a large amount of time to their inspectorial function.

(d) The preparation and periodical publishing of intelligible reports of all types of school business carried on under their direction.

CHAPTER III.

THE FINANCES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER III.

This chapter discusses Canadian School board finance and brings out the following:—

1. Expenditures for education are enormous and are increasing.

(a) The total expenditure for public education in Canada increased 170 per cent. during the decade 1907-1916.

(b) School expenditure in ten typical Canadian cities ranges from 71 per cent. increase to 253 per cent. increase in the years 1911 to 1917 inclusive.

(c) The increase per cent. of school expenditure borne by each member of the population ranges from 35 per cent. to 180 per cent. in these cities for the same period.

Grave administrative problems arise and therefore methods of school finance are worthy of careful study.

2. Canadian cities have three principal sources for school money—taxation, legislative grants, bonds or debentures.

3. A digest is given of Provincial laws relative to school monies raised for current city school expenditures. This is summarized on pages 73 and 74.

4. A digest is given of the various methods of awarding general and special grants from the several provincial treasuries to assist city education. This is summarized on pages 78 and 79.

5. A digest is given of the laws relative to the borrowing powers of city school boards for securing money for extraordinary or capital expenditures. The principal features are given in Table No. 10., page 84.

6. Three minor sources of financial aid are:

(a) Gifts received by a few Canadian city school boards.

(b) School fees. Elementary education, except in the cities of the province of Quebec, and generally for non-resident pupils, is free. Secondary

education is generally free but city school boards, in some provinces, may use their discretion as to fees for High School pupils.

(c) Interest is paid on bank balances at rates varying from 3 per cent. to 8 per cent. to more than half of Canadian city school boards. There seems to be no valid reason why all school boards should not receive interest on funds in the bank.

7. The accounting systems in use by nine Canadian city school boards were devised during the last decade and may be supposed to adequately meet current needs. Three boards claim that their accounting methods are subject to yearly revision and are progressive. The systems in use in some cities were devised more than forty years ago and hence may not be truly modern.

8. Provincial laws are explicit as to "audit" of school accounts. In more than two-thirds of the cities the audit of school accounts is made by municipal auditors and in the remaining cities by professional auditors or by chartered accountants.

9. Annual per capita costs are discussed and a summary is given on page 100.

10. As illustrative of a comprehensive and effective type of discussion of school finances, mention is made of the appropriate chapters in the Survey Reports for the cities of Grand Rapids and St. Louis and comment is offered as to the value of such discussions.

11. Canadian school management would be improved by the development of correct standards, as to financial methods and the promulgation of these with a view to greater comparison and uniformity among Canadian city school boards.

12. The chapter closes with a series of recommendations.

CHAPTER III.

THE FINANCES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD

A GENERAL INCREASE IN EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE

An important consideration in the administration of public schools is that of finance. The expenditure for public education in Canada has increased rapidly from year to year. The following table of amounts spent in each province for the years 1907 and 1916 with the per cent. of increase, shows the degree in general in which educational expenditures have advanced in the decade.

TABLE NO. 7.—THE EXPENDITURE FOR PUBLIC, ELEMENTARY, AND SECONDARY EDUCATION IN CANADA BY PROVINCES FOR THE YEARS 1907 AND 1916—COMPILED FROM CANADA YEAR BOOK, 1916.

Province.	1907	1916	Per cent. increase.
Prince Edward Island...	\$ 170,327	\$ 244,576	43.5
Nova Scotia.....	1,040,805	1,620,154	55.6
New Brunswick.....	769,020 ¹	1,146,883	49.1
Quebec.....	4,670,591	11,463,623 ²	145.4
Ontario.....	7,556,179	18,590,033 ³	146.2
Manitoba.....	2,729,917	6,658,230	143.5
Saskatchewan.....	2,000,675	8,163,897 ²	308.0
Alberta.....	1,793,953	6,121,614	241.2
British Columbia.....	864,771	3,216,350	271.9
	\$21,596,238	\$57,225,360	169.6

An examination of this table shows that the smallest increase was noteworthy, an increase of 43.5 per cent. in the province of Prince Edward Island. The central provinces, however, increased their school expenditure in the decade by over 140 per cent. and the western provinces by still larger amounts. The total sum expended for public elementary and secondary education in Canada rose from twenty-one and one-half millions of dollars in the year 1907 to fifty-seven and one-quarter million dollars in 1916, a total increase for the whole of Canada of almost 170 per cent.

Complete data are not available for all cities, but from the entire number those listed in the table below are representative as to size, location and growth.

¹1908.

²1915.

³Report of Minister of Education, 1915, p. 76.

TABLE NO. 8.—THE POPULATION AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE FOR SCHOOLS FOR THE YEARS 1911 AND 1917 IN TEN TYPICAL CANADIAN CITIES.¹

	Population		Total Educational Expenditures.	
	1911	1917	1911	1917
Calgary.....	43,704	56,514 ²	\$ 232,372	\$ 595,571 ²
Edmonton.....	30,479	56,760	215,862	712,705
Hamilton.....	81,969	107,832	415,197	740,152
London.....	46,300	55,887	122,000	413,000
Montreal (Prot.)....	488,000	664,640	1,618,940	1,899,046
Regina.....	30,000 ³	40,000 ³	83,643	295,138
St. John.....	42,511	45,000	150,560	210,823
Toronto.....	376,538	460,526 ⁴	1,530,157 ⁴	2,764,791 ⁴
Vancouver.....	100,401	102,500	492,649	936,310
Winnipeg.....	136,035	182,848	618,865	1,379,997

Calculations based on the figures in Table No. 8 give the following table showing increases per cent. in population, in school expenditure and in per capita expenditure for school purposes.

TABLE NO. 9.⁵—THE INCREASE PER CENT. FOR THE YEAR 1917 OVER THE YEAR 1911 :

- (1) In population ; (2) in school expenditure ; (3) in expenditures for schools per capita of population in ten typical Canadian cities. Compiled from Table No. 8.

Cities.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent. Increase of
	Increase Population.	Increase School Expenditure.	School Expenditure per Capita of Population.
Calgary.....	29.3	156.2	98.4
Edmonton.....	86.2	230.1	77.2
Hamilton.....	31.4	78.3	35.5
London.....	20.7	238.5	180.5
Montreal (Prot.)...	36.2	17.3	13.6 ⁶
Regina.....	33.3	253.0	165.1
St. John.....	6.6	39.9	32.2
Toronto.....	22.3	80.6	47.4
Vancouver.....	2.1	80.0	86.3
Winnipeg.....	34.6	122.4	65.9

¹Compiled from annual reports and from correspondence.

²1916 instead of 1917.

³Population for 1911 and 1917 estimated by Secretary of School Board.

⁴Population 1916 instead of 1917. Expenditures are for High and Public Schools and exclusive of Technical High School and High School of Commerce—for the maintenance of which was expended in 1917, \$271,620 additional.

⁵These data are not intended to cast reflections on any city for spending too much or too little on public education. Such comparisons could only be made when accompanied by other data, especially by objective facts as to the efficiency of the service received for the expenditure made.

⁶Decrease.

An examination of Tables No. 8 and No 9 shows clearly that the enormous amount spent for education and the rate of increase must raise grave administrative problems for boards of education and for school officials. The various financial methods employed are worthy of serious consideration and study and this comprises the discussion of this chapter.

THE SOURCE OF EDUCATIONAL FUNDS

Canadian cities have three principal sources from which funds are drawn for the conduct of public education.

First—from taxes levied on the assessable property of the school district.

Second—from the respective provincial treasuries by way of general and special grants to assist education.

Third—from the issue of bonds or debentures.

Other less usual sources are from tuition fees and from gifts.

Funds obtained from the first and second sources are regularly applied to current expenditure or ordinary maintenance. The third source is commonly resorted to for extraordinary or capital expenditures. In all of the provinces the financial procedure has been made the subject of careful legislative enactment. There is considerable variety respecting laws regulating school finance among the provinces but within each province the law as enacted is made to apply with few exceptions to all cities alike. A brief summary of the outstanding features of provincial regulations respecting school finance will assist to a clear understanding of financial methods as practiced by different city school boards.

FUNDS FOR ORDINARY MAINTENANCE

I. SCHOOL TAXES—DIGEST OF PROVINCIAL LAWS

In the province of Nova Scotia, city boards of school commissioners furnish their respective city councils with a detailed estimate of all sums required for the current expenses of the year. The statement includes interest

on debentures and on indebtedness incurred for the erection of school buildings or purchase of school lands, but does not include intended capital expenditures for repairs or improvements of any extraordinary nature such as the construction of new buildings or purchase of land. "The (city) council shall provide for the amount so estimated in the making of the annual rate and the (city) council shall pay over such amount to the board on the warrant of the chairman."¹ If the council should refuse or neglect to make this provision as estimated for current expenses by the board, money may be borrowed from the bank or obtained by the issue of debentures not to exceed a term of five years. The liquidation of the debt must then be provided for by the city council.¹

Funds for ordinary current expenditure are levied and collected in like manner by the city councils in the province of New Brunswick.² The board of school trustees must submit a statement of its estimated expenditure for the year to the council, and "request the council to cause such amount forthwith to be assessed and levied." In the case of the city of St. John this sum must not exceed \$200,000 per annum and for Fredericton \$40,000, exclusive, however, of amounts for the payment of interest and sinking funds on debentures and for repairs and furnishings. Money for the permanent repairs and furnishing of school buildings may be raised by the city council by assessment or by the issuing of debentures as they may determine. A sum equal to one-twelfth of the total sum thus finally agreed upon by the city council to be raised as a tax must be paid monthly by the city chamberlain (city treasurer) to the board of school trustees.³

The funds necessary for fixed or current expenditure for schools in Prince Edward Island⁴ are provided by district assessment. It is worthy of mention, however that grants paid from the Provincial treasury toward the salaries of teachers,⁵ grants which are relatively large

¹Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1900, chap. 71, secs. 157, 160.

²"The Schools Act," New Brunswick, 63 Vic., chap. 32, sec. 105 (7), (8).

³"The Schools Act," New Brunswick, 63 Vic., chap. 32, sec. 105, (7), (13).

⁴The Public Schools Act, 1877, and amendments to 1911—Prince Edward Island, sec. VIII.

⁵Vide p. 75, *infra*.

in Prince Edward Island compared with other provinces, reduce the amount to be raised by local taxation.

School commissioners or trustees in the cities of the Province of Quebec (except Montreal) secure the funds necessary for the ordinary support of schools by means of taxes which they are to "cause to be levied and collected,"¹ In the City of Montreal however, the rate of annual taxation is fixed from time to time by the Provincial Legislature. The taxes in Montreal and Quebec are not collected by the Secretary Treasurers of the school boards, but by the City Treasurer and divided between the boards according to law. If a taxpayer in a city in which both faiths have schools has children between the ages of five and sixteen, who are not of his religious faith, his taxes must be allotted to the two corporations in proportion to the number of his children of each religious faith.

The Provincial school law for Ontario, enacts that the school board of a city must apply to the city council for all monies required for school purposes. Money for ordinary current expenditures in urban municipalities is usually raised by a levy on the taxable property of the public school supporters. The amount of such levy is estimated by the school board, but the city council strikes the rate, collects the money from the taxpayers and "pays the same to the treasurer of the Board from time to time as may be required by the board."²

In the city school districts of Manitoba, current expenses³ must be met entirely from the funds raised from the taxes which are levied and collected annually by the municipal council of the city. Money may be borrowed on the note of the board in any year prior to the collection of taxes, provided that the board agrees to take up such notes immediately the taxes are received.⁴

School boards in the cities of Saskatchewan must before March 15th of each year present a detailed statement of the sum required for school purposes for the current year to the city council. The latter assesses and levies the rates sufficient to raise the required sums

¹Revised Statutes, Quebec, 1909, sec. 13, art. 2730.

²The Public Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, secs. 43 and 47.

³R.S.M., 1913, cap. 165, sec. 196.

⁴R.S.M., 1913, cap. 165, sec. 221.

of money.¹ As in the case of Manitoba temporary loans may be made to meet current expenses which fall due before tax funds are received from the city treasurer.²

The corresponding acts for the province of Alberta³ make substantially the same provisions for securing money for the maintenance of schools in cities as those just recited for the cities of Saskatchewan.

School monies in the cities of British Columbia⁴ are divided into two classes, "ordinary expenses of maintaining the schools" and "special or extraordinary expenses." A detailed statement of estimates must be prepared by the Board of School Trustees and submitted to the Municipal Council on or before the first day in February in each year. The money estimated to be necessary for the ordinary expenses of maintaining the schools is then placed to the credit of the school board of the city. The money credited to the school board for any purpose may be taken "either from the ordinary municipal revenue or from the proceeds of the sale of debentures, as the Municipal Council shall decide." The municipal treasurer is in all cases the custodian of school funds and pays over to those to whom they are due such sums as the school board directs. It appears, therefore, that the city school boards of British Columbia do not for any class of expenditure directly handle the money involved.

SUMMARY—LAWS GOVERNING SCHOOL MONIES RAISED FOR CURRENT EXPENDITURES

Omitting minor details, the following is a summary of provincial laws respecting money raised for current expenditures for schools in Canadian cities:

(1) The school board of each city of all the provinces except Quebec makes a statement of current needs annually to the city council and asks

¹"The School Assessment Act," Saskatchewan, 1915, chap. 25, sec. 34, 35.

²"The School Act," Saskatchewan (Office consolidation, 1917) sec. 127.

³"The School Assessment Ordinance " (Office consolidation, 1917), sec. 88. "The School Ordinance," C.O.C. 75, sec. 106 (a), 106 (b).

⁴Public Schools Act, British Columbia, sec. 50 (1)-(3).

for the required funds. The city council must provide the money.

(2) In the province of Quebec, the school boards of cities (except Montreal and Quebec) levy and collect the money for current expenditures. With Ontario cities this procedure is optional.

(3) In the province of New Brunswick only, a limit is set for each city which may not be exceeded in any year.

(4) In the province of British Columbia only, school money is handled exclusively by the city treasurer, who pays all school indebtedness on receiving the warrant of the school board.

In the cities of all other provinces, school monies are handled directly by the treasurer of the school board.

II. LEGISLATIVE GRANTS

Provincial legislative grants of money constitute the second source of providing for the ordinary maintenance of the schools. As already stated, each Canadian provincial government has created a Department of Instruction which administers the educational affairs of the province in their broad outlines. It naturally followed that this department would, along with its powers of control, exercise also its privileges of encouragement. Besides, the taxpayers in any given locality are not slow to realize that their autonomy is not absolute. For the surrender of a part of local power to an authority somewhat more remote, they expect compensation. One form of provincial government control is both encouraging and compensatory and is effected by means of grants of money. All the provincial governments make such grants, but have legislated so that the sums of money are determined in a variety of ways. In some provinces the grant is paid directly to the teacher, while in others it goes to the school board. The different enactments include also several bases of calculation and other minor variations occur.

First—In the provinces of New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, the grants are paid by the government directly to the teacher. In the former province \$250 during each of the first seven years and \$275 in each

subsequent year is paid to teachers with "superior" or "grammar" school licenses. Teachers with such qualifications may teach in the lower grades, but if they have been assigned to work of the grammar grade in a grammar school, the government grants paid are increased to \$350 per annum during the first seven years and \$400 for each year thereafter.¹

In the island province, the government grants² are in classes of \$130, \$180, \$230 for women, and \$180, \$225, \$300 for men according as each possesses a third, second, or first class certificate. These amounts are increased by bonuses of 25 per cent., given if certain requirements are fulfilled.³ A recent important amendment is that the local board must increase the teacher's salary by another sum equal to the bonus.

Second—The individual teacher is likewise the basis of the grant in both Manitoba and British Columbia, but in these provinces the money reaches the teacher only indirectly. In Manitoba,⁴ the provincial treasurer pays the local board \$75 per teacher semi-annually. The class of city is a contingent factor in British Columbia,⁵ where a grant of \$360 per teacher is paid to the municipal corporations in cities of the first class. The amount rises to \$420 and \$465 for cities of the second and third classes respectively. These grants apply to "the actual number of teachers and manual training and domestic science instructors employed in the public schools, including high schools, of such cities."

Third: The other two western provincial governments—Saskatchewan and Alberta—have chosen a slightly different method for the calculation of their grants, which, however, are also paid directly to the local school board. In both provinces, the statutes fix the amount of money to be paid on the basis of each teacher for each day during which the school is in session. In the cities of Saskatchewan,⁶ this amount is one dollar

¹The School Act, New Brunswick, 63 Victoria, cap. 32, sec. 92.

²The Public Schools Act, 1877, and amendments to 1911—Prince Edward Island, sec. VIII.-XII.

³The Public Schools Amendment Act, 1912, sec. 21, 22

⁴R.S.M., 1913, cap. 165, sec. 225.

⁵"Public Schools Act," B.C., 1916, sec. 19.

⁶The School Grants Act, R.S.S., 1909, chap. 102, sec. 3 (2)

and five cents per teacher for every teaching day upon which the school is open during the first year of its operation, ninety cents during the second year, after which the base amount is seventy-five cents per teacher per day. Further increases are given if the teacher holds a first-class professional certificate and for all classrooms exclusively for pupils above Grade VII. Schools closed on account of absence of teacher at institutes or conventions or because of contagious disease are given the grants as if in session. In the town districts of Alberta,¹ according as the school population rises and the number of teachers employed is consequently greater, the amount of the grant is scaled downward. Thus in small town districts employing not more than twelve teachers, the provincial grant to the local board is one dollar per teacher for each day the school is kept open. This amount is reduced to seventy-five, sixty, fifty, and thirty cents per teacher per day according as the number of teachers employed lies between 13 and 40, 41 and 100, 101 and 200, or exceeds 200.

A *fourth* basis—relative population of cities along with school attendance—has been adopted by the provinces of Ontario and Quebec in determining the amount of financial assistance furnished city schools from the provincial treasury. In the former, the government grant payable to each city board of trustees from the total amount assigned to cities in general is determined “according to the population of each city as compared with the population of all the urban municipalities in Ontario.” Special grants to city school boards on behalf of Manual Training, School Gardens, Night Schools, Free Text-books, etc., etc., are divided among the cities on the basis of the grade of the teacher’s certificates and length of experience. All amounts apportioned to each city are divided between the public and separate schools “according to the average number of pupils who attended such schools respectively during the next preceding calendar year.” Money grants are made toward the support of the high schools of Ontario on the basis of the salaries paid to teachers and the character of accommodation and equipment.²

¹The School Grants Act, Alberta, Art. 3, sec. 2.

²The Department of Education Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 88, sec. 6.

In the province of Quebec, funds apportioned by the legislature to the support of education are likewise divided among the municipalities on the basis of their population. The trustees of "dissentient" schools, as in the case of separate schools in Ontario, receive a proportion of the general school fund similar to the proportion "which the number of children attending such dissentient schools bears to the entire number of children attending school in the whole municipality."¹

SPECIAL GRANTS—DEPARTMENTAL INSPECTION.

In addition to appropriations for grants toward general education, several of the provinces provide money grants to encourage special features. New Brunswick cities and also those in other provinces receive special assistance toward the cost of manual training or household science equipment. A teacher in New Brunswick who is qualified to teach and actually does teach manual training in addition to the regular studies, receives a special grant of \$50. In the same province grants are made to teachers who give nature lessons and lessons in school gardening, and to trustee boards to assist in the care of school gardens.

All of the provincial governments indicate a desire to foster certain of the newer features in elementary and secondary education by making appropriations and providing special grants to this end. In some instances, as for manual training and domestic science, these grants are very attractive. In the province of Saskatchewan, city school boards maintaining industrial evening schools for persons employed during the day and giving trade or occupational training along with the related academic instruction are given an annual grant equal to forty per cent of the cost of tuition.² In the province of Ontario, cities which are providing technical education, manual training, or household science, school gardens, supervised and outdoor playgrounds, night schools, public libraries, art schools or art departments, cadet corps, free textbooks and medical inspection receive special grants toward the support of these innovations in city education. In recent years several of the other pro-

¹R.S.Q., 1909., Articles 2789, 2928-2930.

²Amendment (1917) to School Grants Act, Saskatchewan, sec. 3.

vinces, as for example, Alberta, respecting technical education, have introduced similar legislation.

As already stated, all provincial grants of money toward assisting local public education are both encouraging and compensatory. The various educational departments wish to supervise educational effort and thus develop uniform standards of efficiency throughout their respective provinces. They have therefore formulated rules and regulations and appointed the necessary officers of inspection. This means the surrender of a part of local autonomy. But for this surrender the local boards receive, by way of compensation and as a means of encouragement and assistance, the various forms of provincial financial support, recounted in the previous pages. It may be premised that each department stipulates that the grants shall be earned. An effort is made to have adequate inspection. The schools must be properly managed, instruction must be satisfactory, the accommodation as to buildings, furniture, and equipment must meet departmental requirements, only authorized text-books must have been used, the course of study as prescribed must have been followed and in general all departmental rules and regulations must be implicitly obeyed.

SUMMARY. LEGISLATIVE GRANTS TO SCHOOL BOARDS.

1. All Canadian provincial legislatures make general and special grants of money to assist in carrying out the educational programme.
2. The grants are paid :
 - (a) Directly to the teacher in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island.
 - (b) To the school board in all other provinces.
3. The basis of the amount paid is :
 - (a) The grade of teachers' certificates in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island.
 - (b) The number of teachers irrespective of the grade of certificate in Manitoba and British Columbia. In British Columbia, the amount per teacher is increased for medium and small cities.
 - (c) The number of days each school (each teacher) is in session in Alberta and Saskat-

chewan. In Saskatchewan, the grade of teacher's certificate is a factor, as is also the number of classes above Grade VII. In Alberta, as in British Columbia, the size of the city as measured by the number of teachers employed, is also a factor.

- (d) The population of the city in Ontario and Quebec, and as between public and separate schools in any city, the division is made on the basis of school attendance.

4. School boards must conduct schools in all respects in accordance with departmental rules and regulations in order to receive the grant.

III.—EXTRAORDINARY OR CAPITAL EXPENDITURES.

SCHOOL BONDS AND DEBENTURES.

The third method of securing school funds is from the sale of bonds and debentures. Large sums of money must frequently be raised and spent by city school boards in a single year—sums which are investments chargeable to capital account. It is quite generally thought that the actual payment by the people of such monies may in fairness be spread over a long term of years and this is provided for in the school law of all the provinces. This provision, however, does not rest in all cases with the school board itself, and the methods employed are in great variety. For example, the school boards of the cities of *Nova Scotia* have no power to raise money through the issuing of debentures or by the sale of bonds. In order to purchase land or to erect new school buildings application must be made to the city council, "who shall alone have the power to authorize the same." The council borrows the necessary money or may obtain it on a debenture issue not to exceed a term of twenty years.¹

Similarly in the province of *Ontario*, with the exception of government grants, the school board of a city usually secures all monies required for school purposes from the city council. For the purchase or enlargement of a school site, for the erection of buildings, for repairs, improvements and furnishings, money may be

¹ Revised Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1900, chap. 71, sec. 162.

obtained by the council through the issue and sale of debentures, without referring the question to the electors. But if the council refuses to pass the necessary by-law at the request of the school board, it must submit the question to the electors qualified to vote, and if the assent of the majority is recorded, then the city council must pass the necessary by-law and proceed to raise the money by the usual debenture method. The amount of money to be raised by debentures and the term of years (not to exceed thirty) lie within the discretion of the Council.¹ The cities of London, Stratford, and Chatham are exceptions to the general rule in Ontario that school boards may not issue bonds. Having first secured the sanction of the city council, the respective school boards of these cities may issue debentures in their own name.²

Again, in the province of *British Columbia*,³ the statement of estimated special or extraordinary expenses for the year must, either in whole or in part, secure the approval of the municipal council. For such items as the council disapproves, it must, at the request of the school board, submit a by-law or by-laws for the assent of the qualified electors. The sums of money to meet such special or extraordinary expenses as the municipal council approves, or failing such approval, as subsequently secure the assent of the qualified electors, must, as in the case of money for current expenditure, be placed to the credit of the school board, but in a separate account. The city council may provide the necessary funds as before from ordinary municipal revenue, or debentures may be issued as it may determine and the city treasurer makes payment for all accounts which are certified "correct" by the school board.

Thus in the three provinces of Nova Scotia and British Columbia and generally in Ontario a city school board is not empowered to raise money by the sale of debentures issued in its own name. Money required for extraordinary expenditures, raised by means of the sale of bonds comes to the school board indirectly via the

¹The Public Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec. 43 (1)-(4).

²Replies to Questionnaire, "Has the Board power to issue bonds?"

³Public Schools Act, British Columbia, sec. 50 (1)-(3).

city council. On the contrary, in the other six provinces and in the majority of Canadian cities, the local school board may, with certain provisos, raise money by the sale of its own bonds.

In the province of New Brunswick,¹ for example, city boards of school trustees may raise money by the issue of school debentures. The funds so raised must be for the purchase of school lands and the construction of school buildings and if the city council approves for permanent repairs and furnishings. Such debentures are redeemable in terms not to exceed twenty-five years and may bear interest not to exceed six per cent per annum. For the city of St. John the total amount of school debentures must not exceed \$160,000 and for the city of Fredericton \$135,000, except with the special consent of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

The Prince Edward Island School Act empowers the Board of Trustees of the city of Charlottetown to borrow money by the issue of debentures² which may run twenty years, with interest at six per cent. The issue is not to exceed \$60,000.

Lawful debts which have been contracted or are about to be contracted by the school commissioners or trustees in cities of the province of Quebec,³ may, on the report of the Superintendent and with the authorization of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, be capitalized and paid off by annuities over a term not to exceed fifty years. The annuities must include the interest and a proportion of the capital. They may take the form of debentures which mature annually. Providing that the object of the desired loan, the total amount of the issue, term of years, rate of interest and all other details relating to the loan are satisfactory to the Superintendent of Education and to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, any school corporation may borrow money by means of an issue of bonds or debentures. This is in pursuance of one of the chief duties of school commissioners and trustees, it being specially enacted that they must select and acquire land necessary for school sites, build and

¹"The Schools Act," New Brunswick, 63 Vic., chap. 32, sec. 105 (7)-(8).

²The Public Schools Act, 1877, with amendments. Sec. XCIII(h)

³Revised Statutes, Quebec, 1909, sec. 12, Art. 2723.

repair school houses, and provide furnishings and equipment.

Likewise in the western provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta, city school boards may issue their own debentures. These are to raise money for the purpose of purchasing school lands, erecting buildings or providing furnishings. In the province of *Manitoba*¹ the bonds may run for a term not to exceed fifty years and must be paid off in equal annual instalments. Permission is secured for the issue through the following procedure :

- (1) The school board must pass the necessary by-law.
- (2) The city council must submit the by-law to the ratepayers of whom three-fifths must assent to it.
- (3) The Education Department must be consulted and must sanction the issue of the bonds.

Except with the consent of the Education Department, provision must be made for paying off the debentures in equal annual instalments.

In the cities of the province of *Saskatchewan*² the board must pass a by-law and apply to the Minister of Education for authority. In case twenty ratepayers demand a poll for or against a by-law, the matter must be submitted to the ratepayers for approval. If a poll is not demanded or if demanded it is found to be favorable, then the board may issue debentures to raise the sum mentioned in the by-law. The total debenture indebtedness, however, must not exceed one-tenth of the total assessed value of the real property of the school district. Thirty years is the extreme limit of a debenture term and eight per cent the limited rate of interest. All debentures must be countersigned by the Minister of Education and this is held to validate them from any previous irregularity.

In the province of *Alberta*, school boards of town school districts may secure funds for the usual extraordinary expenditures by the issue of bonds.³ The board must pass a by-law, and notice be given of "its

¹Revised Statutes, Manitoba, 1913, chap. 165, sec. 206-214.

²Revised Statutes, Saskatchewan, 1909, chap. 100, sec. 105-108, 127-129.

³"The School Ordinance," Alberta, C.O.C. 75, sec. 107-128.

intention to apply to the Board of Public Utility Commissioners for authority to borrow the amount specified in the by-law." Public announcement must be made through the press. A poll for or against the by-law may be taken if demanded by twenty ratepayers. A majority of the ratepayers voting is sufficient to carry a by-law. If the poll is favorable or if a poll is not demanded, authority to issue the debentures may be given to the school board by the Board of Public Utility Commissioners. The school debenture limit is forty years for cities and the extreme rate of interest permissible under the law is eight per cent per annum.

Table No. 10, Bonds and Debentures, page 84 provides a summary of the principal features in Canadian provincial school laws with respect to the borrowing of large sums of money for educational purposes.

It is not the intention in this discussion of city school administration to offer critical comment on Canadian plans for securing school funds.¹ The methods have been summarized in the foregoing paragraphs with a view to making the information easily accessible to those interested in school finance. Attention is called, however, to the great variety in the details of these methods. It is suggested that where several plans may be employed, some one alternative must prove on examination by experts to be superior to the others. Standards with respect to school finance should be determined and clearly enunciated. With these as guides, provincial departments of education, city councils and school boards could set about a frank, impersonal measuring of the methods each uses with a view to discovering defects and securing the legislation necessary for improvement. This could be brought about most effectively through conferences of provincial officials followed by other conferences of the officials of city councils and school boards.

¹However, see Chapter VII. for discussion as to the advisability of purchasing land and erecting buildings from current revenue rather than from the sale of debentures.

TABLE NO. 10.—BONDS AND DEBENTURES.
SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL FEATURES IN CANADIAN PROVINCIAL SCHOOL LAWS.

PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF THE LAWS.	Nova Scotia	New Brunswick	Prince Edward Island	Quebec	Ontario	Manitoba	Saskatchewan	Alberta	British Columbia
School Board may issue bonds.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
City Council may issue bonds at request of School Board for school expenditures.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
City Council may refuse to issue bonds at request of School Board unless referendum to ratepayers is favorable.	If city council approves	Yes.	Yes.
Purpose— Repairs, improvements and furnishings.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Purpose— Purchase of land and erection of new buildings City Council exclusively handles the money obtained.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Term of years not to be exceeded.	20	25	20	50	30	50	30
Rate of interest not to be exceeded.	6	6	8
Total amount of debentures not to be exceeded	St. John \$160,000 Frederic- ton \$135,000	Char- lotte- town \$60,000	1-10 of assessed value of property	15% of assessed value of property
Consent of majority ratepayers must be obtained.	3-5	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Consent of Department of Education as to all details must be obtained.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
Consent of Board of Public Utilities must be obtained.	Yes.
School Board must obtain consent of Local Government Board.
Method of Retiring Debentures: (a) Equal annual instalments, including principal and interest.
(b) Equal annual instalments of principal: Interest half yearly.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.
(c) Entire Principal at end of term: interest half-yearly.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.

SCHOOL FUNDS FROM OTHER SOURCES.

A. Donations. The amount of money received as donations by school boards in Canadian cities is insignificant. Most of the questionnaires returned record no bequests whatever. School boards in four cities have received small amounts for prizes and medals ranging from \$250 to \$1,000. The school board of Hamilton received \$3,000 from the Hamilton Art School. Chatham reports a gift of land for school purposes with an approximate value of \$25,000. The school board of the city of Windsor was given three acres of land and Edmonton public school board "a few scattered lots."

B. School Fees. The question of money received by way of fees paid for instruction, is of much greater significance, but the practice in Canadian cities is not at all uniform. The subject of attendance which is closely related to that of fees will receive comment in a subsequent chapter. Here it may be remarked that Canadian elementary education being compulsory,¹ it would appear to be anomalous for city boards of education to exact fees.

In the early days, education was a luxury and some of the accounts of the efforts to secure the "free" school are interesting. For example, the salaries of Toronto teachers in 1844 were amplified by fees paid by the pupils directly to the instructors. In that year of an amount totalling £1,378 spent for the city public schools the sum of £238 was contributed directly by the children in attendance. Those were the days too, when the children regularly paid "a small charge for fuel, pens and ink." "Free schools versus school fees" was a much agitated question during the next two decades.

In 1851, the Toronto board adopted a committee report in favor of free schools. As a result, the mayor, John G. Bowes, on petition, called a meeting of rate-payers to discuss the matter. More than 400 persons attended the meeting presided over by the mayor. The principal opposition came from Mr. Angus Dallas while Dr. Joseph Workman, chairman of the board, Dr.

¹Except in the province of Quebec.

Egerton Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education, Alderman Thompson, and others spoke vigorously in support of the free school. The meeting, somewhat stormy at first, finally "broke up with enthusiastic cheers for free schools."¹ The question arose again in 1852, in which year G. A. Barber, local secretary and superintendent, said that "the result of the Free School system, *as now carried on was incommensurate with the cost of maintaining it.*"² Acting on his suggestion, the board resolved to separate the offices of secretary and superintendent.³ Mr. Barber was retained as secretary and ultimately Rev. James Porter was engaged as local superintendent. This official proved to be sympathetic with the free school system and under his efficient management relative costs were kept down while attendance and instruction in the free school improved.

In Canadian public education there are still a few survivals in practice of the principle of exacting fees for instruction from those directly receiving its benefits. The provincial statutes, with the exception of Quebec, to be noted later, make the elementary school free between the years of five or six and twenty or twenty-one. Ontario and Saskatchewan empower city boards to collect a fee for kindergarten instruction given to children between four and seven years of age.

Fees are customarily exacted from non-resident pupils in British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick and other provinces. In the first-named province, however, the municipality to which the pupils belong must contribute a proportional per capita amount for the instruction received.⁴ In opposition to this practice the non-resident pupils themselves must pay \$1 per month in elementary schools of the cities of Manitoba,⁵ and \$10 per year in New Brunswick.⁶

¹From speeches reported in "The Globe" newspaper, Jan. 13, 1852.

²Italics in the original.

³Barber, G. A., *Op. cit.*, p. 78.

⁴Public School Act, British Columbia, 1916, sec. 15.

⁵Public School Act, 1917, Office Consolidation, sec. 57 (Q.)

⁶The School Act, New Brunswick, 63 Vic., cap. 32, sec. 73 (1).

The outstanding exception in Canada to the principle of free elementary education is the province of Quebec. School commissioners or trustees are empowered to fix and collect a monthly fee not less than five cents nor more than fifty cents for all children between the ages of seven and fourteen years in the elementary schools,¹ or they may by resolution abolish the monthly fee.² In the "model" schools and "academies"³ the fees may be greater. Children from five to seven years of age and from fourteen to sixteen years are not compelled to attend school, but if they are in attendance, fees must be collected. Exceptions are made in the case of indigent children or those who are blind, sick or absent from the municipality.

Although the city boards of several provinces—Manitoba⁴ and New Brunswick⁵—may not exact fees for High School education, other provinces—Ontario⁶, Saskatchewan¹ and British Columbia⁷ permit the boards to use their discretion as regards fees for secondary education.

C. Interest on School Money in the Bank.—Twenty-five city school boards report that they do not receive interest on school funds placed for safe keeping in the local banks. Interest is paid to twenty-six other school boards. Of these, twenty receive interest on the daily balance, five on the weekly balance and one on the monthly balance. The rate of interest paid varies from 3 per cent. to 8 per cent. Table No. 11 is a detailed statement of the facts.

¹Code Scolaire, Arts. 2739-2745.

²R.S.Q. 745, Amended.

³The terms "model" and "Academy" are applied to secondary schools in the province of Quebec.

⁴The Public Schools Act, R.S.M., cap. 143, sec. 7.

⁵The Schools Act, N.B., 63 Vic., cap. 32, sec. 73 (1).

⁶The High Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII, cap. 91, sec. 24 (e).

⁷Public School Act, B.C., 1916, sec. 58.

TABLE NO. 11.—THE RATE OF INTEREST PAID TO SCHOOL BOARDS ON DAILY BANK BALANCES.

Rate of Interest Per Cent.	No. of Boards.	Names of Cities.
0	25	Westmount, Outremont (R.C.), Lachine, Toronto, Brantford, Kingston, Guelph, St. Thomas, Stratford, Kitchener, Chatham, Sault Ste. Marie, Sarnia, Belleville, Woodstock, Regina, Portage la Prairie, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw, Swift Current, Vancouver, North Battleford, Nelson, Medicine Hat, Victoria.
3	11	Montreal, ¹ Maisonneuve, ¹ Hull, Sherbrooke, Three Rivers, Outremont,(Prot.), St. Hyacinthe, Thetford Mines, Ottawa, Windsor, Edmonton.
3½	0	
4	2	Halifax, Moncton.
4½	1	St. John.
5	2	Quebec, Winnipeg.
5½	1	Fredericton. ²
6	3	Sydney, London, Peterborough.
6½	0	
7	1	Prince Albert ¹
7½	0	
8	3	Weyburn, ¹ Fort William, ¹ Lethbridge.
Rate not reported	2	Calgary, Charlottetown.

Thus it appears that 54 per cent. of Canadian boards receive interest on their bank balances. This is a favorable showing as against 30 per cent. in American cities.³ There seems to be no valid reason however, why every school board should not be paid interest on unused funds in the bank. If it is not customary to do so, custom should be broken. Most city school boards have sums ranging from \$10,000 upward to their credit in the bank throughout the year. This is worth, according to the rates paid as above, from \$300 to \$800, and still more for larger balances. Many a school administrator would be glad to have such small sums with which to purchase supplementary reading books, school pictures and other longed for equipment.

¹ Monthly.

² Weekly.

³ Deffenbaugh, W. S. U.S. Bulletin, 1915, No. 44, "School Administration in the Smaller Cities." pp. 58, 59,

OTHER DETAILS RESPECTING SCHOOL FINANCE

Frequent Scrutiny of Accounting Systems.—For two boards the system of school accounting is said to be subject to “yearly revision” and for one board, it is termed “progressive.” Two boards devised their system of accounting in the decade ending 1880, one board in the decade ending 1890, two boards between 1891 and 1900, two more between 1901 and 1910, and nine boards in the present decade.

To the question “who devised the system of accounting used?”—answers in great variety were received. The system was devised for 13 different boards by the secretaries, for six boards by the government and for four boards by the city auditors. For two boards the city auditor and the secretary collaborated in devising an accounting system and for one board, the system was devised by a chartered accountant acting under instructions of the finance committee of the board. The school board itself devised the accounting scheme used in two different cities and in one city the plan was evolved by the city treasurer. One city, Edmonton, adopted practically *in toto* the system of accounting which had been developed in conference by the secretary-treasurers of the school boards of the Province of Alberta.

School Audits.—The school law of each province is very explicit as to the audit of school accounts. In more than two-thirds of the cities,¹ municipal auditors appointed by the municipal council do this work. In the remaining cities chiefly in Quebec and Manitoba, the books and accounts are audited by “professional auditors” or chartered accountants, appointed by the respective boards.

FINANCIAL DISCUSSION IN ANNUAL REPORTS

Its Value.—Little argument is required to show the value of definite knowledge as to the cost of education. A large problem in school administration consists in securing and maintaining relative proportion in school expenditure. The board and superintendent must be informed as to the cost of each arm of the service as an

¹ 37 out of 54.

element in the determination of the balance which is desirable between the several parts. The taxpayer who furnishes the funds is entitled to know in proportional terms what becomes of the vast sums raised. No more illuminating facts can be placed before pupils in the upper elementary and high school grades than accurate knowledge of the cost of the education which they are receiving.

Space as an Index.—Tables showing amounts of money received and how expended comprise an interesting feature of annual reports. Some indication of the importance of financial discussion may be obtained by noting the relative amount of space given to money matters in the published annual reports of city boards of education. All reports received give attention to this topic. The following table shows the size of each report, the amount of space devoted to financial discussion and the percentage which such discussion occupies in the whole report.

TABLE NO. 12.—PROPORTION OF ANNUAL REPORT DEVOTED TO FINANCIAL DISCUSSION. CANADIAN CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.

City.	Total No. pages in Report	No. pages financial discussion	Per cent. pages of finance in Report
Brandon.....	7	7	100
London.....	234	156	62
Montreal (Prot.).....	67	20	30
New Westminster.....	3	2	67
North Battleford.....	7	1	14
Ottawa.....	46	9	20
Toronto.....	337	46	14
Vancouver.....	98	8	8
Victoria.....	15	13	86
Windsor.....	18	1	6
Winnipeg.....	91	30	33

Thus it may be seen that Montreal (Protestant) with fewer schools than Toronto devotes less than half the space but relatively more than twice as much of its annual report to the question of finance. London and Victoria are comparable as to school population but the London report treats of finance in twelve times as many pages as Victoria, although indeed, the Victoria pamphlet purports to be nothing more than finance. It is suggested in passing, that while statements showing

expenditures item by item must unquestionably be prepared for the auditor and might be supplied in typewritten copies to members of the board and also should be available for extra curious people on demand, it ought to be sufficient for the general public to know that all accounts are vouched for by the members of the board and further passed upon by expert chartered accountants. It should not be necessary to incur the expense of publishing some of the excessively detailed statements in the annual report of the board. The space devoted to this sort of financial exposition in several of the reports might be employed in a more illuminating type of financial report, or devoted to other school matters concerning which the people should be informed.

Annual per capita cost.—Calculations of the annual per capita cost of education given in connection with Canadian city school systems are frequently meagre. Nineteen cities do not customarily make such computations. Extended comment is offered in Chapter IV. concerning annual and other reports to the school board. A valuable part of such reports consists of statements and comparisons of the annual per capita cost of education and this feature of school administration may properly be treated in connection with school finance.

Definition of the terms per annum, per capita and the classes of expenditure to which such calculations are applicable.—In order to make such knowledge intelligible and of use in instituting comparisons, it should be reduced to units—"per annum" and "per capita." Each of these terms must be defined. Per annum is not sufficient for "evening," "half-time," "vocation," "manual training," "domestic science," and other classes which meet at irregular intervals, or three times per week, for example, in one instance, and twice each week in another and weekly in a third. "Total enrolment" should not be used as a basis for "per capita" calculations. Many pupils of the total number enrolled may have been removed from the city for a considerable portion

of the year, thus making the results figured on such data very erroneous. Average monthly enrollment or average daily attendance form a more equitable basis for "per capita" costs. The term "per annum" should be accompanied by a statement as to the number of days covered by it. Per capita costs for "evening" and other classes meeting at irregular intervals should have the additional basis "per hour of instruction." Only by reduction of school costs to such definite units can scientific comparisons be made possible.

In addition to per annum and per capita units, statements of the cost of education should include a classification of the expenditures. It is not necessary to work out the annual cost per pupil of every *subject* in the elementary grades, but comparisons of each of the *school grades* per capita per annum should be made possible. Likewise comparisons of the cost per capita per annum of certain special subjects, of school supplies for instruction, of other school supplies such as fuel, electricity and telephone, of janitor service and of general supervision are exceedingly instructive to both taxpayer and administrator. Similarly in the high school, the annual cost per pupil in such subjects as algebra, history, latin, and manual training will provide food for thought for any administrator who has not yet been confronted with such facts for his own school system.

EXAMPLES FROM CANADIAN REPORTS

As indicated in their annual reports, few Canadian boards of education have made a commencement in this matter. The High School section of the Toronto report for the year 1916, for example, unfortunately omits all mention of the cost of education. In the section devoted to the elementary schools, however, the Chief Inspector, gives per capita costs some attention. He says¹:

¹ Annual Report of the Board of Education for the city of Toronto, 1916, p. 60.

“Charging to the day schools the total cost of maintenance,¹ including the expenditure on the auxiliary interests, the total cost of one full year of schooling for one pupil in 1916 was \$45.25. Deducting the amount of the Government grants and other receipts, the net cost to the Public School supporters of Toronto is \$43.13.”

Estimating the total cost of maintenance of Toronto Public Schools on a similar basis for the past four years, the results are as follows :

Total cost per pupil for calendar year	1913—	\$43.76
“ “ “ “ “ “	1914—	43.59
“ “ “ “ “ “	1915—	43.45
“ “ “ “ “ “	1916—	45.25

This is useful to the extent that it gives the taxpayer a means of knowing for example that the total cost per pupil for the years 1913-14-15 was about stationary at \$43.45 to \$43.76 per capita and that in 1916 it advanced \$1.80 over 1915. On what grounds “auxiliary interests” such as forest schools, medical inspection, night schools and others should be included in the total cost per pupil, it is somewhat difficult to conceive. The taxpayer supplies the money for all these, but a statement of costs to have any value for comparison, the only value it really can have, should account separately for all such “auxiliary interests.” Individually, these may be costing too much or too little, and the same is true of the ordinary grade education, but the statement as given completely conceals any such conclusions.

Under the caption “What Public School Education Costs” the last report received for the City of London² gives considerable valuable details. The following are extracts:

A. “1,260 girls in grades VI., VII. and VIII. were enrolled in the Household Science classes during the year 1916. The total cost of salaries was \$2,580 and of Supplies \$741.”

¹ Auxiliary interests and activities of the public schools, such as forest schools, open-air classes, vacation schools, night schools, cadet corps, supervised playgrounds, medical inspection, superannuation allowances, departmental examinations, etc.

²Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of London, Ontario, 1916, pp. 58, 59.

B. "General Cost: 8 grades and	
Kindergarten	\$23.15
Sinking fund and interest.....	5.90
Manual Training, Household	
Science and Nurses.....	1.22
Office Staff, Printing and Stationery	1.05
	<hr/>
Total cost (per capita per annum)	\$31.32"

Constructive criticism may be offered concerning quotation A. Its usefulness for computation of per capita cost is impaired by not including the average daily attendance of girls in the Household Science classes, and further by not giving the cost of sewing and cooking supplies separately. The four items which constitute quotation B are too much condensed. In some systems for example, Kindergartens operate half time while the grades invariably meet for the whole of the usual school day. General cost, referring to "Teachers' Salaries, Janitors' Salaries, Repairs and Renewals, School Supplies, General Expense, Water, Labor, Power, Insurance, Art, Light, etc.," given in one sum, should have been itemized.

Per capita costs are more adequately treated in the annual reports for the cities of Ottawa and Vancouver. In the former average annual costs per pupil are given in separate sums for (1) Grades 1-8; (2) Kindergarten; (3) All supplies; (4) Stationery, supplies and textbooks; (5) Manual Training supplies; (6) Sewing supplies; (7) Cooking supplies; (8) Cooking supplies per lesson.¹ These facts comprise a body of interesting, instructive information for the board members and citizens of Ottawa and are immediately comparable with corresponding facts (if obtainable) for other cities.

A good example of a compact "Analysed Statement" of per capita costs may be found in the report for the city of Vancouver.² The statement occupies a full page, from which the following representative lines are quoted:

¹ Ottawa Public Schools—Inspector's Annual Report, 1917.

² Vancouver City Schools, Trustees Annual Report, 1916. p. 95.

AN EXAMPLE FROM AMERICAN PRACTICE

Illustration and suggestion respecting per capita costs may be obtained from the following compact statement in which such data for nineteen cities of the United States are placed side by side.¹

City.	No. Pupils Average Daily Attendance.	Board of Edu- cation and Business Office.	Superintend- ent's Office.	Salaries of Principals.	Salaries of Supervisors.	Salaries of Teachers.	Stationery and Supplies.	Wages of Janitors.	Fuel.	Water, Light and Power.	Maintenance.
Albany.....	10,816	.71	.59	4.47	.75	26.70	1.27	2.62	2.68	1.08	1.42
Birmingham..	19,694	.25	.46	2.36	1.68	17.85	.46	1.60	.54	.74	.52
Bridgeport....	16,034	.37	.32	2.49	.78	20.07	.80	1.83	2.53	**	.95
Cambridge....	14,524	.63	1.14	3.58	.30	30.19	1.20	3.78	1.48	.10	.44
Dayton.....	15,608	.55	.53	2.83	.71	24.32	1.05	2.50	.95	.44	3.90
Des Moines... Fall River....	15,543 14,197	.58 .42	.64 .94	3.98 4.92	.85 .59	28.91 26.61	4.72 1.12	4.40 4.27	1.51 1.44	1.22 .25	1.51 2.24
Grand Rapids	14,750	.97	1.07	3.67	.63	32.80	2.10	3.36	1.73	.86	3.54
Kansas City..	12,515	2.19	.66	2.03	.29	36.00	1.51	2.54	1.22	1.33	3.29
Lowell.....	11,065	.44	.68	4.84	.47	20.48	1.61	4.78	1.82	.81	.31
Lynn.....	12,329	.94	.75	2.23	.40	21.85	1.06	2.88	1.51	.33	1.25
Memphis....	15,462	.80	.66	3.64	.61	24.58	.43	2.36	.64	.38	1.09
Nashville....	15,449	.58	.51	2.26	.72	19.55	.55	1.46	.37	.43	.98
New Bedford.	12,431	.34	1.08	3.17	.94	25.06	1.15	3.29	1.63	.59	.71
Paterson....	19,284	.62	.19	3.00	.06	22.32	.69	2.24	.67	.40	.65
Richmond....	22,102	.40	.26	2.26	.79	18.58	.67	1.51	.48	.43	.97
San Antonio..	11,406	1.12	.42	3.95	.66	29.00	.46	2.60	.57	.37	2.86
Scranton....	19,755	1.20	.46	2.98	.63	20.98	1.09	2.83	1.07	.57	2.25
Springfield...	15,552	.44	1.48	2.68	.90	35.59	3.33	3.66	2.68	.90	2.93

* Data from Annual Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Ed. Vol. II., 1915.

** Included under Fuel.

¹ Rugg, H. O. : "The Cost of Public Education in Grand Rapids." Table LXXXI., p. 399.

It will be noted that the cities arranged above in alphabetical order are approximately in the same class as to population, ranging from 91,000 to 158,000, with Grand Rapids at 120,000 occupying a central position. Each item of cost is computed on the following basis:—

1. Average number of pupils in daily attendance.
2. Per pupil.
3. per annum—1915.
4. Separate computations for ten principal classes of expenditure.

The table was compiled to assist in the study of the cost of education in the city of Grand Rapids, Mich. Having the common factors just enumerated, it is easily seen to be of great value to the school administrators of all the cities in the list as well as to those of Grand Rapids.

Assistance from U.S. Bureau of Education and other sources. It is noteworthy in passing that such a compilation is possible first because there is in the United States a Bureau of Education which is country wide. Under the direction of its Commissioner, studies of educational problems, forming a collection unrivalled in any other country, have been put forth. The annual Report for 1915 furnished the data for the table quoted above. In the second place, this compilation could with difficulty have been made were it not for another important fact, that school statistics are collected for the Commissioner's Report on the "standard form" adopted by the Bureau of Education in 1910 and therefore are based on uniform methods of accounting. Moreover the "standard form," the discussions of school finance of the National Educational Association and the National Association of School accounting officers and "surveys" of the school systems of several American cities have been extremely influential in standardizing school accounting and in concentrating attention on school costs and the business management of schools.

Value to a Canadian city of more uniform and adequate treatment of school finance. Now suppose that a similar reasonable amount of uniformity in accounting methods were achieved in Canadian cities, and that annual per capita school costs were worked out by the school administrators for ten carefully segregated classes

of expenditure and given to the public in annual reports. Tables could then easily be constructed with such a common factor as approximately equal population, or equal wealth, or equal enrollment of children, etc. If the above table were the result and instead of the names at the left we had names of Canadian cities and instead of Grand Rapids stood Ottawa, for example, the school men and taxpayers of Ottawa would then be in a position to see clearly how their school system compared with other school systems on the basis of *costs*. They could see, for example, that the cost to the city of Ottawa (or Grand Rapids) for a school principal on the basis—per child per year—was \$3.67. They would notice that in other cities the principal of a school costs the city for each child for one year somewhat less as shown in the same column, viz., \$2.03, \$2.23, \$2.26, or somewhat more for certain cities, \$4.92, \$4.84, etc. Similarly all interested could institute comparisons as to other per annum, per capita costs such as salaries for teachers, stationery and supplies, fuel, etc., etc.

With these facts in hand, taxpayers could fairly ask school administrators to make explanations. Ottawa citizens could say to the senior inspector, of Ottawa, for example, "Why is it that stationery and supplies cost us taxpayers for each child for one year \$2.10, while in other cities, the cost is as low as 43 cents or 35 cents?" The inspector would explain perhaps that the children of Ottawa receive manual training, sewing, cooking and other supplies free, which is not the case for the children of other cities in the table. Careful administration would increase. All tendencies to extravagance would diminish on the one hand; on the other, taxpayers would realize that service of any particular kind, requiring quality and quantity can be had only with the appropriate expenditure of necessary funds. No more potent influence for securing the interest of parents in their schools is known, than an intelligent, intelligible discussion of what each factor in education costs the community.

Canadian sample of a good financial statement. With the few exceptions previously mentioned, the Canadian school accountant is not accustomed to showing comparatively what education in his city costs. He uses the

simple classification of "Receipts" and "Expenditures" and his financial reports, so far as these have been received,¹ seldom do more than show in immense detail from whence every cent comes and where every cent goes. This type of financial exposition except to demonstrate honesty (in itself an important consideration) is of little value. Its utility is greatly increased, however, in such financial reports as those for the cities of Victoria and Vancouver. Table F.² of the latter report condenses the expenditure figures for all the schools of the city and several departments such as manual training, medical inspection and night schools to a single page. The expenditures are divided into four major classes—"instruction," "equipment," "operation" and "maintenance," and these into twelve sub-classes. With expenditures so segregated, computations of per capita costs are a matter of simple arithmetic and twenty classes of these follow on the next and supplementary pages. It is clear that parents and officials in Victoria and Vancouver are enabled to strike comparisons. Moreover they can if they wish easily place their own figures alongside of similar facts for Portland, Seattle, and other neighboring cities, and finally since these computations result in amounts which are for one child for one year on the basis of average attendance, comparisons made are absolutely valid.

Comparison of results is also necessary. It must not be forgotten, however, that such comparisons relate only to money. Two cities might spend identical amounts for instruction, for example, and yet be on absolutely different levels as to quality of service rendered. It does not necessarily follow because Kansas City³ paid \$36.00 and Richmond \$18.58 both per annum per capita for salaries of teachers, that Kansas City is extravagant or that Richmond school children are well taught. It is clear that completely valid comparisons can be instituted only by having along with comparative costs also comparative results. The appraisal of the results of instruction and consequent comparisons are equally necessary. These fall naturally within the province of the Department of Instruction.

¹ See Appendix A.

² Also, vide supra p. 95.

³ Vide supra p. 96.

ANNUAL PER CAPITA COSTS—SUMMARY

1. Nineteen Canadian city school boards do not calculate and publish annual per capita costs and in almost all other cities such computations are very meagre.
2. Per capita costs are necessary.
 - (a) To assist school administrators to secure proper proportions in expenditures.
 - (b) To admit of scientific comparison among cities of the same class.
 - (c) To make the tax-payer intelligent as to how school money is divided.
3. Per capita costs should be computed separately for all the principal kinds of expenditure.
4. Examples are given of per capita costs from the annual reports of four Canadian School Boards.
5. A table quoted from the report of the Grand Rapids survey shows per capita costs under ten different headings for nineteen cities of the same class as to population. Comparisons are thus easily made.
6. Comment is offered on two very effective examples of financial statement taken from Canadian annual reports.
7. Comparisons of per capita costs should be accompanied by comparisons of the results of instruction.

FINANCIAL DISCUSSION IN SCHOOL SURVEYS

The table to illustrate comparative costs which was quoted a few pages back was taken from "The Cost of Public Education in Grand Rapids." This work was in reality chapter XIV. of the Survey of the Grand Rapids Schools. As yet no Canadian city board has given an opportunity for a survey of its school system by impartial educational experts, but the idea of this species of intensive study of educational activities has been gladly received in a number of American cities. Necessary resolutions have been passed in board meetings and a strong corps of professional students of every sort of educational activity have been appointed to conduct the survey. Consultations, inquiries, and investigations have been carried on followed by reports of findings and recommendations. These reports have been invariably published in one or more volumes. In the case of the Cleveland survey there are twenty-four small volumes,

each treating a single phase of education and a larger summary volume. Each of these survey reports contains a large body of illuminating discussion both theoretical and practical and because of its basis on real objective facts the report is both interesting and valuable to all educators, whether within or without the system surveyed. The most recent of these reports consists of three volumes for the St. Louis survey, made under the direction of Professor C. H. Judd, University of Chicago. In this is a section of 240 pages¹ devoted to the financial and business methods of the St. Louis schools and with a brief reference to this section, our discussion of Canadian school finance will close.

School Finance in St. Louis. This study of the financial and business methods of the schools of St. Louis is the most comprehensive and elaborate treatment of the topic of school finance yet made. There are two parts of which Part 1 treats of public school costs and Part 2 of business management of the public schools. Under public school costs are "The legal capacity of the Board of Education to finance its schools," "The capacity of the city to support schools," "The relative degree of St. Louis (compared with twenty-one other cities of its class) to support schools," the proportionate division of current expenditures for various specific kinds of school service, the cost of the high schools and of teacher training. The entire inquiry is given point by the inclusion of about seventy tables and diagrams.

Without attempting to name, much less discuss, all of these statistical summaries, the mention of a few of them will indicate their worth in a consideration of school finance. One of the early tables gives the per capita wealth of each of the 22 cities and places St. Louis in sixth place. The relative ability of St. Louis to support its schools, other things being equal, is at once made clear. Two other tables compare all the cities of the class as to their expenditure for school purposes on the basis of each \$1,000 of property assessed. One of these, for the year 1913, is compiled from the "Financial Statistics of Cities" of the U.S. Bureau of Census. The data for the other—for 1915—is taken from the

¹ Rugg, H. O. "Finances."

Annual Report of the U.S. Bureau of Education. These two tables support one another, for each ranks St. Louis in twentieth place in the actual educational expenditure per \$1,000 of property assessed. This fact, that of 22 cities, St. Louis is No. 20 in the relative amount it spends on its schools taken with the previous fact that of the same 22 cities, St. Louis is No. 6 in its ability to pay for educational facilities will no doubt be a revelation to many of the St. Louis taxpayers. Some of the citizens, however, might urge that St. Louis has other civic obligations which it must satisfy. This matter is placed objectively before the ratepayers in tables which show that while St. Louis ranks 12th of the 23 cities of its class in its expenditures per inhabitant for all general municipal activities (including schools,) for schools alone it falls according to expenditure per inhabitant to 18th place. Knowledge of these facts should make St. Louis taxpayers willing to contribute larger sums to the support of their schools.

After placing before the reader the case of the ability of St. Louis to support its schools generously and just exactly how it compares with other cities of its class using various bases for computation, per \$1,000 of assessment, per inhabitant, etc. Professor Rugg devotes attention to the use made of the funds which St. Louis has annually placed at the disposal of its administrators of schools. For example, statistical tables and a diagram show that while the total *current* expenditure has increased with uniform regularity during the last twenty years, the total *permanent* outlay increased from the year 1900 to 1908, but since that time there has been a steady fall in the amount spent on permanent improvements within the system. Respecting the division of the funds devoted to current expenditure, tables indicate that St. Louis was No. 4 of the 22 cities in the year 1910, No. 2 in 1911, and No. 3 in 1912 in per cent. of current expenditure assigned to *business*¹ administration, while it

¹ In the St. Louis study of finance "business" administration includes offices in charge of finance, accounting, building and supplies; operation of building, i.e., salaries and expenses of janitors and engineers, fuel, water, light and power; and all maintenance, i.e., labor and materials in repairs and replacement of equipment. "Educational" functions are those dealing directly with instruction of pupils.

was No. 19, No. 21 and No. 20 for the same three years in its percentage of current expenditure given to *educational* administration. In other words, St. Louis is at the top of the list of cities of its class and appears to be generous in expenditure for the "business" administration of its schools. On the other hand, St. Louis is at the foot of the list of cities and would seem to be somewhat parsimonious in expenditure for its "educational" administration. How do the St. Louis school officials justify these facts?

Such statements are doubtless extremely illuminating to the officials within the system and should lead the school officers to consider whether the available funds are being applied in proper channels, and whether any department of the service is not receiving the proportion of money which is its due. If funds are being equitably distributed among the school departments, why then is there such a wide range of variability of practice among cities of the same class as is shown by the tables, diagrams, and accompanying text?

Similar studies are needed for Canadian cities. Other illustrations might be adduced to show the value to school officials and to taxpayers of the kind of discussion of the money affairs of a city school system which is afforded by such financial studies as the two from which quotations have been made in this chapter. The illustrations given are probably sufficient to demonstrate the great importance to school administrators of this type of financial discussion. They have been placed in this chapter devoted to Canadian school finance as illustrative of a technique enormously important but to which Canadian practice has so far made a surprisingly small contribution.

CHAPTER III.—RECOMMENDATIONS

The facts summarized in this chapter on Canadian city school finance reveal a very large amount of difference among the various provinces as to the legislation on finance which they have passed on to city school boards for execution. Differences also come to light as to financial methods among the school boards of individual provinces. Some of the plans briefly sketched contain features worthy of incorporation in the financial methods of other provinces and cities. An indication is given of this in the general comment interspersed throughout the chapter. With the intention of improving Canadian city school financial methods the following recommendations are offered.

1. That the members and officials of each city school board should scientifically evaluate the various financial methods and procedures which they employ in connection with their school administration.

2. That conferences of the officials of Canadian city school boards should be held with a view to bringing out the best features of the numerous financial methods and the setting up of new and better standards. The ultimate aim of the proposed conferences of officials would be the changing of financial method and procedure in the direction of the newly improved financial standards.

Some of the specific topics which should be discussed by the departmental officials of the provinces are:

(a) What are the advantages and disadvantages of city school boards securing school funds from the city councils as opposed to the plan of direct levy and collection by the school board?

(b) Should an upper limit of school funds be set for each city school board which the board could not legally exceed?

(c) Can city school boards profitably dispense with the services of a school treasurer and have all disbursements made on their warrant by the city treasurer?

(d) Should provincial money grants be paid directly to the teachers or to the school boards?

(e) What is the best basis for deciding the amount of provincial grants, viz., grade of certificate, the number of days school is in session, the population of the city, or other basis?

(f) What are the important features to be incorporated in issues of school bonds, e.g., best term of years, rate of interest, by whom issued, to be retired in equal annual instalments or at the end of the term of years, etc.?

It is further recommended:

3. That negotiations be entered into with bank officials in order to secure payment of interest on unused school funds.

4. That school accounting systems should be carefully scrutinized with a view to their revision and the incorporation in them of the best accounting methods and devices.

5. Respecting units of cost: That

(a) These should be computed at least annually.

(b) School costs should be reduced to units for each kind of school expenditure.

(c) Uniform methods and bases of the computations should be agreed upon by the officials of cities in the same class as to size, etc., so as to make possible scientific comparison.

6. That published discussions of school finance should be made at least annually. Special regard should be given to ways of making them intelligible and interesting to the ordinary taxpayer.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CHIEF EXECUTIVES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD— THE SECRETARY-TREASURER AND THE SUPERINTENDENT

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV.

This chapter treats of the powers and duties of the secretary-treasurer of the School Board and of the superintendent of schools. The leading facts in Canadian practice are brought out and critical and constructive comments are offered.

1. City school boards must delegate to officials work which they cannot themselves do. The officials usually appointed, although known by various titles, are secretary-treasurer and superintendent of schools.

2. The secretary-treasurer performs the usual duties appertaining to that office. Exceptions in Canadian practice are noted.

3. The superintendent of schools. Great variety is shown throughout Canada respecting the title, tenure of office, and qualifications of this official. The prevailing practices are summarized.

4. Illustrations are given of the duties of the superintendent of schools as defined in departmental rules and regulations and in school board by-laws.

5. Other duties of the superintendent of schools are shown in a summary of questionnaire answers.

6. Striking variety is shown in the functions, duties and powers of a Canadian Superintendent of Schools. This is true both as to details and to the general character of the work expected of him.

7. The following questions are raised:

(a) Should the responsibility for obtaining worthy results mean the actual performance of routine detail?

(b) Should the superintendent's duties be based on wide powers?

8. The administrative functions of the ideal superintendent working in ideal conditions are shown to be both legislative and executive. The superintendent's legislative work relates to:

(a) The correct relative proportion of school expenditures.

(b) The most effective organization of the staff and of the work each member shall perform.

(c) The definite detailing and editing of printed instructions to the teaching corps; such instructions to be regularly revised and codified.

(d) The formulation of future educational policies.

9. The superintendent's functions are also executive since his position lies midway between teachers and pupils on the one hand and the school board and taxpayers on the other. In the former case it is inspec-tional, supervisory and inspirational. In the latter it is informational and advisory.

10. The superintendent of schools of 34 cities out of 57 cities reporting, visited schools or attended profes-sional meetings in other cities during the years 1915-17. The traveling expenses of the official were paid by the board in 40 per cent. of the cases and by the official in the remainder.

11. Annual reports of Canadian city school boards or of their officials are examined. Illustrations are given of differences in content and of the relative im-portance of certain topics in these reports.

12. Illustrations are given of questionable and com-mendable features in annual reports. These are com-pared and comment is offered.

13. The consideration of the best types of annual reports should be a major topic at a conference of Can-adian School officials. Suggestions are made toward the development of improved standards for annual reports.

14. Three alternatives are proposed for school boards wishing to re-organize their central administration.

(a) "*Laissez-faire.*"

(b) Parallel departments of instruction, supply, buildings, etc., each responsible to the board.

(c) Departments as in (b) all responsible to a general manager (the superintendent of schools) who is in turn responsible to the board. This is the plan successfully followed in the business world.

15. The chapter closes with a series of recommendations.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CHIEF EXECUTIVES OF THE SCHOOL BOARD— THE SECRETARY-TREASURER AND THE SUPERINTENDENT

THE DELEGATION OF DUTIES TO OFFICIALS

The members of a city board of education cannot in actual practice carry out their own decisions. In early times they freely gave much valuable assistance, but with the growth of the city and expansion of school activities, it became necessary to employ officials who could devote their entire time to school business. The first of such officers, not elected by the people but appointed by the people's representatives to perform certain specific tasks was the Secretary-treasurer.¹ Later there arose the professional educational manager variously designated, Inspector,² Superintendent³ or Supervisor.⁴ In still more recent times other officials with special duties—the attendance or truant officer, medical inspector, school architect, superintendent of buildings and others—have been added to the central office management.

Canadian city school boards are by no means a unit in the prescription of the powers and duties of these officials. In some cities, one officer, and in others a different officer, has been the first to be employed for specific work because certain needs were at that time insistently calling for expert attention. Occasionally the creation of the new office has been due to the aggressive action of some one or two board members. Frequently the duties of the newly appointed official were not defined but were left to be determined as the scope of his work became more clearly evident. Often the members of the board only partially turned over to the officer the duties properly belonging to his office. As time has gone on, the cities have continued to grow, the schools

¹ As in Toronto and St. John.

² As in Hamilton, Ottawa and Vancouver.

³ As in Winnipeg and Calgary. In Toronto, Secretary-Treasurer until 1844, then "local superintendent" until 1871, then Inspector.

⁴ As in Halifax.

have still further increased their educational facilities and professional training to prepare educational experts has become still more necessary. Only the largest cities employed officials other than a Secretary-Treasurer and a general manager of the forces of instruction. There is much difference of opinion as to the powers and duties of these officials and regarding their relations to the board and to one another. A discussion of these matters is offered in this chapter.

THE SECRETARY-TREASURER.

VARIETY IN WORK AND RESPONSIBILITY

All school boards have found it necessary to engage a secretary. To him are assigned the usual duties of recording the minutes of meetings and conducting the correspondence of the board. But these duties are so intimately connected with other acts of the board, that quite generally the secretary is likewise the treasurer. Less frequently he has assumed in some cities, the professional direction of the teaching corps and in others approaches the position of a business agent, business manager, or commissioner of supplies.

There are a few very noteworthy exceptions to the secretary-treasurer, having only the usual duties pertaining to that office. For example, the boards of Protestant commissioners in the cities of Montreal and Westmount in the province of Quebec each have an official designated "Secretary-Superintendent." In Montreal, he is the chief executive officer, but in Westmount another official,—the Treasurer,—is the chief executive. In the remaining cities of Quebec, the board delegates its principal executive function to the Secretary-Treasurer. The secretary of the local Board of Education for the city of Guelph, Ontario, is also Inspector of Schools, the city treasurer being likewise the treasurer of school monies. In London also the treasurership of municipal and school funds is a joint office, but the secretary of the school board of that city is not otherwise a school official. The Board of Education in Sarnia, on the other hand, employs separate officials as secretary and treasurer and neither of these has any other connection with the schools. In British Columbia, the city boards

generally employ a secretary who may be, however, as in the city of Revelstoke, also a member of the board. The school funds of the cities of this province are separately accounted for by the city treasurer who pays salaries and all business debts on the warrant of the local school board. In several of the western cities, Winnipeg, Edmonton, and Calgary, the school board delegates much important business to the secretary-treasurer in addition to the usual duties of that office. In these cities the school supply material not purchased on tender is selected and purchased by the secretary-treasurer, and in Edmonton the preliminary negotiation respecting such financial matters as the purchase of school sites and the sale of school bonds is carried forward by the secretary-treasurer of the board.

In the smaller and medium sized cities, the secretary-treasurer performs a great variety of duties related to the business management of the schools, but, except for the few instances just noted, Canadian school boards do not delegate to the secretary-treasurer duty corresponding to that of the business manager of the commercial world. In the larger cities, there is a tendency as is already the case in Toronto to develop separate departments of Supply and Buildings, each in charge of an officer of the board. Within the limits defined by the regulations of the respective boards where such departments have grown up, each head closely approximates a "business manager" with the important difference that while the board has made the official its executive officer, as a matter of fact it frequently persists in being its own executive. The official is constantly hampered in his work by methods of supervision and inspection on the part of the board which consume time and yet are no longer adequate. Further comment respecting the duties of these officials will be offered in subsequent chapters. In passing, however, attention should be called to the great variety of these methods of managing the business departments of city schools. Can all be efficient? Which is most efficient? Have suitable standards of business management for city school systems been set up? Are Canadian school officials making any attempt to measure the efficiency of the various methods used in order to bring about improvements in their own methods?

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

His Title. The most important official of the board is the director of the teaching corps—whatever may be his title. Canadian practice in this respect is shown in the following table.

TABLE NO. 15.—THE TITLE OF THE HEAD OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM IN CANADIAN CITIES.

Title.	No. of Cities.
Inspector	20
Secretary-Treasurer	11
Superintendent	11
Supervisor	6
High School Principal	4
Secretary-Superintendent	2
Each Principal responsible directly to the Board	2

The chief executive ought to have a title distinctive and appropriate. Of the five or six in use in Canadian cities, "superintendent" is preferable. To the term "Secretary-Superintendent" applied in Montreal and Westmount little objection may be made. In this instance the work of secretary of the board and superintendent of schools is undertaken by a single official who is the familiar "General Manager and Secretary." The expression "secretary-treasurer" as official title for the chief executive of a city system of schools, used elsewhere in the province of Quebec, is clearly a misnomer. The real business of directing the educational activities is of far greater importance and significance, far more intricate and complex, than that of attending to the correspondence and receiving and expending school monies. The titles, supervisor in some maritime cities and inspector throughout Ontario and British Columbia are likewise objectionable. Both supervision and inspection are a portion of the total duty of these officials but only a portion. Moreover it is confidently affirmed that no Canadian supervisor or inspector of schools will concede that either supervision or inspection is his major duty. Then why adhere to a title which is no longer significant of the real work of the head of a city system of schools?

The chief educational executive in all cities should be designated "*Superintendent of Schools.*" This is his

title in the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. It is the invariable practice in the United States. As used in the industrial world, the term "superintendent" has come to possess a broad and precise significance. To be sure special legislation may make the terms "supervisor" or "inspector" just as comprehensive and just as definite, but neither of these words naturally possesses the breadth and precision of meaning ordinarily attached to the term "superintendent." Pages of definition of "duties of the inspector" enacted over the course of several decades, have failed to remove from the popular mind, from the minds of teachers and in some cases, it may be suspected, from the mind of the inspector himself, the impress of the narrow functions implied in the term. The title "superintendent" on the other hand of itself connotes much that no amount of special legislation and definition can succeed in giving to the other titles.

The Superintendent's Tenure of Office. More than two-thirds of the boards grant this officer an unlimited tenure. In the city of Hull, Quebec, appointment is made for three years. In Montreal the tenure is not limited, but in the other cities of Quebec and in a few other scattered cities—Sydney, Portage la Prairie, Prince Albert, Fredericton, Sault Ste. Marie, Fort William and Lethbridge, appointment is made annually.

The Superintendent's Qualifications. The qualifications of these officials are invariably high. Most of them had experience as teacher and principal for many years before assuming their present positions. As to their expert training,—in the province of Quebec, as pointed out above, the chief executive in the city systems is generally the secretary-treasurer and not necessarily a professionally trained educationist, the schools being visited regularly by Government Inspectors, who are not in fact local school board officials. In the provinces of Ontario and British Columbia on the other hand, the Government county Inspector is frequently also the head of the school system in the county town or other important city. In some cities such as Toronto, Ottawa, and Hamilton in Ontario, or Vancouver in British Columbia, one or more government Inspectors are also officials of the respective boards and are entirely

occupied directing the education of the city. Exclusive of the "Secretary-Superintendents" of the province of Quebec, more than eighty per cent. of the city directors of education are university graduates, many hold special inspectors' certificates and ten hold masters' or doctors' degrees. Only four and these in small cities, have a lower rank than the first class teacher's certificate.

DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT.

DEPARTMENTAL RULES AND CITY BY-LAWS

Information as to the duties and powers of the superintendent of schools may be secured in published departmental "rules and regulations" and also in the "by-laws" of several Canadian city school boards. In some instances the official must conform to the definitions of duty as set forth by both provincial and city authorities. In the province of Ontario, for example, the head of a city system of schools is generally the local provincial inspector or chief or senior inspector as in the larger cities of Toronto, Ottawa, and Hamilton. He holds a dual position with official relations to the provincial department of education on the one hand and to the local board on the other. His duties to the department include:

Visits to each school room in his inspectorate, the preparation of reports of each visit and of an annual report, the examination of all school premises as to their sanitary condition, the giving or withholding of his order for legislative grants and in general the discharge of "such duties as may be required by the Minister or Regulations. For the duties summarized the "inspector shall be directly responsible to the Minister of Education for the province."¹

If we turn to the by-laws of various city school boards, we find additional duties set down for the inspector. Few Canadian school boards however have published their "by-laws" or "rules and regulations" and thus made them accessible for study by students of school administration or by the officials and members of their own or other school boards. Generally such local legislation is the result of a long slow process of

¹Public Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec 101.

evolution. It may be found piecemeal from a careful reading of the minutes of the board meetings, but in comparatively few instances have the "rules" been recently collected, revised, arranged in orderly fashion and published in the form of a small book.

In addition to the departmental definition of duties summarized above, the Chief Inspector in Toronto according to the by-laws¹

"(1) shall preside at all meetings of the Board of Inspectors and shall:—

"(2) Prepare all reports regular and special required by the Board of Education, or any Committee thereof emanating from the Board of Inspectors.

"(3) Receive all reports required by the Education Department, from the Inspectors, and shall be held responsible for the delivery of the same to the Department.

"(4) Direct all examinations required by the Education Department or by the Board of Education, subject to the Regulations.

"(5) Attend all meetings of the Board of Education, the Management Committee and any Committee to which he may be summoned.

"(6) Spend from two to five in the afternoon of all school days and from 9 to 12 a.m. on Saturday in his office, and every forenoon of school days, as far as possible, in visiting the schools.

"(7) Shall, on or before the 1st day of May and November in each and every year, on the approval of the Board of Inspectors make a confidential report to the Management Committee giving the names of those teachers who should not be re-engaged by the Board for the following year."

The Public school board of the city of Ottawa² has

¹ By-laws of the Board of Education for the city of Toronto. Adopted April 26th, 1917. Sec. 87, 88, pp. 28, 29.

The city of Toronto has a Chief Inspector and seven district inspectors. There are 1,550 elementary school teachers. The city population in 1916 was 460,526.

² Rules and Regulations of the city of Ottawa Public School Board. Adopted Jan. 6th, 1916, pp. 37-39.

The city of Ottawa has a Senior Inspector and an assistant termed "Junior Inspector." There are 250 elementary school teachers. The city population in 1911 was 87,062.

also recently formulated and published its "rules and regulations." The work of the head of the System or Senior Inspector is carefully detailed and includes duties not evident in the formulation of duties for the Chief Inspector in Toronto. For example:

"4. He shall approve of all requisitions for school supplies used by teachers and pupils before the requisitions are filled by the Clerk of Supplies.

"7. He shall transfer pupils from one school to another only according to such conditions as may be fixed by the Management committee.

"10. He shall receive and approve or disapprove, and report in writing before they are sent to the furnishing committee, on all applications and requisitions for school furniture or furnishings, maps, text books, reference books, stationery, athletic, domestic science, manual training and kindergarten supplies and all other supplies for the use of teachers and pupils.

"21. He shall summon all meetings of teachers, supervisors, or nurses for conference with the inspectors.

"22. He shall assign to the school nurses their respective duties and be responsible for the way in which they carry out the instructions laid down for them by the Board.

"26. He shall have power to summarily suspend any teacher, supervisor, or school nurse in the employment of the Board for misconduct or insubordination, but such suspension must be immediately reported in writing to the chairman of the board."

Similarly, the following paragraphs applying to the Inspector of the Public Schools of Stratford¹ indicate that this official has duties differing from those of corresponding officials in Toronto and Ottawa.

¹ Stratford Public Schools Rules and Regulations. Adopted September, 1912, pp. 3 and 4.

The inspector in the city of Stratford also inspects county rural schools. There are 60 elementary school teachers in Stratford. The city population in 1911 was 12,946.

"2. He shall attend at his office every Saturday from 9.30 to 11.30 a.m., and fill all orders for supplies.

"3. He shall have a general supervision over and *be responsible for the organization, discipline and teaching in the schools.* . . .

"4. He shall prepare for submission to the Board at its regular meeting in September a report on the condition of the schools; giving full information as to the character of the discipline practised by each teacher, and the management of the class, the nature of the methods employed, the efficiency of the instruction given, the progress of the schools, together with such recommendations for their improvement as he may deem proper. He shall also report in detail the cases of teachers whose discipline or instruction is so inefficient as to require special consideration or action. He shall further make inquiry into and report upon the work of the caretakers; and as to the condition of the buildings, class rooms, furniture, apparatus and grounds; and shall make such suggestions for their improvement or preservation as he may think necessary.

"5. He shall communicate to the teachers or caretakers any regulations, instructions, or resolutions of the Board which relate to them. He shall see that the regulations of the Board are carried out, that the schools are taught the specified time each day, . . .

"6. He shall report monthly, at regular meetings of the Board, showing the enrolment of each class, the punctuality and attendance of teachers and pupils, the number of corporal punishments, etc., . . .

"7. He shall prescribe the limits of study for each class in accordance with the regulations of the Education Department. He shall see that a due proportion of time is given to each subject of instruction and that every subject is efficiently taught.

"8. He shall give to the Chairman of the Supply Committee an estimate of the school supplies required for the use of the schools during the following year, before the regular meeting of the Board in

May. He shall receive all school supplies purchased under the authority of the Supply Committee and shall be responsible for the proper keeping and distribution of the same.

"9. He shall see that teachers and caretakers give due attention to cleanliness, heating, lighting."

British Columbia furnishes another example of the dual position of the head of a city system of schools and also additional information as to the duties and powers which may be assigned to this official. For this province the detailed duties set forth in the handbooks of the Ontario city school boards are covered in general by the British Columbia School Act. This states that the "duties, functions and powers" of the "Municipal Inspector of Schools" shall be held to include

"(a) The assignment of teachers.

"(b) The determination of the schools which pupils shall respectively attend.

"(c) Advisory functions in respect to such matters as are within the official jurisdiction of the trustees.

"(d) Supervisory authority in all matters relating to school organization, instruction and discipline.

"(e) Responsibility to the superintendent of education in all matters relating to the performance of his duties."

As in Ontario, the inspector holds a dual position. He has functions to perform for the school board and its schools and others for the provincial department of education. But while clause (e) has its parallel in the Ontario Act, and emphasizes the relationship of the inspector to the department, clauses (a), (b), (c), (d) detailing the inspector's general duties toward teachers and schools have no parallel in the Ontario provincial law. Such matters are worked out locally by individual city school boards.

DETAILS OF DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT BROUGHT OUT BY QUESTIONNAIRE ANSWERS.

Additional information as to the functions of the superintendent of schools was secured through questionnaire answers. Teachers are nominated in 12 cities

exclusively by the chief school official and in these cases 90 per cent. or more or "mostly all" of the teachers so nominated are appointed by the respective school boards. Officials in 34 cities report that they have no such power. The Superintendent in no city makes appointment of teachers or other school employees without the action of the board. More than two-thirds of these officials have no power to dismiss employees. A government inspector may at any time, for cause, recommend the provincial education department to suspend or cancel a teacher's certificate. If the inspector is also head of the city system and his recommendation is acted upon, he has, in effect, power of dismissal. Such cases are rare.

In 66 per cent. of Canadian cities, the chief school executive makes no recommendation relative to teachers' salaries and in 86 per cent. none respecting the salaries of his assistants or of janitors. The cities in which he advises the board respecting salaries of teachers are Halifax, St. John, Moncton, Montreal, Ottawa, Brantford, Kingston, St. Thomas, Winnipeg, Brandon, Saskatoon, Vancouver and Victoria. In Montreal and Moose Jaw, advice respecting salaries of all the employees of the board is given by the chief executive of the board.

The superintendent of schools for Prince Albert is permitted to make "considerable" expenditure for supplies and in six other cities small incidental expenditures "under resolution" or "to be approved later" may be made by the head of the system, but in 39 cities no such power is granted.

In many Canadian cities, while public elementary and secondary education are controlled by one board of education, the system is not unified under the direction of a single official. This is the custom throughout the whole province of Ontario. In a few of the smaller Canadian cities such as Fredericton, Outremont, and Prince Albert, the head of the system is the principal of the high school. In Saskatoon and Regina there are separate boards and therefore separate officials for elementary and high schools. In the following cities, viz: Halifax, St. John, Moncton, Charlottetown, Winnipeg, Moose Jaw, Calgary, Edmonton, Medicine Hat, Vancouver and Victoria, the school system from kinder-

garten to high school graduation is unified under the direction of one official.

In the pursuance of his duties, the executive head attends the meetings of his board in all but five of the cities. In two thirds of the 42 cases reported, he gives information only when requested but in the remaining cities he takes part in the discussions of the board members.

The superintendent is engaged in teaching regular classes for one-half or more of his time in a few of the smaller cities, e.g. Fredericton, Fort William, Kitchener, Sault Ste. Marie and Lethbridge, but as a rule he does little if any regular teaching. In the city of Toronto the Chief Inspector¹ is required to spend the "forenoon of school days, as far as possible, in visiting the schools."² In actual practice his executive duties make this impossible. In Ottawa, the Senior Inspector, "shall attend at his office each school day from four to five p.m."³ Presumably the remainder of each school day is free for class room observation. "At least half" is actually so spent. In the city of Winnipeg, the superintendent "shall visit the schools and administer their government in every practical detail,"⁴ but there is "no rule" in Winnipeg nor in Brandon, Halifax nor St. John as to the proportion of time to be spent in visiting classes. In a few other cities, the head of the school system definitely says that he has no time to observe other teachers at work, but this is because he is himself engaged in teaching almost full time. In the great majority of city systems, the chief executive reports that he spends from one-half to nearly all of the school time each year in observing the class teaching of his staff.

There is little opportunity for revision of courses of study. For the most part these are definitely set down in provincial departmental regulations. The head of the school systems of Fredericton, Montreal, Westmount Portage la Prairie and Moose Jaw in each case reports that he has such power of revision, but an examination of the official rules and regulations indicates that such can be the case only in minor details.

¹ There are seven district inspectors.

² By-laws of the Board of Education, Toronto, p. 29 (6).

³ Rules and Regulations, Ottawa, p. 38 (12).

⁴ By-laws of the Winnipeg Public School Board, p. 25 (3).

The plans for new school buildings originate with the superintendent of schools in Moncton, Ottawa, Winnipeg, and Medicine Hat. In 39 other cities, the head of the system is consulted, but in Fredericton, Westmount, St. Hyacinthe and Weyburn he has no voice in the planning of new school buildings.

Six city superintendents or Inspectors for the cities of Lachine, Kitchener, Stratford, Woodstock, Windsor and Weyburn report that they do not receive necessary clerical assistance, but in 42 other cities such help is reported as satisfactory.

ASSISTANTS TO THE SUPERINTENDENT

The size of the city and the progressive character of the people and their school board are the obvious determinants as to what professional assistance shall be given the board's chief official. In 20 of the 57 Canadian cities reporting, there are professional assistants to the Superintendent or Inspector. The following table No. 16,* gives the facts as far as these could be obtained. It shows the number of teachers for each city, the type of assistance given whether general or special, the authority of the assistants, whether throughout the city or assigned to a district, by whom nominated, whether clerical assistance is supplied, etc.

COMMENTS ON TABLE NO. 16*

The facts of the table are worth consideration. It will be noted that a distinction is made as between supervision, and assistance of a general nature such as usually rendered by an assistant official of the rank of inspector, or superintendent with authority in connection with *all* phases of education on the one hand and the *special* supervision applying to a single subject such as Art or Music on the other. Practically all city boards which provide assistance to the head of their system do so by means of supervisors of one or more "*special*" subjects. Both the matter and the method of these newer subjects are difficult to define. Many teachers in good standing are at a loss as to the detail of such work and school boards find it economical to secure unification through the expert specially trained super-

* Table No. 16 was inadvertently omitted. It will be found on page 298.

visor. In the larger cities, assistants with wide scope and general authority are also furnished. As the table shows, these are sometimes given the title Inspector (Junior or Assistant) or Assistant Superintendent.

The plan of work usually adopted, is to divide the supervision of a special subject horizontally. For example, the supervision of Art (Toronto, Winnipeg), Physical Culture, (Calgary, Toronto, Winnipeg) with more than one supervisor in each instance is divided into upper and lower grades or into boys and girls. On the other hand a city is frequently divided vertically for the general type of assistance. The additional Inspector in a city is usually assigned to a district and becomes responsible under the head of the system for the entire conduct of the schools of his district. Calgary, Montreal (Prot.), Vancouver and Winnipeg are exceptions to this procedure. The plan of these four cities has much to commend it and would appear to be very productive of efficiency. It permits each of the various assistants to specialize in some department or group of departments of educational effort. Each can concentrate on the special type of work assigned to him and study to a finality, its many-sided character under local conditions or as administered in other cities.

The plan adopted in Toronto scarcely permits of this. The work of the seven district Inspectors is said to be unified under a "Chief Inspector." But the effort of the district inspectors must of necessity be very diffuse. In a large city school system there are truly vast fields of work, concerning which all is not yet known, which constantly vary as do the environmental conditions, and which are truly productive only when in operation under the most careful and intense study. For example, the pupils of first, fourth and eighth grades are different in physical and mental development and their instruction requires different modes of attack. The courses of study in all grades are built up on different theories and ought to be administered from the point of view of their different underlying principles. Night schools, vacation schools, open-air classes, classes for mentally deficient children, the relation of the school to the home, the vocational guidance of pupils in the upper grades, examinations, the measurement of the results of instruction, the minimum essentials, useless parts of the curriculum—

these are only a few of present day questions in progressive educational circles. Can each of the seven district inspectors in Toronto be absolutely "up-to-date" in the administration of each of these and scores of other topics which are arising in the schools of his inspectorate? Can he render maximum assistance to the principals and teachers? To these questions it might be said affirmatively, "Yes, to a certain extent." However, would it not be better to permit of specialization so that every inspector would not need to investigate everything and would have time to acquire the entire knowledge of certain departments to which he might be assigned for the entire city?

Two other comments may properly follow an examination of Table No. 16. The first is with respect to the tenure of office of assistants to the superintendent or chief inspector of schools. These officials in positions of importance and authority should have an unlimited tenure as is the case in the majority of cities. There should be no anxiety as to yearly re-engagement and no feeling that efficient work may be interfered with owing to an insecure tenure. The second comment is with respect to clerical help for all assistants. This matter receives mention elsewhere, but in this connection it may be remarked with genuine amazement that the Board of Education in a metropolitan city like Toronto still requires its highly paid supervisory officials to expend effort in keeping records, making reports and in conducting official correspondence in personal long-hand-work. This could be done by clerks at from one-third to one-half the salary and so arranged for would free the officials for the labors for which they are principally engaged.

FUNCTIONS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

STRIKING VARIETY AS TO DETAILS.

The remarkable feature brought out by these specific illustrations and general summaries of the functions of the chief executive along with the table showing the amount and kind of assistance he receives, is the lack of unanimity among the various cities of Canada. The size of the city, its location and other unavoidable factors are of course partly responsible for this variety, which is however, enormous and of two distinct sorts.

First, considerable variety is shown as to the *detail* of the superintendent's power. Is it possible that each of these detailed plans is that best suited to the Canadian city where it is in force? Which series of details is best suited in general? Each city demands of its superintendent a certain body of duties common to all and each a smaller number which may be found in one or more but not in all. Assuming that those rules and regulations, to be found in the duties of all chief school executives in Canadian cities, set forth perfectly proper functions of the superintendent, what may be said of the others? Are they also correct, and if so do omissions of these in any city indicate that the total summary of superintendent's duties is to that extent deficient?

By way of illustrating the dissimilarity, the following examples are offered. In the matter of school supplies, the Secretary-Superintendent of the Protestant schools of Montreal is authorized "to *provide* as may be arranged from time to time such school supplies as are used in connection with the Course of Study."¹ The Senior Inspector in Ottawa "*approves* of all requisitions" before they are filled by the Clerk of Supplies; the Toronto by-laws do not mention school supplies in connection with the duties of chief or district inspectors. Which of these plans make for the best form of school management? Again, in Ottawa, the senior Inspector directs the activities of the school nurses. In Winnipeg, Edmonton and other cities, this duty falls to another board official—the medical Inspector—who is in some cases responsible directly to the Board, while in Toronto the direction of school nurses has passed entirely out of the hands of school officials. Which of these methods is in the best interest of the children and makes for instantaneous and harmonious action? It is evident that there is a considerable lack of uniformity of duties as between the heads of Canadian city school systems.

Of course, this lack of uniformity is not necessarily a defect. If it could be shown that Canadian city school boards and provincial departments of education were making any effort to scientifically evaluate the various modes of procedure with respect to city school admin-

¹ Regulations for the Protestant Schools of Montreal. III. 1.

istration, there would be some light in the darkness. There is little if any such evidence. Doubt may again be expressed as to whether there is any general awareness on the part of either the board or its officials as to administrative procedures other than those locally in use. It is nevertheless a fact, that the outlines of duties of Canadian city superintendents are widely variant and certainly all cannot be correct.

DIFFERENCE IN THE GENERAL CHARACTER.

The second important comment to be made following a study of by-laws concerning Canadian city school superintendents relates to differences in the *general character* of the power of that official. In the city of Windsor, Ontario, for example, the Inspector, "shall perform all the duties belonging to his office *as defined in the School Law and the Regulations of the Education Department.*"¹ In Winnipeg, Manitoba, the superintendent of schools takes complete charge of the government of the schools, directs and controls the teaching, assigns teachers to their respective positions, and administers the government of the schools in every practical detail,—"*subject to the approval of the School Management Committee.*"²

In order to press home the contrast between the powers of these two officials taken as types in Canadian practice, it is necessary to examine the School Law under which the Windsor official performs his duties. It is shown therein that it is his duty³ to visit each school room in his inspectorate, to prepare a report of every visit, to make a general annual report, to forward these reports to his board and to the department, to report to the medical officer of health respecting the sanitary condition of the schools, to furnish the Minister of Education with any other information required, to withhold his order for grants of money if the school has been kept open less than six months, or if the board fails in making proper reports to the department, or otherwise fails to comply with the Act or Regulations, or if the teacher

¹ Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education of the city of Windsor, sec. 85.

² By-laws of the Winnipeg Public School Board, sec. VI.

³ The Public Schools Act, Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 89, sec. 101

uses or permits to be used unauthorised text books and to discharge such other duties as may be required by the Minister or Regulations. That is to say, the two officials are just as their titles indicate, "inspector" in Windsor, and "superintendent of Schools" in Winnipeg. It is true that the "inspector" in Windsor is required to prepare and submit annual reports as to the efficiency of the teachers and to offer suggestions "regarding the future working of the schools." It is likewise true that the "superintendent" in Winnipeg performs his functions "subject to the approval of the School Management Committee." The enlargement of power of the one and the apparent restriction of power in the other need deceive no one. The actual executive functions of a superintendent cloaked with power as in Winnipeg, Montreal and a few other Canadian cities closely approximates the ideal method on the executive side of city administration of schools.

SHOULD RESPONSIBILITY INCLUDE PERSONAL PERFORMANCE?

As a result of our exposition of facts and our comments based upon them, it has become clear that two factors operate in determining the functions of the superintendent of schools. These are first the size and second the progressive character of a city school system. The amount of detail which the chief executive can take charge of personally and the amount which he must delegate to others or leave undone depends upon the number of teachers, number of school buildings, number of pupils, and especially the number and complexity of educational innovations. The chief executive of a small system can attend to more detail than the leader in a large system. The chief executive of a large but relatively unprogressive system can perform more matters of routine and detail than the head of a medium size or small but extremely progressive system. Indeed it may be said on this point that a reliable measure of the position of any school system in a scale indicating the progressive character of such systems might be the amount of responsibility of the head of the system for all that transpires in it along with the amount of freedom from the actual performance of the detail. Here then is the

debatable ground, on which tradition entrenched in many city school systems joins issue with modern practice in a progressive few.

As for the limitations of the physical power of a superintendent of schools, there can be no dispute. The number of hours in any year during which he may work are pretty definitely determined and his powers of endurance are likewise limited. With regard to some of the duties enumerated in the school hand books from which quotations are made as above, we may presume that the board has neglected or refused to relieve the Superintendent, or the latter may simply have become accustomed to the performance of many petty details. His personal attention is expected for scores of trivial happenings in the schools and in his office. Perhaps the fault lies in principals and teachers not having been trained or not having been permitted to assume responsibility for routine acts. Perhaps a professional assistant at one-half the salary would at a stroke set the superintendent free to attack large vital problems. Another clerical assistant at one fourth the inspector's salary could free the head of the system from a vast quantity of detail for which he has not been trained and permit him to do the expert work for which he has been trained. In some fashion or other, circumstances have so combined, that small, time-consuming matters clamor for his attention and he has no leisure to even think of large policies.

No inspector for example, should spend his Saturday forenoon distributing pencils and paper¹ and principals should not be expected to call for these and other school supplies. Their time is too valuable to the board and would be better employed in other ways. A grocery clerk could count the pencils and parcel them up and janitors or a carter should deliver them. Approving requisitions for supplies before these are filled by the Clerk of Supplies should not be a duty of a Senior Inspector.² Such responsibility should rest between the school principal and the Clerk of Supplies.

These are matters, however, for the board to decide. Does the board in fact save money by making the superintendent responsible for hundreds of small things by

¹ See Stratford by-laws quoted above, p. 117. cl. 2.

² See Ottawa by-laws quoted above, p. 116, cl. 4.

the crude device of insisting that he shall do those small things himself? Is it real economy to insist on a three, four, five thousand dollar official doing work which might be done by another employee at \$600? Is the "master of detail" working long hours over petty acts preferable to the trained expert who is permitted to spend time in thinking with a vision of future needs? Should the board saddle its chief executive with a multiplicity of minor duties and thus compel him to neglect important school business which cannot be undertaken by any other employee or even by any other person in that city?

SHOULD THE SUPERINTENDENT'S DUTIES BE BASED ON
WIDE POWERS?

We have seen that the duties of the chief executive officer of Canadian city school systems as variously defined by printed rules and regulations and further elucidated by questionnaire answers comprise an infinite amount of minutiae. Are his duties in reality based fundamentally on wide powers? Let us consider a specific instance of school administration.

Suppose, for example, that a building has overcrowded classes and a vacant unfurnished class room. The following course must be followed in a certain metropolitan city.

(1) The principal informs the superintendent of schools.

(2) The superintendent places the matter before the board of assistant superintendents, at its next meeting, possibly three weeks later.

(3) The condition is reported to the management committee at its next meeting, five days later.

(4) The management committee reports to the board at its next meeting eight days later, asking authority to open an additional class and that the property committee be requested to provide the additional accommodation.

(5) The matter comes before the property committee at its next meeting—one week later.

(6) The matter is referred to the Superintendent of Buildings or objection is taken and it is referred back to the Board.

(7) If there is no objection, the superintendent of buildings proceeds to supply the necessary furniture, hathooks, etc., all of which is finally accomplished goodness only knows how many days later.

This is not a fictitious example and although in practice such a case might sometimes be submitted to a short-cut, both Canadian and American school principals will be able to cite similar and perhaps even more extreme examples. Meanwhile rooms are over-crowded, health is endangered, teachers working under disadvantageous circumstances fail to secure maximum results and children quickly learn bad habits of industry which later almost defy eradication.

What would probably happen in a well managed industrial establishment under comparable circumstances? Suppose that large "orders" to supply goods not already in stock are unexpectedly received. The general manager knows, that to produce profits for his stockholders, he must in one or more respects outdo his competitors. Return mail or the wire conveys agreement that the products shall be forthcoming on the day required in the order. There is no delay. Dispatches ordering extra equipment are sent off the same day and additional "hands" are told to report for duty. The only stages are

(1) Departmental manager reports the condition to the general manager.

(2) The general manager requisitions on the purchasing agent, and on the employment bureau.

There will be no disagreement with the statement that the Board of Education receive their warrant to administer education in the city from the taxpayers and from the provincial department of education. Therefore, they may delegate their responsibilities in accordance with their best judgment to appointed officials. An issue may be raised, however, as to the wisdom of making certain officials responsible and therefore assistant to the superintendent of schools. In Montreal and a few other Canadian cities, the superintendent of buildings, for example, is responsible and subordinate to the superintendent of schools. In Toronto, Hamilton,

Calgary and other cities, on the other hand, the superintendent of buildings is a colleague of the superintendent or inspector of schools, and is responsible directly to the Board.

In the United States¹ also this matter is still in an evolutionary condition and practice is not yet uniform. Of 30 large cities, the superintendent of buildings is subordinate to the superintendent of schools in 4 cities, he is co-operative in 5 cities, and he is independent in 21 cities. Of 55 cities with populations between 25,000 and 100,000, the superintendent of buildings is subordinate to the superintendent of schools in 17 cities, the two officials co-operate in 10 cities, and they are colleagues in 28 cities. All officials are generally supreme in the detail of their own departments but subordinate before the board to the superintendent of schools. Where re-organization is being effected, authority and responsibility are centralized, a more uniform system results, and the immediate responsiveness of all parts of the system is achieved.

When the taxpayer learns (and he is rapidly learning) to apply as accurate standards of measurement to the products of the educational plant as investors do to the material and financial returns of the commercial plant, certain reforms in educational administration will eventuate and this will be one of them. There will be one general manager for each city school system. The board will hold this one official responsible for the outcome of the schools. This official will be able to develop a business organization smoothly running in all its parts. Each step of responsibility will be precisely located. No official will be able to say that such and such could not be done or was not more expeditiously done because another official over whom he has no control and who cannot be made responsive except by round-about methods did not do so and so. Directors and stockholders, that is, board members and taxpayers, will not have such good occasion to say that valuable raw material is being wasted or otherwise subjected to loss. And if loss does occur, responsibility may be immediately and accurately located.

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S.: U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1917, No. 8. "Current Practice in City School Administration," p. 22.

Redress can at once be sought and obtained. With one general manager of the city educational system, the holders of stock and their board of directors in educational affairs can say to him, "How you shall organize and what shall be the executive procedure of you and your staff down to the youngest probationer are matters we leave to your expert professional training and experience. You alone are responsible for the total ultimate outcome,"

In general it may be said however, that the powers and duties of the Superintendent of schools, or chief executive otherwise designated in Canadian city school systems, are not so defined as to make the ideal administration possible. Many of these officials, have little voice in the engagement of teachers and other employees whose labors are a large factor in the success of the schools. These employees are not made to feel with positive assurance that re-engagement and advances in salary depend upon pleasing the superintendent with an efficient performance of school work. Rather they look to the board for salaries, and may figuratively at least, snap their fingers at the superintendent whom the board has made responsible.

Frequently too, as already shown, the chief executive is overburdened with minutiae while in large essentials his power is restricted either by customs long since outworn or by vague notions of the real function of a superintendent of schools. Let us now pass from the consideration of the actual administrative conditions in many school systems to the ideal conditions to be found partially at least in a few.

THE IDEAL SUPERINTENDENT IN IDEAL ADMINISTRATIVE CONDITIONS.

By means of quotations from official sources and of summaries of questionnaire answers, the discussion of this chapter has illustrated the powers and duties of the Superintendent of schools as practised in Canadian cities. These realities have been made the basis of some incidental comment. We shall now proceed to state more dogmatically what appears to be the best type of city school administration, from the point of view of the official who must in practice perform the major administrative tasks. What then, are the specific

powers which a school board should delegate to its superintendent and what specific duties ought it to expect him to perform? In a word, every power necessary to make the schools efficient, and the duties expected of him should be those of an administrator of cabinet rank. The Superintendent of schools should be supreme. He should have a direct commission to administer the school laws, rules and regulations which the provincial department of education and the school board have enacted. Vast sums of money are spent under his direction. Hundreds of public employees follow his instructions. The destinies of thousands of children are in his hands. If he is to be held responsible, the requisite power to control, to direct, to apply penalty and to give redress must be accorded to him. Such administrative responsibility presupposes the performance of duties which fall into two well defined classes, legislative and executive.

The Superintendent's Legislative Work. Legislative administration by a superintendent of schools includes four varieties of enactment. These are:—

1. First legislative enactment which will ensure that the expenditures for the different branches of educational effort will be relatively proportionate to their importance in progressive practice and in the view of the taxpayer. The superintendent's advice to the board in urging the initiation of new educational features and his instructions to the staff respecting the pursuance of older policies must be firmly based upon this principle of the maintenance of relative importance. This is secured through adequate administrative legislation.

2. In the second place, the necessary administrative legislation must be provided to the end that the staff shall be organized in the most effective manner for the services to be rendered. Partly this depends upon the power given to the superintendent by the board and partly it depends on the power given by the superintendent to the executive members of his staff. In the latter instance there is assumed the ability on the part of the superintendent to discover nascent capacity in those around him and that broad generous spirit which confidently assigns duties to assistants and begets confidence in those assistants that the native power is sufficient for the new task. It may seriously be doubted

whether any other single duty or ability on the part of the superintendent bulks so large in its possibilities for increasing the efficiency of a school system without the outlay of an additional penny. Such ability marks the born administrator.

3. Third, the superintendent's administrative legislative duties include carefully thought out and plainly and definitely worded instructions to the rank and file of the teaching corps. Such rules relate to outlines for teaching, to courses of study, to promotions, to general discipline, to fire drills, to the care of supplies and to scores of other matters which are general to the whole system. Such instructions should not be rambling, verbose, diffuse. They should not smack of simply being talked over with a stenographer to the extent of several pages and let go at that on the assumption that misconceptions can be cleared up by telephone and at worst another mimeographed circular letter may be dispatched to the same schools to-morrow. On the contrary, the superintendent should carefully organize such rules. They should receive the best editorial revision of which he is capable before being sent out to the hundreds of teachers who must interpret them and act in accordance with each individual interpretation. They should repeatedly be collected and codified. Such documents should be susceptible of only one possible interpretation. This ability and duty of a superintendent is born of experience. Nothing contributes more to the nervous irritability of a staff of teachers than failure on the part of the superintendent to appreciate the importance of this duty.

4. A fourth duty pertaining to the administrative legislation of the superintendent of schools is the formulation of policies to become operative in the future. A valid test of a superintendent is his ability to commit the present to his subordinates. The really great superintendent lives in the future. True, he must occupy himself to some extent with the present, but in reality the present in the schools exists largely in his administrative legislative past. His present is concerned with the future. This duty relates closely to the superintendent's power of leadership. Vision and power to formulate policies with respect to the future are useless if the com-

munity does not endorse the superintendent's present plans. He must have power to educate the community and to lead the school board to rely on his judgment regarding the progressive innovations which he advocates.

Executive Work under Ideal Conditions.—The legislative duties of a superintendent of schools are of enormous importance, but it is principally through his executive function that his worth as an administrator stands revealed to his staff, to the board and to the city. As a legislator the superintendent considers plans, organizes and formulates. The uninterrupted privacy of an inner office is necessary for such work. As the chief executive of the school system the superintendent passes from the quiet, thoughtful, close student of his own and other schools to a condition of extreme physical action. His acts are the public acts of a public official. This activity is shown in his utterances respecting school questions whether his audience is one or more of the professional members of his staff, one or more board members or one or more lay members of the community. His dealings with teachers, parents, and with citizens generally are evidence of the quality of legislation under which he works whether it be provincial, departmental, city board, or his own personal detailed elaboration of the legislation handed down to him. He becomes an executive officer. It is the executive side of the superintendent's administrative functions we must now consider.

The executive administrative functions of a city superintendent of schools look outward in two directions. He stands between the taxpayers as represented by members of parliament, officials of the education department and members of the school board on the one hand and the teaching corps and other school officials on the other. He sets the machinery in motion for effectively carrying out laws, rules, and regulations. His executive acts are either in pursuance of the performance of work by the board's other employees, or in pursuance of suitable reports of progress in the work assigned. His ultimate (though not most important) aim is to inform the board, the department and the people whether or not the policies decided upon and legislatively formulated are being carried into effect.

First—*Executive Work in the Schools*. Except in very large cities, the chief executive of the board endeavouring to carry out its policies completely and to secure a vital basis for subsequent additional legislative work should spend a considerable portion of the school day in the schools. In large cities, assistant superintendents, supervisors of special subjects and other departmental subordinates will act for the superintendent. He becomes the co-ordinator of all branches of the service. In the smaller cities, however, much of the superintendent's work lies in personal and intimate contact with principals, teachers and pupils. In ascending order of importance such work is inspectional, supervisory and inspirational. If any of these phases must be neglected, it should be the first. Energy expended on the last will produce the largest dividends, but all three are important.

A peculiarity of these three phases is their inclusive, combining, cumulative tendency. An inspector may "inspect" and do little else. If his visit to a class-room is that of a supervisor, inspection will in fact have taken place but in a very unobtrusive fashion. If the principal object of his visit is to help teachers and pupils to the higher levels of attainment, he will have achieved both supervision and inspection, although teachers and pupils will be conscious only of the spirit of helpfulness. As an inspirational force, the superintendent may, through conversation with individual teachers, be the means of exciting renewed and increased efforts. Most frequently, however, as an inspiration to greater and more refined results, he works through teachers' conferences, and by means of his public addresses. Still, on the days following the uplifting address, that superintendent who can and will enter the class-room, supervise the working out of some new outline or help teachers and pupils over some hard place, is doing more for the school board and the success of the schools than can be accomplished in a month of mere inspection. The teacher is encouraged to renewed effort, and redoubled energy. Small details of help which the superintendent can give toward the application of advanced educational theories assume gigantic proportions because they constitute just the necessary addition to the teacher's plans which make the theory as a whole workable—at least worth

trying. The superintendent's visits come to be looked forward to with pleasurable anticipation.

Second : *Executive Duties in Board Meetings.*—We have endeavoured to suggest the superintendent's principal executive functions as they radiate outward from the school board through every school building, every class-room and every playground to every official, principal, teacher, pupil and even the parents of the pupils. There remains to be discussed the superintendent's incoming administrative executive functions resulting from his being the representative before the school board, of every unit in the system. Such executive functions are either in the nature of reports to the board or of advice and recommendations looking to further advanced legislation. Both suggest once more the undisturbed quiet of the inner office or "study." Advice can be given only when correct standards have been set up on the basis of broad and accurate knowledge. Specifically such knowledge consists of information as to the best procedure with reference to the matter in hand, as to who is doing the best work in the field in question and as to where the best outcome of important policies may be seen. With the outlines of such knowledge in mind, and the minutiae of it readily accessible in reports from other cities in his bookcase, the superintendent may spread out on the table before him the details of corresponding information from his own schools. Study, analysis and comparison follow in natural sequence and prepare him to present his own formal reports and to advise his board with respect to future action. The superintendent, rich in such information regarding the schools of his own and other cities, need never be at a loss when contributing in an advisory executive capacity to the discussions of the school board.

This closes our discussion of the duties of the ideal superintendent of schools working under ideal conditions. It will be seen that the conception of these duties is that they are of two main sorts, legislative and executive, each having several aspects. It is not claimed that there is any striking demarcation between the two classes. Legislative duties have executive phases and executive duties often require legislation in carefully formulated rules and regulations in order that general

policies be brought to the desired consummation. It is maintained, however, that superintendent and school board should be keenly aware of the correct nature of the work of the chief educational official. That complete knowledge of this work in its broad outline as well as in detail and of its implications and possible results is essential to achieving those results would seem to be a truth requiring little demonstration.

ATTENDANCE OF SUPERINTENDENT AT PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS AND VISITS TO SEPARATE SCHOOLS OF OTHER CITIES.

Zeal and enthusiasm on the part of educators, both lay and professional, is shown by the realization of the value of securing an interchange of expert ideas. This may be brought about by attendance at annual meetings and through visits to the schools of other cities. The following table gives interesting data regarding the attendance of the chief officials of Canadian city school systems at teachers' Association meetings outside of the "home" city and also the visits of these officers to the schools of other cities. The travelling expenses of fourteen of these officials were paid by their school boards, and in twenty other cities the expense was a personal charge.

TABLE NO. 17.

Canadian cities whose Superintendent or Inspector of Schools attended Teachers' Association meetings and visited schools in 1915-16-17; showing meetings attended, city systems of schools visited and who paid travelling expenses. (Figures 2 and 3 indicate that Association was attended, or city schools were visited more than once during the three years.)

City.	Educational Meetings attended	Schools Visited.	Expenses paid by
Belleville, Ont.	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Official.
Brandon, Man.	Man. Ed. Asso. 3	Philadelphia (1913) ...	Board.
Brantford, Ont.	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Guelph, Toronto, London.	Board
Calgary, Alta.	Alta. Ed. Asso. 2	Toronto, Ottawa.	Official. (Ottawa)
Charlottetown, P.E.I.	Several Teachers' Conventions.	Official.
Chatham, Ont.	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	St. Thomas, London. ...	Official.
Edmonton, Alta.	Alta. Ed. Asso. 2	Toronto and Ontario schools, Winnipeg, West Calgary and Camrose.
Fort William, Ont.	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Official. Board.
Fredericton, N.B.	Teachers' Inst.	Official.
Guelph, Ont.	County Asso.	Official

TABLE NO. 17.—Continued.

City	Educational Meetings attended	Schools Visited	Expenses paid by
Hull, Que.....	Montreal.....	Montreal.....	Official.
Kingston, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Springfield, and Newton, Mass., Providence, R.I., Buffalo, N.Y., Brantford, Guelph, London.	Board (Visiting Schools)
Kitchener, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	London.....	Official.
Lachine, Que.....	Quebec Teachers' Convention 3	Westmount 2, Montreal, Verdun, McDonald College 2	Official
London, Ont.....	Detroit.....	Rochester.....	Board.
Medicine Hat, Alta.....	Alta. Ed. Asso. 2	Calgary.....	Official.
Montreal, Que.....	Dom. Ed. Asso. 2	New York, Rochester.	Board.
Moose Jaw, Sask.....	Prov. Asso. 3 Dom. Ed. Asso. N.E.A. Kansas City	Boston, Brookline, Newton, Toronto, Albany, Gary, Chicago, Kansas City, Winnipeg.	Board.
Ottawa, Ont.....	New York, Toronto.	Detroit, Gary, Cleveland, Rochester.....	Board.
Peterborough, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Toronto 2, Ottawa....	Official.
Portage la Prairie, Man...	Man. Ed. Asso. 3	Official.
Regina, Sask.....	Sask. Ed. Asso. 3	Official.
St. John, N.B.....	Philadelphia.....	Official.
Sarnia, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Chatham.....	Board pays expenses of 1 representative to O.E.A. each year.
Sault Ste. Marie, Ont....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Official.
Stratford, Ont.....	Several meetings.	Detroit.....	Board (to a small extent)
St. Thomas, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso. 3	Toronto 2, Chatham 3, London, Ottawa....	Board.
Toronto, Ont.....	Dom. Ed. Asso....	Official.
Vancouver, B.C.....	B.C. Ed. Asso....	Chicago, Boston, Montreal, Toronto, Winnipeg.....	Board.
Victoria, B.C.....	Royal Institute, Vancouver 2	Vancouver, Seattle....	Official.
Westmount, Que.....	Quebec Teachers' Asso. Dom. Asso.	Teachers' Training College, Montreal..	Board.
Windsor, Ont.....	Detroit, Guelph.....	Official.
Winnipeg, Man.....	Toronto 2, Boston, Chicago, Minneapolis.....	Board.
Woodstock, Ont.....	Ont. Ed. Asso....	London.....	Official.

ANNUAL REPORTS.

Contents in General.—Reports to the Board of Education constitute an important part of the superintendent's executive duties. In some cities, as, for example, Toronto, with a number of independent officials each responsible directly to the board for the administration of his department, the annual report of the chief inspector (containing statements from district inspectors) and those from the heads of the departments of supplies,

buildings, medical inspection and finance are bound together in a single volume designated the "Annual Report" of the board. In Ottawa a pamphlet is issued entitled "Inspector's Annual Report," while Victoria publishes "Financial Statistics for the Fiscal Year," evidently prepared by the Secretary of the Board. The entire annual report of the Winnipeg School Board for 1917 consists principally of reports of the finance, management, building and supply committees. These reports of committees, prepared for the most part by officials are addressed to the chairman and members of the Board. The Winnipeg volume also contains reports of the work of evening schools, medical inspection, and a list of teachers in the service of the board. The fourteenth annual report of the Trustees of Vancouver City schools contains retrospective addresses by the chairman of the board, and the chairman of the Management and Building Committees, as well as reports of officials. Printed reports were also received for the schools directed by the Board of Education of London and Protestant Board of School Commissioners of Montreal. Several cities forwarded typewritten statements of receipts and expenditures for the year and several other cities reported that the annual publication was temporarily discontinued. It may thus be seen that annual reports of school officials of certain Canadian cities are submitted to the school board in different forms and contain a variety of material. Few, however, are printed as pamphlets to be distributed to the members of the board and interested citizens.

SPECIFIC EXAMPLES OF CONTENT OF ANNUAL REPORTS.

Further examinations of the pamphlets received reveal striking differences in their context. Finance¹ is the only topic treated in all reports received. Attendance of pupils and certain facts relative to the teaching staff, *e.g.*, qualifications, date of appointment, years of experience and salary are dealt with in all reports except those purporting to be financial statements only. When report is made upon a single major topic, from two or more cities, thus permitting comparison and study, it is

¹ For discussion of "Finance in Canadian Reports," see Chapter III., p. 89 *ff.* For complete list, see Appendix A.

readily seen that the methods of treatment are very dissimilar. Consider for example the following three reports as to secondary schools :

(1) In *London, Ontario*, there is one high school building, the London Collegiate Institute, employing 28 teachers with a registered attendance for 1916 of 1,314 pupils. The report of the principal is included in the annual volume of the London Board of Education and is made up as follows :

TABLE NO. 18.—SUMMARY OF CONTENTS OF PRINCIPAL'S REPORT,
LONDON COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.¹

	Space in pages.
1. Letter of transmission, drawing attention to certain statistics and expressing appreciation for courtesy shown.....	1
2. Table showing for each member of the staff, name, qualification, years of experience, date of appointment, salary received.....	1
3. Attendance of pupils, 1915 and 1916, boys and girls, resident and non-resident, "lower," "middle," and "upper" schools, average daily attendance.....	1/2
4. Occupation of parents.....	1/6
5. Religious persuasion of pupils.....	1/6
6. Names of medalists and prize winners.....	1
7. Sports prize winners.....	1/6
8. Cadet Corps.....	1/6
9. Departmental Examination awards, 1916 :	
Scholarship Matriculation.	
Honor Matriculation.	
Entrance into the Faculties of Education.	
Normal Entrance.	
Matriculation.	
Lower School Normal Entrance.	
Commercial Department.	
} 4 1/2	
10. Night High School.....	1/3
11. Red Cross.....	1 1/3
Total space.....	10 1/3 pages.

(2) The Protestant Board of School Commissioners for *Montreal* has four high schools under its direction. The staff numbers 75 members and the enrollment (1916-17) was 1,429 pupils. The report of the board² embodies certain statistics respecting the high schools, *e.g.*, enrolment, religious persuasion, non-residents, numbers holding scholarships, numbers who pay no fee,

¹ Annual Report, 1916.

² Report of Protestant Board of School Commissioners, 1916-1917.

registration by grades or forms, numbers of classes for each grade or form, names of those awarded government and other scholarships with name of parent and address, etc., etc. These statistics are given in conjunction on the same pages with corresponding facts for the elementary schools. It is therefore difficult to set down accurately the actual space devoted in the Montreal report to information concerning the high schools, but the character as detailed above may easily be noted.

3. In *Toronto*, there are eight high schools with a total staff of 116 teachers and a registered attendance of 3,448 pupils. The "Senior Principal of High Schools" contributes information¹ which may be summed up as follows :

TABLE NO. 19.—SUMMARY OF CONTENTS OF ANNUAL REPORT OF SENIOR PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOLS, TORONTO.

	Space in pages.
1. Table showing number of teachers in each building	1
2. and 3. Tables showing for principals and assistants the name, degrees, school, rank and date of appointment	5
4 and 5. Tables giving attendance of pupils for each half year, for "lower," "middle," and "upper" schools of each building	1½
6. Table showing numbers of pupils who passed departmental and university examinations	½
Total space	8 pages

THESE EXAMPLES HAVE A COMMON BASIS FOR COMPARISON.

The annual reports of the work of the high schools made to the respective school boards in these three cities, London, Montreal and Toronto, should be fairly comparable. It is true that London has but one high school while Montreal and Toronto each have several secondary school buildings. Also, Toronto has more than twice as many pupils at the secondary level as either London or Montreal. Nevertheless the majority of the pupils in the three cities are of the same age, 14-18 years. Also in each city approximately the same courses of study are offered leading to the same occupations, viz., to the teaching profession, to further study in the universities,

¹ Annual Report, Board of Education, Toronto, 1916, pp. 6-13 .

or to various business or other life pursuits. Consequently it is not surprising to find certain identical statistical material in these reports. For example, London and Toronto each publish the name, qualifications, years of experience, date of appointment, etc., for each member of the staff. To this London high school report devotes one-tenth of its total. With regard to corresponding data, it would appear to be somewhat disproportionate that the Toronto report should devote five of a total of eight pages to facts relating to the high school teachers and give only two pages to reporting facts respecting the pupils.

SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN CONTENT.

It has already been remarked that the conditions respecting high school pupils in the three cities are very similar. Why then should London require $5\frac{1}{2}$ pages (items London, 6 and 9), as against Toronto's half page (item 6, Toronto) to report results of departmental, university and other examinations? Or, in other words, why does Toronto give only $\frac{1}{2}$ page to reporting the successful work of its high school pupils when London with less than half as many high school students considers it worth while to devote eleven times as much space in the annual report respecting their work? London (items London 4 and 5) and Montreal [see (2) p.140] each tabulate statistics respecting the occupations and religious persuasion of the parents of the students. Are these matters relevant in a report of high school progress? What use, if any, did the boards in London and Montreal make of the information? Why does the Toronto report omit corresponding data? If such facts were given would the Toronto board change its policy or would the Toronto High School teachers do more efficient work in the following year?

Perhaps both omission and inclusion of the facts quoted from the London, Montreal, and Toronto reports can be defended. Presumably the officials responsible for these facts have reasons for including them. It may be said for example, that the board members ask for such information or that similar information has been given in previous years and therefore should be given this year. Much depends upon the purpose of the report. The best

conceivable reason for publishing such data beyond that of having a summarized statement of the events of the year is that the workers will be encouraged, that taxpayers will become informed, and that progressive changes and so more efficient work will be brought about. As the statistics quoted above stand in the published volumes, the absence of all interpretative comment renders the material practically worthless. It is questionable if it is ever read. By its omission, the cost of printing could have been applied to better purpose.

OTHER QUESTIONABLE FEATURES OF ANNUAL REPORTS.

The same sort of criticism might be applied to other parts of several reports. For example, a table equal in size to eight pages of the volume is to be found in the Toronto report. This table shows the quantities of kindergarten supplies delivered to all the schools of the city during the year. It consists of the names of nearly 100 schools at the left and almost 80 vertical columns of figures representing quantities of various kinds of material. It is questionable whether this table, in the information which it conveys to the majority of people who may see it, is worth what it must have cost for composition and press-work. Another table of figures equal in size to five pages, also in the Toronto report, summarizes the work of the school nurses. It contains almost 50 names of nurses at the left and more than 60 vertical columns of exclusions, instructions, treatments, visits, totals, etc. Who reads such tables? The result of a poll taken three months after the distribution of the report as to what parts are read by the people who receive it would probably astonish the officials who gave it such painstaking preparation. Exception may likewise be taken to reports from other departments consisting for instance of many pages, one after the other, on which are printed one column of names of schools, followed by ten or more columns of figures, the whole without a word of explanation, or another table of almost 40 pages containing the name of every teacher on the staff, the grade of certificate of each and the date when each teacher entered the service of the board. Past question such information will

probably always be demanded by some board member or taxpayer. Officials will probably always be called upon to furnish such information when requested. But why include this type of specific knowledge, ninety per cent. of it unchanged, year after year in a printed report? Would not 25 mimeographed copies at one-tenth the cost serve every real purpose? Officials of Canadian city boards should discuss this matter in conference. They could save money for the taxpayers and give them more interesting and more illuminating reports.

ILLUSTRATION OF COMMENDABLE FEATURES.

The taxpayer is interested, for example, in pages of the Toronto report, which give facts and *discuss* the progress of his children, playgrounds, forest schools, medical inspection, the kindergarten-primary movement, the relationship of school and park, of school and public library, and of home and school. Even occasional brief discussion of such old-fashioned topics as reading and writing may become intensely interesting to mature adults who have scarcely been inside a class-room for twenty or thirty years. Ottawa members, parents and teachers are doubtless glad to read the non-technical accounts of "The Gary School" and the "Junior High School." The school superintendent who is too busy or who neglects for any reason to supply the people who pay his salary with such information is missing a grand opportunity and will eventually come to grief.

STANDARDS FOR ANNUAL REPORTS ARE NECESSARY.

At the conference just suggested several important questions would immediately come to the fore: What is an annual school report, what should it contain, who should make it, and to whom should it be made? Should school reports be made to the people? Should there be any difference between reports of professional officers to board members who are continually in close touch with all kinds of school matters and reports of the same officers and of the board to the people?

Should the average taxpayer be informed in a manner which he will understand respecting what is being done in the schools, why it is being done and what are the desirable plans for the future? Should he be told of

what is happening in other cities on the same page with that which is occurring in his own city? Should officials inform the parents of the school children of innovations and advanced movements in education as these are worked out elsewhere? Is it reasonable to expect the taxpayer to furnish the funds for new and admittedly good educational features if he does not know precisely what and why? Who should inform him? Should school authorities be satisfied with a simple demand of their legal rights as to educational receipts? Why does the taxpayer object to enlarging the funds devoted to the education of his own children? Has the cry of the business man—"It pays to advertise," any application in the administration of schools?

SUGGESTIONS FOR REORGANIZATION

The discussion of this chapter points to the advisability of certain forms of reorganization in Canadian city school administration. There may be an immediate need in some cities for some measure of change. In others improvement may gradually be secured as these increase in population and enlarge their educational facilities. It is probable that the administrators of any system will improve conditions if they will submit themselves to a methodical self-survey. Regarding the policy of a school board towards the head of their system, three courses are open.

(1) A policy of "*laissez-faire*" The superintendent may be permitted to continue his duties in terms of routine and detail as was unavoidable when the system was small. That this course is inexpedient seems to be self-evident.

(2) Some improvement may be secured by relieving the superintendent of much that is only remotely related to his major work of directing instruction, by the creation by the school board of such departments as school supplies, medical inspection, attendance, business management. These new departments will be *parallel* to the superintendent's department of instruction.

Many city school systems in both Canada and the United States and of indubitably high rank, have adopted this plan and it might seem to be a good course to pursue. The almost unanimous testimony of officers and teachers within such systems is that there is a clash

of authority. For example, the Superintendent of Supplies will claim to be overworked but he is angry at once if some other official in a case of emergency, asks permission to purchase, or purchases material without permission. Consequently, to obviate this contingency, less expeditious methods must be followed. Or the Building Commissioner is requested by a Principal and teachers to use certain warm tints for the walls of classrooms with a cold northern exposure. His preference, however, is for cool colors and so the request of principal and teachers is denied or forgotten. It is difficult to bring this sort of matter before the board. Or again, the truant or attendance officer may be assiduous in the performance of his duty as it was prescribed ten years ago, and yet if he is responsible to an outside body or even to the school board itself, instead of directly to the superintendent, much effort will be required to secure his co-operation in some of the newer methods of developing school attendance.

(3) The board seeking to reorganize its administrative officers may relieve the superintendent of schools of detail and routine duties as in (2), but may organize the new departments not in "parallel," but subordinate to that of the Superintendent of Schools. In the latter case, the entire school force and equipment will resemble in responsibility for work performed and in the relationship of each part to the remainder, a merger of manufacturing plants. The superintendent of schools is then the chief administrator and superintendent to the board. That the analogy between a large modern manufacturing plant or a transcontinental railroad system and a system of city schools should be perfect at the point of general management is here advocated. Each is a manufacturing establishment furnishing goods or service to the people. Each should be managed on business principles. The directors of the commercial house or of the railroad demand that their general manager show them dividends. To this end they centralize authority and responsibility. Principles of productive management only are discussed. Such men care nothing for tradition and precedent. Circuitous methods and red tape are abjured. Their slogan to the general manager is "get us increased dividends." There is no good reason why schools should not be man-

aged with a view to increased dividends in the form of the highest grade of efficient citizens. A contribution toward increase in economy, in ease of administration, in smooth working and in productive efficiency will be made by any school board which proceeds steadily in working out a policy of administration of its schools similar to that found to be so effective in the business world. To this end legislation should be sought if necessary which will make the Superintendent of Schools *ipso facto*, the general manager of the system.

CHAPTER IV.—RECOMMENDATIONS.

The facts brought out in this chapter with the resulting discussion should make clear the advisability of certain changes with the ultimate aim of improving the administration of Canadian city school systems.

It is therefore recommended:—

1. That the secretary-treasurer and superintendent of schools for each city carefully study and define his own functions, powers and duties.

2. That, this having been tentatively accomplished, provincial and dominion conferences of secretary-treasurers and superintendents of city school boards be held with a view to comparison and evaluation of duties. The aim of the proposed conferences would be to set up the highest possible standards of efficiency for these officials and then to secure a uniformly satisfactory restatement of functions, powers and duties in accordance with the newly formulated standards.

3. More specifically, it is recommended:—

(a) That, the chief executive of the School Board and administrator of the public educational facilities of a Canadian city shall be known as the "Superintendent of Schools."

(b) That, however his functions, powers, and duties may be detailed to suit the needs and requirements of each individual city, the "Superintendent of Schools" shall be held absolutely and entirely responsible for the satisfactory management of the schools and for the consistent advancement of the best interests of the children as determined by modern standards.

(c) That, in order to rest this responsibility fairly upon him, the "Superintendent of Schools" be given—

(1) An unlimited tenure of office.

(2) Necessary assistants both professional and clerical, commensurate with the size of the city and the progressive character of the board's educational policies.

(3) Wide powers as to the selection and promotion of all assistants of all ranks.

(4) Wide powers as to the organization of the teaching and supervisory personnel.

(5) Substantial encouragement to attend the great annual professional meetings and also to visit other cities for the purpose of examining the best educational practice as developed elsewhere.

(d) That officials make comparative and analytical studies of their annual reports with a view to improving these publications. This would be a productive major topic for official conference and under this heading would come such questions as:

(1) Who should make annual reports—the board, its committees or its officials?

(2) Is an annual report merely a summary of the year's events?

(3) Should an annual report contain any forecast of the future?

(4) Should annual reports be made to the people?

(5) Is it good business to inform the taxpayer with respect to desirable innovations which are being worked out elsewhere?

(6) What are the methods of making school reports interesting to the people?

(7) What are the differences in the mode of presentation of a report prepared by an official for the board and one for the people?

(8) What material now found in annual reports may be omitted entirely?

(9) Would it be sufficient to publish certain material every five years instead of annually?

(10) Would it be effective as well as economical to publish reports by sections in small pamphlets so that people would secure interesting portions in digestible quantities as well as those portions only in which they are particularly interested? e.g.: The Junior High School (Ottawa, Edmonton); School Lunches and Open Air Classes (Toronto). Co-operation of School Board and Public Library (Calgary), Retardation (Winnipeg), Evening Schools (Winnipeg), per capita costs of Education (any city).

CHAPTER V

THE TEACHING CORPS.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER V.

This chapter on Canadian city school administration gives the facts and offers comment on a variety of topics relating to the principal body of the staff—the teaching corps. The following is a summary:

1. Teachers like other workers are extremely sensitive in the matter of those official procedures which relate either to them or to their work.

2. Many high school principals and almost all elementary school principals are engaged in teaching a class full time.

3. The principal devotes much time to routine clerical duties.

(a) The official handbooks assign to him much that is merely clerical.

(b) He has not had specific (faculty of education) training in the duties of his office.

4. The principal's major function is supervision. But since (1) he must teach, (2) must perform the duties of a clerk and (3) has infrequently had any direct, academic training for supervision, his major function is often neglected.

5. School boards might secure more effective work from principals if they provided funds to the end that—

(a) The principal might be relieved of petty clerical duties.

(b) The principal might take short academic courses in school administration.

(c) The principal might visit the principals of other cities.

6. The qualifications of Canadian teachers both in education and experience are set forth.

7. The extent to which the Summer School for teachers has been established by Canadian departments

of education as a means of professional advancement is indicated.

8. The facts as to the method of selecting and appointing teachers are recited and a scientific method of "scoring" and appointing teachers is proposed.

9. The facts as to the tenure indicate great variety, but the yearly contract is required for all employees below the rank of principal in 46 of the 57 cities.

10. A course of procedure antecedent to dismissal for inefficiency is suggested. Final action as to dismissal rests with the board, but should follow the recommendation of the superintendent which in turn should be in line with the board's legislation.

11. Salary schedules for elementary and high schools, principals, assistants and special teachers of 17 cities are shown in tabular form. The principal bases which operate in the construction of the salary schedules are indicated.

12. Evaluation of present salary schemes and conferences of officials are suggested as a preliminary to devising more generally satisfactory schedules.

13. The custom as to payment of salary for absence through sickness is shown. Leave of absence to improve professional qualifications is occasionally requested and the amount of encouragement which school boards show in this regard is set forth.

14. A summary is given of provincial rules and regulations respecting text-books as to authorization and the use of unauthorized books. Sixteen cities report definitely that they make recommendations to provincial departments of education respecting text-books and five cities report definitely that their suggestions are acted upon.

15. The education department of the province of Ontario is the only provincial department which publishes school text-books. A table is given showing the extent to which other Canadian provinces have adopted the Ontario publications.

16. Comment is offered as to the advantages and disadvantages of provincial uniformity in text-books.

17. No record has been received that any Canadian high school furnishes text-books and supplies free to its pupils. Elementary school pupils of 29 cities of a total of 57 receive text-books free. Three cities collect a small fee. The provincial departments of the western provinces supply schools with certain text-books free. Of 52 cities 26 reply that they furnish all ordinary school supplies free and 13 furnish partial supplies free.

18. Facts are given as to the prevalence of the adoption in Canadian cities of certain miscellaneous features—manual training, household science, industrial training, special classes for defective or backward children, vacation schools and other educational agencies.

19. Comment is offered on the paucity in Canadian cities of certain educational innovations, with special references to the value of vacation schools. The arguments against the vacation schools, especially the financial objections are briefly examined. It is affirmed that the vacation school may be made a means of saving money to a school board.

20. The degree of connection between the public library and the public schools is shown. In 5 cities there are branch public libraries in school buildings and in 11 other cities, the public school teachers are accustomed to receive books in lots of 30 or 40 for use in class-rooms. In many schools and in all schools of the provinces of Quebec and Saskatchewan, there is a school library. The advantages of the closest possible intimacy of public library and public school are indicated.

21. The chapter closes with recommendations.

CHAPTER V.

THE TEACHING CORPS

ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES ARE INFLUENTIAL

Our study to this point has been concerned with problems arising on the upper administrative levels, and indeed, a superior quality of school output is largely dependent upon a co-ordinate, harmonious and thoroughly modern overhead organization. Yet the real burden of directing the youth onward from grade to grade falls immediately upon the rank and file of the profession—the principals and teachers. These are in actual daily contact with the pupils. Like other workers in raw materials, teachers are sensitive to those minutiae which hedge about specific duties and labors. Consequently such matters as the methods of selecting and appointing teachers, their training before and during service, the security of the position, impersonal supervision and helpful assistance have an administrative bearing extremely influential on the teacher's work and the final educational output. A consideration of Canadian practice in these connections with constructive comment will occupy our attention in this Chapter.

THE PRINCIPAL—FACTS AS TO HIS MAIN FUNCTION.

Leaving the central educational office of the City, we come to the individual school building, the administrative unit of the next level. Here we have pupils and teachers, the head of the establishment being known universally as the Principal. Among his duties is that of supervision. For this his time in many Canadian cities is deplorably meagre. Even in the High School, he frequently does much teaching. Of 57 cities reporting, in 9 city high schools, the principal is continuously engaged in teaching a regular class; in 9 others cities he teaches "90 per cent." or "almost full time"; in 3 cities more than 50 per cent of the time; in 5 cities less than 50 per cent., and in only 14 cities of the 57 reporting is the High School principal entirely free from the duties

of regular classes. The size of the school is frequently the deciding factor as in the city of Vancouver where the principal in a high school of 30 rooms does no teaching, while another in a 14-room building teaches half time. Fifteen school boards provide their high school principal with a clerk full time and in Vancouver and Calgary, high schools have a clerk for half time, but in 22 cities the principal of the high school receives no clerical assistance.

Elementary school principals in the cities of Montreal, Westmount, and in large schools in Toronto and Winnipeg are not required to teach regular classes. In schools of medium size in Toronto, and in some schools of Ottawa and Lachine, the principal teaches half time, and in Hamilton, Calgary and Vancouver, principals teach almost full time. Elsewhere in Canadian cities the principal of elementary schools assumes the full amount of regular class work. Only four cities report clerical assistance for these principals. The Protestant Board of Montreal provides an assistant for the principal of its large schools. In medium size schools of Toronto the principal and a lady assistant are together responsible for the teaching of the senior class. The assistant is assigned to routine clerical duties and teaches half time, during which the principal is free for supervisory duty. Two other cities report a small amount of clerical assistance for their elementary school principals. The custom governing the relationship of the non-teaching principal to the size of the school building so far as there are cases in Canadian cities is shown by the following summary of facts.

TABLE No. 20.—THE SIZE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN CANADIAN CITIES IN WHICH THE PRINCIPAL IS ENTIRELY FREE FOR SUPERVISORY DUTY.

Cities.	Number of rooms in building.	Number of Non- teaching Principals.
Montreal.....	12 or more	25
Winnipeg.....	15 or more.	11
Hamilton.....	18 or more.	2
Toronto.....	25 or more.	4

DUTIES OF PRINCIPALS AS DETAILED IN HAND BOOKS.

Some of the specific duties of principals as set forth in the rules and regulations of various Canadian city school boards are:

"To receive and distribute supplies and keep an accurate accounting of all school materials."

"To admit new pupils."

"To transfer pupils to other schools in accordance with the regulations of the board."

"To properly classify and promote the pupils."

"To conduct examinations."

"To conduct monthly fire drills."

"To see that the flag is hoisted on certain national holidays and on other days when the school board so orders."

"To arrange for public exercises at the close of the term and to preside over the same."

"To see that the class teachers are present at the commencement of each session of the school and if not to follow the usual method of securing substitutes."

"To attend to all special cases of discipline."

"To make reports to the Truant officer every Friday evening."

"To report to the Property Committee as to the efficiency of the janitor respecting minor repairs, the cleanliness of the building and the care of lawns and flower beds."

"To see that the doors are not locked when pupils are in the building."

"To see that no persons use the playground other than pupils, except with the authority of the board."

"To require pupils to leave the building at the close of the school session except when in charge of a teacher."

"To keep the register of attendance of teachers."

"To prepare and forward a report each month to the superintendent."

"To supervise the amount of home-work assigned to pupils."

"To exercise close supervision over the course of instruction and methods of presentation employed in it."

"To secure the cheerful and faithful co-operation of teachers."

"To hold monthly meetings of the staff."

“To read to the pupils from time to time such regulations as they should know.”

Teaching the senior class either in whole or in part in most schools, must be added to this list of duties.

One is impelled to ask many different questions after studying the items quoted. For example—Does the work of a principal in any individual Canadian city differ in essentials from the work of a principal in other Canadian cities? If not, why is there such variety in his duties as detailed in the hand-books? Why have boards of education found it necessary to list in such minute detail, the duties of their school principals? Does any single list contain all the duties of a school principal? Is there any list in existence which contains in detail all the duties of a principal? Is it not trivial to set down in the printed rules such items as the receiving and distribution of supplies? Is it not obvious that a major duty of a principal is to secure the cheerful and faithful co-operation of teachers? How many minor acts can a principal perform in a day along with his major functions? What are the essential tasks which a principal must undertake?

Beyond question, the details quoted and many others similar must receive attention and upon the principal rests the burden—either in himself or through subordinates—of securing efficient performance. The fact that the duties are so minutely set forth would seem to imply that in the judgment of the board, neglect can be prevented only by the detailed formulation of these duties. Such a formulation has a real historical basis and persists to-day through the suspicion perhaps that the principal just appointed may omit something through lack of specific training in the duties of the office. This deficiency, whenever it does exist, is his misfortune rather than his fault and the reason for it is not far to seek.

SPECIFIC TRAINING IN DUTIES OF PRINCIPAL NOT PROVIDED.

Hitherto teacher training schools in Canada have been compelled to devote almost their entire attention to developing the technique of class-room instruction. There has been small opportunity for courses specially

designed to equip teachers to act as principals. Moreover, the material of such courses can be properly assimilated only by teachers who have already consolidated their class-room practice through an experience of several years. Such courses are, in the main, open only to those teachers whose ambition leads them and finances permit them to take leave of absence for such study. For training as principal, therefore, the new incumbent has to rely on the example of those principals under whom he may have taught as assistant. The practice which has come under his observation and which is his sole guidance may or may not have been good. It in turn has not been scientifically developed, but has grown up in haphazard fashion, based mainly on the ways and means of custom and tradition. Herein lies the first cause of inefficient work in many schools. The principal no less than the worker in any other highly specialized field should be given training in the more important tasks of the office and such training he very rarely receives.

THE PRINCIPAL TEACHES A CLASS AND ATTENDS TO ROUTINE DUTIES

Since, in general practice, the principal teaches a class "full time" and in addition must attend to a multiplicity of routine tasks which are definitely set down as his duties and which frequently cannot be even temporarily postponed, he is not permitted to perform the major functions of his office. For no one will seriously contend that distributing chalk, scanning the register to see if the staff are present on time, doing police duty in the playground and adjacent streets after school hours, and making out monthly statistical reports to the superintendent are major functions. Still some one must actually perform these and many other similar duties and many of them must be performed without delay.

It will forever remain a mystery why many school boards persist in compelling an official at a salary of \$1,500-\$3,000 to do office work which he has not been trained to do and which a clerk at a salary of \$600-\$900 could do infinitely better, while at the same time this official is compelled to neglect the very tasks he ought to perform. This is an illustration of what has been termed "saving at the spigot while losing at the bung."

THE PRINCIPAL'S MAJOR FUNCTION SHOULD BE
SUPERVISION

The question is thus fairly raised as to what constitutes the duty of a principal. Without taking space to debate the fitness of each duty quoted from the handbooks, we may with propriety affirm that one important function of a principal is active interest in the progress of the pupils of his school. A small but important sample of our modern attempts at expedition and brevity is the title "principal" to designate the head of a school. It should not be forgotten that he was originally the principal or head *teacher* and class-room work should still be his most important concern.

In saying that the principal should be actively concerned in the work of teaching, we do not mean to advocate his being assigned to regular duties in the senior class-room. Briefly then, the major function of a school principal is the supervision of all of the activities of his teachers and their pupils. This is the specific work which he all too frequently is compelled to neglect. Clerical and administrative duties of the office type along with duties of instruction in his own class-room and in some instances, at least, lack of supervisory training, prevent his doing the really important work of his position. From time to time, inexperienced teachers join his staff or substitute teachers come in temporarily. Can any more important work be conceived than the advice, support and a little "showing how" which the adept in supervision ought to give under such circumstances? When can principals devise and try out plans for the objective measuring of the results of instruction? When can they study such problems as possible weaknesses in the grading of their classes, necessary changes in the course of study to parallel actual changes in city life, the relation of the school to the surrounding community, supervised study, the junior high school and other problems whose solution would improve our education?

Supervision of this type, the major function of the school principal, is practically an impossibility under the

conditions which obtain in many Canadian cities. Moreover, the loss arising from insufficient supervision of the constructive kind, owing to the fancied economy of the school board, falls chiefly on the children. Their instruction and training under a system parsimonious at this point cannot possibly be all that is desired so that the loss eventually comes back to the taxpayer. He receives in the main what he pays for. It is believed however, that if the case could be squarely placed before him, any opposition he offers to additional expenditure would be withdrawn in view of the better grade of service he would receive. His instructions to his representatives on the school board should on this point be definitely for a change of system.

That there are routine clerical details in connection with the office of school principal there is no doubt. That these must be borne by the principal in small schools there is, in the nature of the case, no question. But that they should be carried by the principal in medium and large schools to the neglect of the principal's supervisory function is surely not the part of wisdom. The principal should be free to support the teacher, to offer helpful criticism of lesson plans and classroom methods, to see and commend strong efforts when these are put forth and to provide encouragement in the face of apparent failure. Circumstances should be such as to permit him to retire to his office in order to think and to plan for the future. He ought to be a sympathetic constructive leader with time to listen to the detailed accounts of the trials and difficulties of his staff and to provide uplift for renewed endeavor.

THE PRINCIPAL'S ADMINISTRATION IS IMPORTANT.
HOW IT MAY BE IMPROVED

Leading authorities in school administration have been so seized with the importance of the school principal as a force in education that the statement "As is the principal, so is the school" has with them come to be more than a mere aphorism, rather the expression of a profound truth. It would be a great gain to the cause of education if the reliability of the adage could be borne in upon the minds of administrative officers,

both lay and professional, and if all school principals could be led to measure up to the height of their responsibility and opportunity. Professor Edward C. Elliott says:

“Upon the independence, skill and qualities of leadership of the principal depend primarily the ideals, standards and achievements of teachers and pupils.”¹

Professor Ellwood P. Cubberley writes in almost the same terms, adding:

“The best of supervisory organization cannot make a strong school where the principal is weak and inefficient, while a strong and capable principal can develop a strong school even in cities where the general supervisory organization is notoriously weak and ineffective and the professional interests of the teachers notoriously low.”²

The school boards of Montreal, Toronto, Hamilton and Winnipeg should compare notes on this matter. Is the Montreal principal idle who, in a twelve-room building has no regular class and has assistance for the clerical work of his school? Is the teaching of the common branches in the Toronto school of medium size suffering for lack of helpful sympathetic leadership? In which of these cities is there the best opportunity for the development of staff co-operation and unity of purpose? Have various principals in these cities expressed independent opinion? Which of these boards is correct in its assignment of duties to its principals? School boards in the final outcome would find two sorts of additional expenditure exceedingly profitable:

1. Money spent in providing assistance for the principal in order that he may have time and opportunity to exercise the major duties of his office—the supervision of the teaching in his building.

2. Money spent in sending principals to some advanced school of education to take short courses in methods of school supervision.

3. Money spent in sending principals to the best conducted schools in other cities for the purpose of observing the work of principals of outstanding success.

¹ School Supervision, p 30.

² Public School Administration, p. 191.

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS

EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

High qualifications both in academic and professional training are expected of those Canadian teachers who aspire to become "principals." More than 80 per cent. of high school principals are University graduates and many of these hold the higher degrees. Almost all have received the best professional training, holding first class certificates, academic licenses or the high school specialist certificate. There are no city regulations or provincial laws governing the amount of teaching experience which must be had before a candidate is eligible for a high school principalship, but invariably he must have "considerable" or "mature" or "several" years experience before a school board will appoint him to the direction of a high school or collegiate institute.

Only 25 per cent. of Canadian city elementary school principals have lower than first class professional certificates. The Board of Education of Toronto makes an exception of small three-room elementary schools and may appoint as principals, teachers with second class certificates provided the candidate ranks high in personal qualifications and has had valuable experience. Principals of elementary schools in the city of Edmonton must hold first class professional certificates and if in addition they possess the bachelor's degree they are given an advanced position on the salary schedule. Winnipeg, Saskatoon and Montreal are other cities which strongly favor college graduates as principals of elementary schools.

Assistant high school teachers in Canadian cities are in the great majority of cases university graduates with first class professional certificates. A small minority of teachers of academic subjects have the latter qualifications only and are given duties with first and second year classes. The other exceptions are teachers of Art, Manual Training, Household Science, Physical Culture and Commercial work. Most of these teachers are specialists in their subjects, both as to content and professional training. Sixty per cent. of the boards will appoint only experienced teachers for high school assistants but several others have no absolute rule.

Elementary school assistants must almost invariably have at least a second class certificate or its equivalent to secure appointment to the teaching staff of a Canadian city. Some of the smaller cities of the province of Quebec accept the "elementary diploma" and Charlottetown and North Battleford will appoint teachers with third class certificates if none others are available. The cities of St. John and Fredericton, on the other hand, expect assistants joining the staff to hold first class professional certificates. Six cities report "no requirement" or "no rule" as to teaching experience previous to appointment. Calgary and Brandon expect applicants to have had at least one year of class-room practice. All other cities require two or three or several years experience.

No Canadian city has fixed the lower age limit at which teachers may be admitted to the staff. The usual high school, normal school, or faculty of education training along with the custom of expecting previous teaching experience make an age younger than twenty years rather infrequent. Only two cities have any ruling whatever as to age. Toronto will not appoint women teachers over 30 years of age nor men over 35 years. Additions to the staff in the city of Ottawa must be under 30 at the time of appointment.

THE SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

One method of advancing professional training which attracts increasing attention is by means of the "Summer School." The number of teachers in attendance at such schools had surged forward with increasing volume in the years immediately preceding the world war. At first, opportunity offered only in American Cities but in the last five years the movement has gone steadily ahead in Canada. The departments of education for most of the provinces now conduct summer schools for the additional training of teachers and by offering various substantial inducements such as free transportation and free instruction have encouraged the teachers to enroll in the courses offered. The following table gives an indication of the attendance by the city teachers during the last three years.

TABLE NO. 21.—SUMMER SCHOOLS. ATTENDANCE OF CITY TEACHERS.

Province.	Total Enrolment from Cities			No. of Professors of Education in 1918
	1916	1917	1918	
Nova Scotia.....	192	148	131	15
New Brunswick.....	123	97	151*	4
Prince Edward Island..	65
Quebec.....	171	77
Ontario.....	782	600	582	92
Manitoba.....	22	27	44	27
Saskatchewan.....	106	176	131	23
Alberta.....	169	168	136	36
British Columbia.....	...	124	...	38

* Includes 82 students enrolled in special courses given in January.

The attitude of provincial departments of education and universities is well typified by the following extracts from summer school bulletins of the province of Saskatchewan :

"The first session of the Summer School was held at the University in 1914. For three years the Department of Education assumed responsibility for its direction and support. In 1917 at the request of the Department, the University took over the management of the School, the Department continuing its support of the Courses for Teachers. In this year the University also offered classes leading to a degree. The Courses for teachers were intended to stimulate instruction in Agriculture, Household Science, Nature Study, Art and Elementary Science in the schools of the Province."

"Attendance at the Summer School is not compulsory. It is felt that progressive teachers will try to improve their standing in every way possible and will not miss any opportunity to fit themselves for educational reconstruction and adaptation."

The courses offered include Nature Study, Agriculture, Training of Specialists in the teaching of French, Art, Household Science, Kindergarten, Primary, Manual Training, Physical Culture, Vocal Music, Entrance to Normal Schools and University Faculty of Education, Commercial.

The movement is evidence of the realization by departments of education, universities and normal schools that teacher-training equipment should not remain idle at the time when teachers regularly in service are free to receive additional instruction and thus increase their teaching power. In the United States some school boards have made attendance at the summer school one of the forms of advancing professional equipment upon which re-engagement on the staff is contingent. In Canadian cities the teacher's tenure is relatively more stable than in the United States, so that one strong incentive for work at a summer school has been lacking.

Some teachers about to accept new positions are glad to avail themselves of the inspiration to be gained at a summer school and discover as well that the month or six weeks of the long vacation is not employed entirely in hard work and is in reality intensely enjoyable. City boards of education already aware of the value to their schools of reinspired, revitalized teachers, will implement the inducements offered by the provincial departments. Bonuses, promotions on the staff, and salaries not detrimentally interfered with, are due to become the custom rather than the exception.

THE SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS. CANADIAN FACTS

Appointments, whether of principals or assistants of all high and elementary Canadian city schools, are made by the local school board. The principal of the High School of 90 per cent of the cities is nominated by the board or its management committee. In Toronto, the nomination to fill a vacant high school principalship is presented by the senior principal of high schools; in London by the provincial high school inspector, and in Winnipeg, Medicine Hat and Victoria by the superintendent of schools or municipal inspector. High school assistants are nominated by the principal in 25 cities,

by the superintendent of one city, and by the board in 24 other cities. Elementary school principals are nominated by the supervisor, superintendent or inspector in 14 cities and by the board in 32 other cities. Regular grade teachers are nominated by the head of the system in 16 cities, and by the board in 35 cities.

THE TREND IN AMERICAN CITIES.

It may thus be seen that nominations for all grades of teaching positions in Canadian cities still remain largely at the immediate will of the school board, although there is a pronounced tendency to place this responsibility upon the head of the system. In the United States the question came predominantly to the front in 1899 when the Chicago Educational Commission recommended that the superintendent make all promotions, transfers and dismissals of teachers and report his action to the board of education. Since that time the practice in American cities is becoming more general. In 28 of the 42 cities with a population greater than 100,000, and in 101 of the 141 cities with a population between 25,000 and 100,000 the selection and nomination of teachers rests entirely with the superintendent.¹ Ohio has made the method obligatory by state enactment.

THE METHOD OF APPOINTMENT IN GENERAL USE.

The plan for securing additional teachers in most frequent use in Canadian cities is as follows: By advertisement or otherwise vacancies are made known and written application is invited. This is frequently supplemented by personal interviews of the applicants and their friends or relatives with the members of the board. The superintendent or inspector and management or teachers' committee consider all the correspondence and the public and private pressure which has been brought to bear, and as the result of their deliberations the names of certain applicants for the positions are submitted to the board. Other board members not on the committee express their views often leading to

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S. : U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1917, No. 8, "Current Practice in City School Administration." Table No. 5, pp. 54-66.

changes in the committee report. Finally, the board as expressed by the vote of the majority, makes the appointments.

This mode of procedure is contrary to the prevailing custom in the commercial world. There, stockholders, and their board of directors generally view appointments only in the light of results to be obtained. The general manager of the plant is held responsible for the quality of product and the amount of the dividend. Similarly the school board in order to advance and maintain the efficiency of its plant retains an inspector or superintendent of schools as its educational expert and manager. He, better than any other, should know in general the peculiar personal and professional characteristics necessary to secure excellent results in the various departments of the school plant. Hence, the school board should say to their expert and manager, "We delegate to you the management of our schools. We expect you to develop a high degree of excellence in the output and we give you the power which will parallel this responsibility." If the board does not so legislate that the members of the staff must realize that powers of nomination, advancement and retention are essential functions of their educational expert, they hold back an extremely potent force for good management.

PRINCIPLES OPERATIVE IN FORMULATING A GOOD METHOD.

But the power so necessary to good management is a delegated power. It arises in the school board. Hence the school board should provide the legislation and instruct their superintendent to administer the by-laws which they have formulated. The following series of principles to serve as the basis of right legislative action are those laid down by Professor E. P. Cubberley and "represent conditions which ought to prevail."

1. The superintendent of schools should nominate all teachers, principals, supervisors and assistant superintendents in writing, to the Board of Education for election or for promotion. In the case of elementary-school teachers the election should be to a position in the schools, all assignments to positions being left to the superintendent.

"2. The board may either confirm or disapprove his nominations, but should have no power of substituting other names of its own choice.

"3. In case any nomination is disapproved, the superintendent should then nominate a new person for the position.

"4. The board should be permitted to elect, without such nomination, only in case the superintendent refuses to make a nomination.

"5. The members of the Board of Education should refer all applicants to the superintendent of schools, and refuse to discuss positions with them. To this end the board should announce that, by rule, it has given the power of nomination to the superintendent, and that the members do not desire applicants or their friends to visit them on the matter.¹

SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN MAKING APPOINTMENTS.

With the suggested legislation and with instructions from the board to secure the best available talent for all future vacancies, it is incumbent upon the superintendent to proceed scientifically. His professional existence depends largely upon securing the highest grade of specialist and teacher whom he can attract to his staff. He will desire to make no mistakes in the personnel whose names he presents to the board. The following suggestions are set forth as worthy of assumption in the development of a scientific method of making appointments.

ASSUMPTIONS UPON WHICH THE PROPOSED SCIENTIFIC METHOD OF APPOINTMENT IS BASED.

The plan herein sketched for the appointment of new members to a city teaching corps is based on the following assumed principles:

First.—The community is entitled to the best service its funds, appropriated for public education, will secure.

Second.—The superintendent of schools should be absolutely responsible to the school board and the people

¹ Public School Administration, p. 206.

for the efficiency of his staff and should be clothed with power commensurate with this responsibility.

Third.—Nominations to be presented to the school board for appointment to the staff constitute an extremely important function of the superintendent of schools and should be made on the basis of approved scientific method.

Fourth.—Senior subordinate officials such as supervisors and principals should invariably be called in consultation with the superintendent preliminary to nominations to their particular branches of the service.

Fifth.—Teachers, whether just entering the service or already a part of it will respect opinion, advice and decision much more highly when they observe the working of this unified centralized authority.

SCORE CARDS IN THE SUPERINTENDENT'S OFFICE.

In order that the method may be truly scientific, the superintendent must be able to act out of the fulness of a complete fund of accurate knowledge of the characteristics required and of definite information as to where desirable people are to be found. Each of these types of information should be collected, concisely compiled, studied and filed away so as to be available for immediate reference.

First.—He ought to set up standards of the qualifications necessary for each class of work to be done, for assistant superintendent, for supervisor, for art, domestic science, kindergarten and other special teachers and for high and elementary school principals and assistants. All of these standards should be worked out separately and impersonally and should be definitely formulated. This will require a broad knowledge of expert opinion to be obtained from the specialists of other cities similarly situated, and from the faculties of university departments of education and of normal schools. Having gathered this information from many sources and compiled it, the superintendent should study his data and remove it from the realm of vague generality. The professional and personal abilities and capacities required in each official or grade of teacher must be determined, evaluated and scaled as to relative importance. When this is accomplished, ratings in such indefinite language as "excellent," "good," "fair," "poor," must be trans-

lated into mathematical terms and the whole then built up on a percentage basis. The result will be a series of appropriate score cards. From these the proper blank card—Elementary, Principal, Music Supervisor, Kindergarten, etc., may be selected for each applicant or person to be considered for a position on the staff, necessary facts and figures entered upon it with respect to the individual, and the whole summed up and filed for future use.

THE SEARCH FOR HIGH GRADE ASSISTANTS AND USE OF SCORE CARD.

In the second place the superintendent should be continually on the alert for teachers and officials not on his staff, but whose *scores* according to the plan just outlined indicate that they would constitute valuable additions. To this end, he must, well in advance of need, enter into correspondence with professional schools and with others likely to know of desirable people and with the people themselves. By this means he will secure applications from good candidates and the consent, at least, of others to be considered as applicants. He may now procure the supplementary information respecting the applicants and score each according to plan.

The proposed score card¹ will require revision and further refinement from time to time, but a comparatively crude first attempt in the general direction indicated will be of much assistance in the determination of the best material offering for vacancies. With completed score cards, systematically filed, the superintendent is enabled at short notice, if necessary, to consider applicants on the basis of a total score which has been developed scientifically and impersonally. Chance whim, external influence, and mere memory are eliminated. Furthermore, to obviate possible loss through delay, the superintendent should forecast from time to time the number of teachers probably needed for the ensuing term and secure the provisional appointment of this number in advance of the actual vacancies. Safeguards could easily be provided on both sides and the appointees could be notified of their positions on the list and the probable date on which they would be required to report for duty.

¹ See Appendix "G" for sample of card to record rating of teachers already in service.

THE TEACHER'S TENURE.

The discussion of the methods of selecting and appointing teachers brings another question of importance into view. The term of office, once appointment has been made, is a feature of school administration which looms large to the teacher. Nothing has a more sinister influence on class-room efficiency than an unstable tenure. The grocery clerk, stenographer, telephone operator, and chauffeur retain their positions unchallenged as long as their services are satisfactory, and, in the main, this is likewise true of the teacher. Yet it has become a well-established tradition in many of our school systems to hang over the teacher's head the sword of Damocles in the form of a legal contract made out for the term of a single year.

THE USUAL VARIETY EXHIBITED IN CANADIAN FACTS.

The following summary of Canadian practice is derived from the answers to the questionnaire. In 34 cities, the tenure of the high school principal is "unlimited," "not fixed," or "at the pleasure of the board." In one city it is three years and in 16 cities it is yearly. From high school assistants and all elementary school teachers, in the cities of British Columbia and a few cities elsewhere in Canada,—Toronto, Ottawa, London, Fort William, Chatham, Portage la Prairie, and Brandon, yearly contracts are not exacted, but in 46 other Canadian cities, the board and teachers annually enter into a formal agreement. The contract for a single year is so general that probationary terms are rare. However, the school board of Saskatoon places its new teachers on trial for three months, in Medicine Hat, the probationary term is four or six months, in Toronto, Vancouver and New Westminster for six months, in Calgary and Victoria one or two terms, while in Ottawa teachers may be on probation for two years.

Few Canadian school boards place any obstacle in the way of teachers who can secure better positions in another city. Five cities report that resignations are not accepted before the completion of the term of contract. Many cities include a clause in their agreement providing for its termination after thirty days' notice on either side,

and in any province, the inconsiderate action of a teacher to a school board might lead to the cancellation of the license or certificate. In general, however, granting that a suitable substitute can be obtained, school boards are not disposed to exact the absolute letter of the law in cases where teachers wish to resign to accept more advantageous positions.

The school board alone in Canadian cities has the right to dismiss a teacher when such action is found necessary. In 20 cities, however, the inspector, supervisor, or superintendent may suspend teachers although 30 other city boards retain the sole right of suspension along with dismissal.

A CORRESPONDING CONDITION IN AMERICAN CITIES.

The foregoing summary once more demonstrates the great variety in Canadian school administrative practice, shown in this instance in the tenure of teachers in the cities of Canada. An examination of a similar summary of the methods in use in American cities reveals the same lack of uniformity. For example, 49 cities with population of 25,000 or more grant their teachers "permanent tenure after the probationary term," while 21 cities of the same class do not grant "permanent" tenure. That is to say, in these 21 cities, the method of contract renewable from year to year is in force. In 70 cities there is no probationary term, while in 84 cities teachers are placed "on trial" for terms varying from one month to four years.¹

As previously stated, variety is, in itself, not a fault. Possibly every method in use has its advantages, but probably some one method or combination of methods is, on the whole, most advantageous. An effort should be made to secure an evaluation of the various tenure plans with the aim of determining which is preferable and towards this aim the administrative officers in each city should contribute by making a careful analysis of the local plan.

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S.: "Current Practice in City Schools Administration." U.S. Bureau of Education, 1917, Bulletin No. 8, Table 5.

INDEFINITE TENURE, SUSPENSION AND DISMISSAL.
SUGGESTED PROCEDURE IN CASE OF INEFFICIENCY.

Most students of school administration favor an indefinite tenure for teachers after a probationary period of two or three years has been satisfactorily passed. The length of the trial term would depend on the previous experience of the individual, and when longer than one year annual reappointments could be made until the teacher was given indefinite tenure.

Improper conduct is the only reason for suspending a teacher from duty and of this the head of the system should be the judge. Summary dismissal is a serious matter, but such action should immediately follow well authenticated gross impropriety. For marked inefficiency in professional duties, resort must occasionally be had to dismissal from the staff, but the course preceding dismissal for inefficiency should be slow and deliberate. The principal, inspector or other official should point out deficiencies and show how these may be overcome. Time to make good the defects should be allowed and definite assistance in methods of teaching or of discipline should repeatedly be given. Frequently a teacher who is a failure in one grade will do passably well in another grade. . . Sometimes a transfer from one school to another will promote more efficient work. If warnings and devices fail to produce the desired improvement, specific causes for resignation should be furnished in writing and if necessary dismissal should follow. To retain an inferior teacher after the failure of so many endeavors to effect better work, is to regard the teacher's position more highly than the development of thirty or forty children. Assistance repeatedly given by supervisory officials, changes from grade to grade or from school to school—all unavailing—will have thoroughly demonstrated to the teacher and his friends that the causes for failure are inherent and insurmountable.

The final decision and action in most cities rests with the school board. Before taking action the members should have before them the superintendent's report in writing indicating the causes of failure. There should be recited also the specific devices which have been followed in the effort to remedy the inefficient work. These should be in accordance with the procedure which

the board has previously set up and authorized for the purpose. With such a report as basis for action, questionable administrative procedure becomes improbable. The members of the board will indicate that they consider it inadvisable to act in an executive capacity in opposition to their legislation. They do not set themselves up as educational experts but show that they have confidence in their legislation and in the judgment and ability of the educational expert whom they have employed to head their system.

The members of the board following such a course relieve themselves of all charges as to the influence of lodge, politics, religion and nepotism. They show that they consider that the only just basis for decision is the welfare of the children. The inspector or superintendent of schools occasionally prefers to shirk the responsibility involved. Nevertheless, capable management requires this duty of him. As with selection and nomination, so with dismissal, full power should be given to the head of the system. He will occasionally commit a blunder, but he is responsible for the efficiency of the schools. It is quite unlikely that he will ask any teacher to withdraw whose work is well done. If his conduct of such cases embodies the plan suggested above, several months, even a year or two will elapse before he asks the teacher to sever his connection with the schools. There will have been calm deliberation, no haste and sufficient time to bring about improved work if this is possible. Indeed, improved work generally is possible. Even if it does not result from the plan sketched above, very infrequently will resort be necessary to enforced dismissal. The teacher himself will have become thoroughly aware of the impossible character of his case and voluntary resignation will ensue.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

No part of school board legislation requires greater care in its development than those rules and regulations which relate to teachers' salaries. The annual expenditure of a board for the salaries of class-room teachers is larger than for any other part of the service. Yet compensation for instructing youth, considering the cost of preparing for the work, the labor involved both physical

and mental, and the importance to the community and to the state of the service rendered, has been regarded as low by those whose judgment is valued. In recent years, however, a realization of the worth of good teaching has spread and a desire to attract the best available service bids fair to become universal.¹

Salary schedules are not at hand for all Canadian cities, but from those received an attempt has been made to select corresponding facts for tabulation and comparison. The following tables result—Nos. 22-25.

With reference to Tables Nos. 22 and 24, it may be remarked that while Montreal and Toronto are comparable as to population there are relatively more teachers under direction of the Toronto Board of Education than under the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of Montreal. A similar remark may be made for the city of Ottawa. Owing to the large proportion of supporters of the Roman Catholic separate schools in Ottawa, there are relatively fewer teachers under the direction of the Ottawa Board of Education than under the school boards of the other cities.

For all cities in both tables where possible the amounts of minimum and maximum salaries and annual increase are given for the various classes of teachers. A view of the essential facts for the salaries of the teachers of any city may be obtained by reading downward under the name of the city selected for study. Taking a section across the table for any class of teacher many interesting comparisons may be made. Certain basic principles for the determination of salaries in the different cities come prominently into view upon instituting these comparisons.

¹ The following tabulations of salary schedules apply mainly to the year 1918. In many cities the actual compensation has been increased since the tables were constructed. The significant feature of the tables is the discovery of the large variety of basic principles upon which the respective salary schedules are made to rest.

THE TEACHING CORPS

TABLE No. 22.—PRINCIPAL FACTS FROM SALARY SCHEDULES OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CANADIAN CITIES OF POPULATION 100,000 AND OVER.

High Schools.	MONTREAL.			TORONTO.			WINNIPEG.			VANCOUVER.			HAMILTON.			OTTAWA.		
	Annual Min.	Annual Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.
Principals,	3000	2700	3000	3400	3000	3600	3000	100	3600	2520	3600	2520	3600	100	2600	2600	100	3500
Vice-Principals	2600	1500	2600	2600	100	2600	1560	12280	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2600	1800	100	2400
Head of Dept.	1500	1500	2400	2400	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Assistants :																		
Gr. 1-3	1500	100	1900	1500	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 4	2100	100	2300	2300	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 5	2300	100	2500	2500	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 6	2500	100	2700	2700	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 7	2700	100	2900	2900	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 8	2900	100	3100	3100	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 9	3100	100	3300	3300	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 10	3300	100	3500	3500	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 11	3500	100	3700	3700	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 12	3700	100	3900	3900	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 13	3900	100	4100	4100	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 14	4100	100	4300	4300	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 15	4300	100	4500	4500	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 16	4500	100	4700	4700	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 17	4700	100	4900	4900	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 18	4900	100	5100	5100	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 19	5100	100	5300	5300	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Gr. 20	5300	100	5500	5500	2000	2500	1560	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Manual Training	2200	100	2200	2200	1700	2400	1320	120	2400	1320	2400	1320	2400	100	2400	1400	100	2200
Domestic Sci.	30	100	1100	1400	1200	1800	960	60	1320	960	1320	960	1320	100	1000	1000	100	1000

* Men. † Women. ** Women who teach boys. †† Women who teach girls.

TABLE NO. 23.—PRINCIPAL FACTS FROM SALARY SCHEDULES OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CANADIAN CITIES OF POPULATION OF UNDER 100,000.

High Schools.	LONDON.			CALGARY.			EDMONTON.			ST. JOHN.			VICTORIA.		
	Annual Min.	Annual Inc.	Annual Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.
Principal.....	1800	100	2000	2500	100	3000	2500	100	3000	2640
Head of Department.....	1600	100	1900	1800*	100	2300	1800*	100	2300	1500*	120
Assistant Specialist.....	1500	100	1800	1800	100	2400	1600†	100	2100	1200†	120
Assistant.....	1500	100	1800	1800	100	2400	1600†	100	2100	1200†	1980

High Schools.	REGINA.			PEYTERBOROUGH.			MOOSE JAW.			BRANDON.			MONCTON.			FREDERICTON.		
	Annual Min.	Annual Inc.	Annual Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.
Principal.....	2800	3500	2200	100	2700	2400	100	3000
Vice-Principal.....	2500	100	3000	1700	100	2000	1800	100	2400
Head Dept.....	2000*	100	2500	1400	50	1600	1600	100	2200	1600	100	2200	1600	100	2200	1600	100	2200
Assistant.....	1400†	50	1900

* Men.

† Women.

a University degree and First Class Certificate.

b First Class Certificate.

c Salary of grade teacher plus \$100 for one or two rooms and \$50 for each additional room.

d Salary of grade teacher plus \$100.

e According to experience, length of service, size of school, etc.

f Increased by Government Grant paid to the teacher.

g Grants scale up from \$81-\$400 per year according to

men or women, first or second or grammar school certificate, and length of service first or second year, third to seventh years, or eighth year upward.

h \$60 per year in addition to schedule salary.

i Second Class Certificate.

j Part time only.

k Increased by Government Grant paid to teacher. Grants are \$130 for first class certificate and \$100 for second class certificate.

TABLE No. 24.—PRINCIPAL FACTS FROM SALARY SCHEDULES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CANADIAN CITIES OF POPULATION OF 100,000 AND OVER.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.	MONTREAL.		TORONTO.		WINNIPEG.		VANCOUVER.				HAMILTON.			OTTAWA.			
	Min.	Annual Inc.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	Min.	Inc. Max.	
Principals.	1500	100	2500a	1800	100	2700	100	3000	1800	120	2520	1800	100	2600	1800	100	2600
Vice-Principals	1300b	1500	100	2400	100	2800	1680	120	2160	1400	100	1800
Male Assis- tants.	1500†	100	2000	1320	120	680
Female Assis- tants.	800	50	1 00	1200	100	1800	1140	120	1680	1300	100	1 00c	100	1600d
	Gr. 1-3	Gr. 1-4	Gr. 1-4
	650	25	850	700	50	1400	800	50 f	1250	720	60	1140	600c	50	650	50	1200d
	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 5-8
	675	25	875	825	50	275	1200	500d	50	900	750	1300e
	Gr. 5, 6
	700	25	900
	Gr. 7
	750	25	950
Kindergarten Director
Kindergarten Assistants	650	25	850	650	50	850
Kindergarten Pri. all day	325	25	425	550	50	650
Manual Training.	650	25	850	700	50	1400
House old Sci.	1200	1800	1300	100	2000	1300	100	1800	1200	100	1800	1300
Women.	850	950	750	50	1400	900	100	1200	840	120g	1200	550

† Women.
 a In addition a bonus of \$100-\$400 for schools of 900 or more pupils in which the principal gives entire time to supervision.
 b Maximum salary for principal of schools not containing full quota of regular grades. Principal may or may not teach a regular class.
 c First class certificate.
 d Second class certificate.
 e Entire day.
 f Increase commences in third year.
 g \$120 for each of first two years; \$60 for each succeeding year until maximum is reached.

TABLE No. 25.—PRINCIPAL FACTS FROM SALARY SCHEDULES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CANADIAN CITIES OF POPULATION UNDER 100,000.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	LONDON			CALGARY			EDMONTON			ST. JOHN			VICTORIA				
	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.		
Principals.....	12 rms. or 7-11 rooms	1800	100	2000	8 rms. or 1500	100	2200	8 rms. or 1800	100	2300a	725	1600e	larg e schools	1500*	90	2100
	1300	100	1800	1600	100	2100b	larg e schools	1620†
	1200	100	1600	Men & Women	850	75	1200	Small schools
Vice-Principals.....	Men & Women	1200	100	1500	850	75	1200d	960	60	1500g
	800*	100	1200	Men & Women	1000	100	1200	1200*	75	1500	First assistant in charge school
Assistants.....	Ex perience	1000	100	1200	850*	75	1200	900*	60	1500
	500†	50	900	750†	75	1100

Kindergarten Directors.....	500	50	900
Kindergarten Assistants.....	500	50	800
Manual Training.....	1000	100	1400
Household Science.....	500	50	900

* Men. † Women. ‡ Women, Junior. N.B.—Refer to footnotes on page 175.

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TABLE No. 25.—(Continued)—PRINCIPAL FACTS FROM SALARY SCHEDULES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CANADIAN CITIES OF POPULATION UNDER 100,000.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.	REGINA			PETERBOROUGH			MOOSE JAW			BRANDON			MONCTON			FREDERICTON			
	Annual Min.	Annual Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	Min.	Inc.	Max.	
Principals	Large schools 1700	100	2500	1400	50	1600	9	rooms 1600	100	2000	1400	15	rooms 1900*	918	1230				
	Small schools no schedule						8	rooms, or less 1400	100	1800	1200	10	rooms 1500†						
	Large schools										1000	50	rooms 1200†						
Vice-Principals	1400*	100	1800	1000*	50	1250													
	Gr. 1, 8			700†	50	900	750	62	100	750	50	Gr. 1-5							
Assistants	825†	50	1200	600†	50	850	750	50	95	800	50	Gr. 6							
	Gr. 2-7			800	50	1200	850	50	1150	800	50	Gr. 7							
										850	50	Gr. 8							
										900	50	Gr. 8							
Kindergarten Directors	800		1200				550	50	750										
Manual Training	1500		1700	700	50	900	1200	100	1600	1100									
Household Sci.	1200		1400	600	50	700	800	100	1200	1000									

* Men.

† Women.

Note—Refer to footnote on page 175.

PRINCIPLES UPON WHICH SALARY SCHEDULES ARE BASED
BY CANADIAN SCHOOL BOARDS.

First, regarding the sex of the teacher. In Toronto high schools, for example, no distinction is drawn as between men and women assistants. The opposite is the case in the high schools of Montreal, Winnipeg, Vancouver, Edmonton, and Victoria. Similar comparisons may be made as to salaries of teachers with respect to sex in the elementary schools.

Second, the qualifications of the teacher. The cities of Hamilton and Edmonton pay increased salaries to teachers possessing extraordinary academic and professional qualifications and incorporate this principle in their salary schedule. As with Toronto, Vancouver, and other cities, a teacher must, for example, possess certain qualifications in order to receive a principalship. But if, in addition, the qualification possessed by teachers in Hamilton and Edmonton is higher than the minimum qualification set, the salary is correspondingly increased.

Third, the grade taught. In the elementary schools of Winnipeg, the grade taught is a factor in the determination of salaries, the minimum salary for the first four grades being \$25, \$50, \$100, and \$150 less than the minimum salaries for grades 5, 6, 7 and 8 respectively. There are corresponding differences in the maximum salaries in these grades. The grade taught is similarly a salary determinant in the Protestant schools of Montreal, both elementary and high, and in the schools of Brandon, Ottawa, and Victoria. On the other hand, the grade taught does not enter into salary calculations by the board members in Toronto, Vancouver, Hamilton, London and other Canadian cities. The teachers of the lower grades in the latter cities receive salaries on exactly the same basis as teachers of the same sex of the higher grades.

Fourth, the principle of length of service. This works automatically as a determinant of the teachers' salaries in all the Canadian cities for which data are available. The tables show the differences among the various cities (a) in the lower limits, (b) in the upper limits, (c) in the amount of annual increase.

Fifth, the amount of annual increase. As may be seen from the tables, the amount of annual increase varies among the different cities from \$25 to \$120 until the respective maximum salaries are attained.

Sixth, the time required to reach the maximum. There is great variety as to the length of time in which a teacher reaches the maximum salary of his class. For example, men assistants in London and Edmonton elementary schools reach their maximum in four years. In Toronto, men assistants require six years; in Calgary nine years and in Victoria ten years. Similarly, women assistants in Peterborough and London elementary schools reach their maximum salary in four years, in Edmonton, women teachers are employed five years before reaching the maximum, in St. John, six years, in Brandon, seven years, in Montreal, Hamilton, Vancouver and Victoria eight years, in Calgary and Winnipeg nine years, in Toronto ten years, and in Ottawa eleven years.

*A seventh important difference—size of building—*comes to view from a consideration of a cross-section of Tables Nos. 22 to 25. London, for example, has three grades of salary for principals, depending on the number of class-rooms in the building. Calgary and Edmonton draw a single line at "buildings of eight rooms or more," while Victoria has a separate scale for the group of "men principals of large schools," "women principals of large schools," and "small schools." Hamilton has a similar series of salary scales for its elementary school principals. In the same matter, Toronto draws lines at 15 room buildings and 6-room buildings and gives individual consideration to the salaries of principals of certain smaller schools. Moose Jaw draws a line at 9 rooms; Brandon has three groups, viz., 15 rooms—men, 10 rooms—women, and 8 rooms—women, and Vancouver has separate scales for the principals of "small schools" and "large schools." In Montreal the size of the school is a factor in the determination of the principal's salary, but size means the number of pupils rather than the number of rooms—900 pupils being the base of the calculation.

Numerous other differences may be distinguished as a result of still further examination of these tables of salary schedules. The questionnaire reveals additional

interesting facts with respect to salaries. The adoption of the principle of "length of service" as a base by all Canadian school boards along with such other factors as the grade taught, size of the school, grade of certificate and sex of the teacher leaves to be assumed in every case a satisfactory quality of work. On this point questionnaire answers indicate that the school boards of the cities of St. John, Kitchener and Prince Albert give "individual consideration" when making promotion and increasing salaries, while to other factors the boards of Westmount, Lachine, Ottawa, Woodstock, Calgary and Nelson add "merit."

SPECIAL CONSIDERATION *versus* IMPERSONAL LEGISLATION

As to which of all these bases for the determination of teachers' salaries or rather which combination of factors forms the most satisfactory basis both to teachers and to taxpayers, the writer is frank to confess that he does not know and is willing, moreover, to venture the assertion that nobody else knows. It may safely be said, however, that in all these various plans there are certain features better than others. Would it not be an advantage ultimately to both employer and employee if the experience of all concerned could be brought together, compiled in some way, with a view to each party to the contract possibly learning from the several other parties? This would tend to materially reduce the time required for experiment. Presumably, the complex nature of certain schedules could be explained as an attempt to give consideration to special cases. Undoubtedly, certain circumstances such as a quota of duties larger than usual or work of exceptional merit, or increased professional qualification obtained during service, may be regarded as justifiable bases for special consideration and remuneration above that called for in the schedule. It may be seriously questioned, however, if "special consideration" is to be given certain individuals, whether fifty per cent of any staff could not make out a good case for such "special consideration." This reduces a salary schedule to a form of rather unsightly crazy patchwork. Jealousy is aroused. Charges of favoritism and unfairness are preferred and teachers and board members are in a condition of continuous unrest.

The more scientific plan for the construction of a satisfactory salary schedule is first to decide definitely on the principles which shall operate in the determination of the salaries. Then, having legislated these principles into existence, provide for their application without exception. The problem then, is to decide upon and to clearly formulate these basic principles. Shall they include "merit," "sex of the teacher," "sex of the pupils," "length of service?" Is it worth while to encourage teachers to increase their professional qualifications while in the service? Should salaries be larger in the high than in the elementary school? Is the work in the upper grades of the elementary school more arduous than that of the lower grades? Is a different sort of qualification required? In how many years after entering practical work may a teacher be expected to have reached his maximum efficiency? Does such efficiency invariably persist? Are there means of retaining efficient service in teachers after the maximum salary has been achieved? These are moot questions concerning which members of Canadian school boards and their administrative officers are by no means a unit. The suggested conference of officials might procure an honest evaluation of the local plan and frank admission of the value of certain striking features in the plans of other cities. Thus much progress might be made toward a scientific solution of the vexed problem of a teachers' salary schedule satisfactory and fair to all.

SALARY DURING ABSENCE ON ACCOUNT OF SICKNESS.

There are two legitimate reasons for either of which teachers may be absent from duty, viz., sickness, and to secure professional advancement. For the first of these—some serious indisposition—there is no alternative. The teacher must remain away until well enough to resume duty. Salaries are paid in full or in part for time so lost in all Canadian cities except Thetford Mines and Quebec. In the cities of Halifax, Sydney, Fredericton, Outremont, and Nelson, teachers are allowed full pay during two weeks and in Charlottetown for fifteen days of sickness. The term may be extended to two months in Moncton, and during the entire period of the sickness in Lachine. In the cities of the provinces of Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and in the larger cities of British Columbia, the custom is to allow one month with full pay in any year for sickness. The Protestant Board in Montreal pays regular salary for

ten days and half salary for the following forty days if the sickness continues so long. The teachers of Victoria receive full pay during the first ten days' sickness in any term and after that period they are given any balance remaining after the substitute is paid.

The matter of absence from duty on account of sickness is of manifest importance to both teacher and school board. With salaries admitted by all to be not too large and with illness often traceable to the demands of the class room, the teacher will invariably give better service when on duty, if it is understood that the board will be reasonably fair if enforced absence occurs. School board and provincial legislation in Canada is evidence that authorities are seized with both facts and special circumstances. Respecting absence for sickness, the conditions have been well met.¹

SALARY WHILE ABSENT TO ADVANCE PROFESSIONAL EQUIPMENT.

In the second place, teachers may quite properly ask for leave of absence for the purpose of advancing their professional standing either by study or through travel. Two cities, Halifax and Guelph, report that such requests following a high quality of service extended over a period of some years might be granted with a substantial contribution toward expenses. The boards of all other cities do not pay either in whole or in part during such leave. Six city boards will not agree to their teachers taking leave of absence to acquire higher professional standing and this number is increased by ten others who will not grant requests for leave of absence to travel. The Board of Education of Toronto has a fixed rule granting six months' leave after a period of three years and twelve months after a period of six years of continuous service. Medicine Hat has a somewhat similar regulation. Teachers in the city of Stratford may secure leave of absence to travel if the purpose is to gain information by visiting the schools of other cities. Such requests are rare. The inspector in London

¹ Some cities of the United States, e.g., Detroit, Indianapolis, are considering giving a period of leave of absence with salary after a certain number of years, during which teaching efficiency has been of high grade and the yearly permissive time of absence for sickness has not been taken.

comments that he would recommend such teachers in his inspectorate for a double or treble salary increase on their return to duty. With the exception of Halifax, St. John, Fredericton, Winnipeg, and Medicine Hat, the school boards would not place teachers returning after such leave of absence on the salary schedule as if their service had been continuous. That is, such absence militates against rank in the salary schedule of 52 out of 57 Canadian cities.

COMMENT ON SALARY ALLOWANCES TO TEACHERS ABSENT
TO SECURE PROFESSIONAL ADVANCEMENT.

Absence for other reasons, especially to develop higher scholarship, to secure advanced training, or to visit other schools is not, as in the case of sickness, unavoidable and does not appear to be absolutely necessary. Consequently, Canadian custom, regarding both teachers and school boards, is vastly different from that obtaining in the case of absence for sickness. Teachers rarely seek the privilege and school boards rarely provide the encouragement. The necessity of increased training or of securing new inspiration is nevertheless keenly felt. The Quebec Department of Public Instruction will pay the salaries of its officials while pursuing advanced studies in a foreign university. One Ontario inspector would give double or treble salary increases to teachers whose honesty, ambition and aggressiveness impel them to realize their deficiencies and to become students once more in order to make those deficiencies good. The Board of Education of Toronto has for years given leave of absence to teachers who wished to study and has allowed absence without deductions of salary to write examinations even when the advanced work in music, medicine, or law indicated that the teacher asking the privilege, would eventually leave the staff for work in some other profession. The argument advanced by the board members themselves is that such teachers ought to be encouraged, and that they are probably doing as good or even better work than those less ambitious.

Of course such absences carry with them trouble for some one. Some measure of staff reorganization may become necessary. Substitutes must be secured. Applicants for the temporary vacancies must be examined,

selected and assigned to duty. But the gain resulting from the revitalization of the teachers temporarily absent, and as well, though in a less degree, those others who are brought into contact with these when they return, is unquestionably large. Many school board members are already keenly aware of this gain for which in reality they may contribute at best in only a minor way. More and more encouragement is being offered to teachers to continue the process of training even although they already possess permanent government certificates.

TEXT-BOOKS AND SUPPLIES.

The quality, quantity and variety of tools of any trade are matters of deep interest to the artisan. The output is largely dependent upon the tools furnished and this is no more true of the skilled worker in materials than it is of the school teacher. Hence the whole question of class-room supplies is one of great importance in the administration of schools. Whether absolute uniformity of text-books shall be enforced, whether the books shall be selected by educational experts, whether publication shall be under the direction of the Government, whether the books shall be supplied free of charge or on payment of a fee,—these and similar questions are of live interest to the rank and file of educators. A perfect solution of the problems involved would be a notable contribution towards the smooth working and general excellence of class-room practice and towards the development of the individuality and power of the pupils. Such problems demand and are worthy of the attention of the administrator of schools.

AUTHORIZATION OF TEXT-BOOKS IN PROVINCIAL RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Careful reference to Canadian school law indicates that the provincial departments of education have all fully appreciated the importance of the problem of uniform text-books in the schools under their direction. Each has enacted accordingly but with great variety in related rules and regulations. Power to select and

authorize is vested in a Provincial Board of Education or Council of Public Instruction in the Eastern Maritime Provinces, in Quebec and in British Columbia, and in the Advisory Board of Manitoba. For the provinces of Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta, the Minister of Education has power to authorize text-books. In each of these latter provinces, however, there is an advisory or Educational Council to which all such questions may be submitted for consideration and decision.

In several provinces, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario and British Columbia, the lists of books authorized for high school use are quite extensive and admit of considerable choice. This rests with the local school board in Quebec, where a book or series of books must be chosen for use in all the schools under the direction of any single board. In Ontario and Manitoba, where there is a choice of authorized books, the teacher may change from one to another with the consent of the local board. A special form of procedure has been arranged in New Brunswick to enable teachers or others interested to secure the authorization of a book not already included in the official list.

Teachers in New Brunswick are enjoined to illustrate and amplify text-book material from any other available source. In six of the provinces this privilege of supplementary illustration is left to be inferred, while the actual use of the unauthorized text-books by teachers or pupils is expressly forbidden and strict penalties are provided. In Manitoba for example, the substitution of an unauthorized text-book for an authorized book already in use renders the teacher liable to a fine of ten dollars and costs,¹ and the school to the loss of the legislative grant,² The province of Saskatchewan³ has similar provisions. In Ontario,⁴ the teacher is not fined in the courts but may be suspended and suffer a salary deduction equal to the amount of grant withheld as a penalty for violating the regulations.

¹ "The Public School Act," Manitoba, R.S.M.C. 143, sec. 227.

² *Ibid.* sec. 225.

³ "The Schools Act, Saskatchewan," 1917, sec. 228 (a)

⁴ "The Public School Act," Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., cap. 89, sec. 112

TEXT-BOOKS PROVIDED BY PARENTS, SCHOOL BOARDS
AND EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS.

Almost all of the provinces have enactments which make it compulsory for parents to provide their children with the necessary text-books. In Prince Edward Island, the pupils may not remain if they have not the necessary authorized books.

Local school boards in the island province and in Quebec, Saskatchewan and British Columbia are empowered to supply indigent pupils with books free. The Ontario Department encourages local boards to supply free text-books to all pupils by offering a special grant towards the cost. Another method open to local boards in both Ontario and Manitoba is to collect a fee not to exceed twenty cents per month from each pupil to reimburse them for expenditures for text-books and other school supplies. The Departments of Education of Manitoba and of the other western provinces themselves supply local school boards with certain text-books free, which in Manitoba are Readers and an Arithmetic, in Saskatchewan Readers, and in Alberta Readers and a text-book in agriculture.

RECOMMENDATIONS TOWARDS ADOPTION OF NEW TEXT
BOOKS.ADDITIONAL INFORMATION GATHERED FROM THE
QUESTIONNAIRES.

The problem of the adoption of new text-books was represented by the questions :

“Does the Board, Superintendent, Inspector, Principal, Teachers’ Association or other body make recommendations for the adoption of new text books ?”

“If so, is the recommendation acted upon ?”

To the first question eighteen replies were received. Of these one is the querulous inquiry from a city inspector of schools, “Why do you ask such questions ?” And another the somewhat biting remark, “Anyone can make recommendations.” For the cities of Sydney and Edmonton, recommendations for the adoption of new text books are made by a committee of leading teachers. Calgary and Medicine Hat reply that such recommendations come from the provincial teachers’ association and in Fort William, jointly from the supervisor

and High School principal. Eleven other cities report simply that such recommendations are made. As for the acceptance of the suggestions, five cities report "yes," four "sometimes," two "not necessarily," and one each "maybe," "possibly," "occasionally," "at the discretion of the department," "no." From 41 other cities no replies were received to the questions as to recommendations for the adoption of new text-books.

TEXT-BOOKS AND OTHER SCHOOL SUPPLIES FREE.

No report has been received that text books are supplied free to the pupils of any Canadian high school, but in 29 cities the elementary school pupils are supplied with free text books either in whole or in part. Hamilton, Peterboro and Woodstock are Ontario cities whose school boards furnish all supplies on the payment by the pupils of a small fee, which in Hamilton is ten cents each month. As indicated above, the western provincial education departments assist local boards to provide free text-books. Elsewhere the question rests with local initiative.

Of 52 Canadian cities, the school boards of 26 furnish the pupils free of cost with all other supplies. Thirteen school boards furnish partial supplies while in 13 others nothing whatever is given free. The latter group includes the three Ontario cities mentioned in which the fee covers text-books and all other class-room material.

Provincial Publication.—While several provincial departments of education have power to publish text-books to be used in the public and high schools, Ontario is the only province which has gone extensively into this phase of the development of an adequate supply of appropriate texts. This policy resulted from the discovery in 1907 that the reading books in use in the public schools which had for many years cost the parents \$1.30 per set, could be supplied on tender at 49 cents per set. As these books were no longer satisfactory the Minister of Education appointed "a school man with expert knowledge of printing and binding to supervise the preparation (of a new set of Readers) and a committee of representative teachers to assist him with their advice and experience."¹

The books thus prepared were printed from plates owned and supplied by the Education Department, entailing upon the latter a relatively small outlay, but

¹ "Memorandum re School Texts in Ontario," p. 3. By Dr. D. J. Goggin, Historiographer and Departmental Librarian.

securing for pupils and teachers a much better set of Readers at a cost to the parents of slightly more than one-third of the original price. During the decade since this first venture¹ almost all of the Ontario text-books have been replaced by others at reduced prices.

“When it is deemed necessary or desirable to introduce a new text, or to revise an old one, the General Editor, who was the Chairman of the Committee on Readers, makes a calculation as to the actual cost of production, ascertains the possible number of copies needed on the basis of attendance, makes allowance for overhead charges, royalties and trade discounts, and then recommends a retail price for the consideration of the Minister of Education.”²

TABLE NO. 26.—NAMES OF TEXT-BOOKS PUBLISHED BY THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF ONTARIO AND THEIR ADOPTION BY OTHER PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.³

PROVINCES	PUBLIC SCHOOL TEXTS.							HIGH SCHOOL TEXTS.														
	Pub. Sch. Arith.	History	Hygiene	Speller	Composition	Writing	Bookkeeping I.	Readers	H. S. Reader	Grammar	Composition	Geography	History	Arithmetic	French Grammar	Ancient History	German Grammar	Physics	Chemistry	Bookkeeping II.	TOTAL	
Nova Scotia.....	+	..	+	+	+	5
New Brunswick....	+	1
Prince Edw. Island..	..	+	+	+	3
Quebec.....	+	+	..	+	+	4
Manitoba.....	..	+	+	+	+	..	+	+	5
Saskatchewan.....	..	+	..	+	+	..	+	..	+	+	+	..	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	15
Alberta.....	+	+	..	+	..	+	+	+	+	7
British Columbia...	+	+	2
Total.....	1	3	2	3	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	6	1	3	4	2	1		

¹ The contract was signed April 20, 1909.

² Goggin, D. J., Op. Cit., p. 4.

³ Compiled from "Reports to the Ontario Legislature" in Ontario Department of Education Library, Toronto.

It is to be noted that the compilation refers only to publication. Not all of these texts were actually made under the direction of the Ontario Department of Education. The British History text-books for example, are revised editions of texts originally developed in Manitoba and the Western Provinces.

That these texts meet with the approval of teachers generally is shown by the measure of authorization which they have received by departments of instruction outside of Ontario. This is set forth in the foregoing summarized statement.

It will be seen from the table that the Ontario Department of Education now controls the publication of seven elementary and eleven high school text-books along with one complete set of Readers for all grades, and that these texts have been variously endorsed by other Canadian Departments of Education. Thus in addition to their use in the schools of Ontario, seven are used in at least one other province, eight in two other provinces, three in three other provinces, one in four other provinces, and one in six of the other eight Canadian provinces.

UNIFORMITY AND SELECTION.

Several of the provinces admit a certain amount of selection, while still preserving provincial uniformity. This is secured by issuing lists of texts from which local boards or teachers may exercise choice for use in the schools. An examination of these provincial lists of authorized books indicates much difference of opinion as to the extent to which uniformity should be urged. Elementary teachers of junior classes in the province of British Columbia, for example, may choose from the following Readers :

The British Columbia Beginners' Reader.
 " " " Phonic Primer.
 " " " First Reader.

For supplementary reading in the same classes in British Columbia, these are recommended :

Royal Prince Reader. Book I.
 Country Reader. Book I.
 Child Life Reader Primer.
 Child Life Reader. Book I.
 Art-Literature Reader Primer.
 Art-Literature Reader. First Book.
 Progressive Road to Reading. Book I.
 Folk-Lore Reader Primer.
 Folk-Lore Reader. Book I.
 The Hiawatha Primer.
 The Sunbonnet Babies' Primer, and others.

This collection of authorized text-books contains the best works for primary classes put out by six different publishing houses. In the same province there is a choice from three text-books in Arithmetic, from two in Agriculture, and from three in Grammar, and Composition.

Similarly other provinces list a considerable variety of books for reading, but the choice for other subjects is frequently lacking in richness. Granting that the arrangement and organization of material, the method of exposition and other similar characteristics of a text-book are approximately excellent, it may be seriously questioned whether the content of books in Arithmetic, English Composition and some other subjects can advantageously be the same for the children of city and rural schools or for the children of different cities or even for the children of different sections of the same city. So, while admitting the soundness of the argument for text-book uniformity, a very strong case can be made for selection from a list exhibiting a wide range of content and method. The privilege might be granted with the approval of the provincial authorities of permitting cities which have installed free text-book systems to use books not on the authorized list. Reasons should be expected. These when given by the teachers who will use the books, supported by the expert educators who exercise supervisory functions over them, should make certain the granting of the request.

The selection of all books to be prescribed should rest with educational experts. Moreover, among the experts should be trained and experienced teachers actually engaged in such class-room work as will justify their judgment. Furthermore, this should be based on class-room contact with several books dealing with the same subject and to this end arrangements should be made to permit of the adequate "trying-out" of books before recommendation.

PROVINCIAL UNIFORMITY.

Legislative enactment and departmental rules and regulations regarding so many phases of the text-book question and in such variety of treatment clearly show the enormous importance of the matter to the welfare of

education. The provinces have unanimously agreed that as an aid to teaching and to better attendance as well as for economy, uniformity of text-books is advisable. Numerous advantages accrue with uniform public school text-books, when the output is controlled by the State. The publisher's market is assured for a term of years. He is under no expense for agents or travellers and so can sell more cheaply. The uniform texts decrease the teacher's work through greater facility in the comparison of pupils and class progress. The pupil who may be compelled in mid-term to transfer from school to school or from city to city is less liable to a set-back while the parent undoubtedly can by no other plan secure books for his children at such favorable prices

On the other hand a very important objection may be urged. State publication, particularly under the direction of bureaucratic or autocratic officials engenders extreme inflexibility. All is not yet known as to pedagogical wisdom and the art of teaching. The field of knowledge appropriate to the several stages of childhood is under constant review. The best text-books are those developed experimentally by teachers in their own class rooms. And yet these authors, while in the act of receiving the praise and congratulations of their colleagues, who are alone best able to pass on the pros and cons of a text-book, will frequently confess that to a greater or less extent their books are out of date almost at the moment of publication. With an inflexible system of state publication, administered by autocratic officials, the danger to teachers and pupils arises that a text-book which bears internal evidence of having been written far away from the class-room, and containing material unsuited to many pupils may nevertheless secure authorization. Should this occur, the schools may have to submit to such a book during the period of the publishers' contract for a term of possibly ten years. It is necessary that new texts shall be prepared by teachers actively engaged in teaching and that the books shall be carefully "tried-out" by other teachers. Hence the unauthorized text-book bogey should not be urged too far and a certain amount of experimentation with the new arrivals ought to be permitted. To this may be added the further suggestion that contracts shall not exceed a five year term.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SUPPLIES.

The Supply Department is one of the newer branches of school service. The increase in class room activities requiring various kinds of material, the value to the teacher of having uniform materials instantly available for all children, the growing realization of the economy to be effected from buying in bulk and the incursion of commercial methods in the overhead management of schools are responsible for the gradual evolution in city school headquarters of this new department and its director. The latter is generally known as the superintendent of supplies. As yet, few Canadian city systems have developed a clearly defined department of supplies. In some instances the duties of the officer are undertaken by the secretary-treasurer of the board and in others by the superintendent of buildings, while in a few, they may still fall within the province of the inspector, supervisor, or superintendent of schools.

In a previous chapter attention was given to the general organization of the administrative staff and to the principal duties of the two leading officials of the board—the secretary-treasurer, and the superintendent of schools. Reasons were given in detail for the fundamental principle that a school system should be managed on the same lines as operate in any manufacturing plant which must meet competition and earn dividends for its shareholders. As for a purely commercial business, the position was taken that a system of schools required a general manager to whom all other officials should be subordinate.¹ In no other way can be maintained that desirable co-ordination of departments which in recent years has been found essential to school administration. Consistent with the foregoing, a similar position is herein advocated respecting the official appointed to supervise and distribute general school supplies. He should be supreme in the details of his special department, but in general, subordinate to the Superintendent of Schools.

In the cities of the United States, the department of supplies is made to fit into the local system in a variety of ways. Of 20 cities with population between 25,000 and 100,000, employing a superintendent of supplies,

¹ With the possible exception of the Secretary-treasurer. Vide supra, chap. IV. pp. 109 ff.

this official is subordinate to the superintendent of schools in 11 cities ; he is independent in five cities, and in four the two officials co-operate. With regard to the purely business operation of the supply department, the development of standard samples, the advertising for tenders, systematic methods of handling the stock, the distribution of the correct quantities to the schools, the prevention of waste, the calculation of per capita costs—the superintendent of supplies should be expert and little less than supreme. But in all else, educational interests should be paramount.

This has special reference to the selection of specific grades of material. Children under the direction of the teachers must use the materials and teachers are responsible for the educational results. Where a choice is to be made the superintendent of schools, principals and teachers should undoubtedly have the deciding voice. If the superintendent of supplies, whose appointment always comes later than that of the superintendent of schools, is from the first made responsible to the executive head of the system there is greater probability of securing harmonious and responsive action.

MISCELLANEOUS SPECIAL FEATURES.

Not only are members of the regular teaching corps sensitive to those minutiae which more immediately concern them, but also their work evidences a peculiar responsiveness according as other features with which indeed they may have little real contact are or are not present in the school system. Consequently the inauguration of Manual Training and Household Science classes, for example, causes a feeling of elation to permeate the staff of the lower grades whose pupils and work are not even remotely affected. Similarly the opening of a supervised play ground in a congested section of the city has its effect upon the attitude and point of view of teachers in the outlying districts and unconsciously sharpens their zeal. We all like to feel that we are associated with a business house which is aggressive and progressive and considers its own best interests by its thoughtful care for every part of its plant. We have a lurking unconscious suspicion that our turn for benefits will come in due course. Our spirits rise, seemingly

hard tasks are bravely attacked and unwonted results become assured.

The introduction into a system of schools of new or advanced educational features, such as Manual Training, Household Science, Industrial Training, classes for backward and defective children, vacation classes for children who have failed in the regular promotion, supervised playgrounds, the co-operation of other organizations, such as the Public Library Board, with the teachers in their work with children—the introduction of these and similar innovations produces beneficial results not only with those teachers directly involved, but also with those who appear to be very remotely connected. The place of these more advanced features in Canadian city schools will be briefly reviewed.

Manual Training.—Forty-three school boards have incorporated Manual Training, using one or more kinds of material in the regular course of study. In 39 cities special teachers are employed. Plasticene or clay for modelling is used in 11 cities in the first two grades and in one or two cities in other grades as high as the sixth. Paper and cardboard are used in the lower four grades in 15 cities, but this number is reduced to seven cities for the sixth grade and only one city carries on Manual Training work with paper and cardboard in the eighth grade. Raffia and reeds for basketry are used in the first six grades in three cities. Manual Training lessons with wood for material commence in the fifth grade in six cities. In the sixth grade, woodwork in Manual Training is carried on in 21 cities, in the seventh grade in 26 cities, in the eighth grade in 25 cities, in the ninth grade or first year of high school in nine cities and in the tenth grade in six cities. The cities of Edmonton and Calgary have forge and machine shop practice in the upper grades.

Household Science.—The girls of 41 Canadian cities receive lessons in both sewing and cooking. In five cities lessons in sewing only and in two cities lessons in cooking only are given. The lessons in cooking commence in the fifth grade in nine cities. Twenty cities give cooking lessons in the sixth grade, twenty-six cities in the seventh grade, twenty-eight cities in the eighth grade, seven cities in the ninth grade or first year of the high

school and six cities in the tenth grade. The distribution for lessons in sewing is practically the same except that in four cities sewing is taught in the first two grades and in six cities in the third and fourth grades. In forty cities special cooking teachers are employed but some of these teach the sewing also. In the majority of cities sewing is taught by the regular grade teacher with a supervisor in the larger cities to direct the course of lessons.

Industrial Training in the upper classes of the regular elementary school is conducted under school board auspices in sixteen cities and in thirteen other cities the matter has been considered but no action has been taken.

Defective or Backward Children are provided for in special classes in 12 cities. The annual per capita cost in eight of these cities is as follows:

Fredericton, N.B....	\$20.00	Winnipeg, Man...\$	50.75
Stratford, Ont....	22.50	Brantford, Ont...\$	75.00
Moncton, N.B....	35.00	Victoria, B.C....	129.53
Halifax, N.S.....	40.00	Ottawa, Ont....	140.00

Vacation Schools to permit pupils who failed of promotion, to make good their deficiencies if they wish, are conducted by three city school boards in Outremont (Protestant), Montreal (Roman Catholic), and Medicine Hat.

Other Educational Agencies.—In reply to the questions concerning other educational agencies conducted by the school board, fifteen cities report “evening classes” of an unspecified nature. Evening classes in a few cities were specified to be, English for foreigners, Elementary and Mechanical Drawing, Art, Arithmetic, French, Music, Commercial, Industrial, Technical and High School Continuation work, Physical Training, Folk Dancing, Naval Architecture and Navigation. Winnipeg reported Lecture Courses and Toronto—Parent-Teachers’ Associations.

CERTAIN OF THE MORE PROGRESSIVE EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES ARE NOT YET GENERAL IN CANADIAN CITIES.

VACATION SCHOOLS DISCUSSED.

While the institution and progress attained in Canadian cities of some of the miscellaneous features just noted affords matter for congratulation, regarding all

of them much still remains to be accomplished and for some, the facts are distinctly disappointing. Respecting Vacation Schools—for example, Canadian city school administrators show a deplorable lack of foresight. It is little less than amazing that expert educators and school boards of large cities such as Montreal (Protestant), Toronto, Hamilton, Winnipeg, Edmonton, and Vancouver have failed to recognize the value of continuing educational facilities for certain children during the regular vacation months. The city has children needing education and it has buildings planned to house pupils, but for ten weeks the one knows not the other. The factors standing in the way are variously stated as shortage of teachers, teachers require time for recuperation, buildings need to be cleaned and repaired, children need the fresh air and physical development to be attained out of doors and finally to conduct vacation schools will require an increased budget.

Objections considered.—There is, in fact, a modicum of truth in each of these objections but not one of them proves to be entirely valid in the light of investigation. Only a small proportion of the total available number of teachers would be required and these might well be selected from the most vigorous. Not all of the latter even would be needed in any one year. Certain rural teachers would welcome a month's work in a city. Certain city teachers would accept vacation employment in a distant city. Only certain school buildings, especially those in congested areas would be required and those could be made ready by engaging sufficient workmen for a few days, and afterwards similarly prepared for the regular fall classes in another brief interval. Children are certainly as well off in sanitary class rooms and in supervised playgrounds as they are in back yards, lanes and automobile infested city streets.

THE VACATION SCHOOL SAVES MONEY

Finally the argument of necessary increased finances breaks down under examination. Tax payers indicate by the millions invested in school buildings and equipment that they are irrevocably committed to a policy of educating every citizen in the minimum essentials at least. Yet they have permitted this enormous capital investment to lie idle for one-fifth of each year.

Moreover for some children, school buildings closed during July and August necessitates not merely "marking time" but an actual retrograde movement. Retardation, non-promotion and kindred topics will be discussed in a subsequent chapter of this study. In this connection with respect to the money required to conduct vacation schools the following case is submitted for consideration. For every 40 or 50 children who have failed of promotion in the September re-arrangement of classes, a teacher is required under ordinary school administration for one year to advance these children to the next grade. Nobody contends that all of these children really need a year of extra tuition in order to secure promotion to the class above. It has been shown many times that for most of these pupils help in the Summer Vacation is amply sufficient to permit their regular advance in the fall term. We have then for each class of such children to set over against the total expense of a year's schooling that of a couple of months in the summer. Properly conducted, vacation schools would in reality reduce rather than increase a school board's expenditures. In addition we should have less congestion in the lower class-rooms, happier children, less "dropping-out," and a higher quality of educational output.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY CONNECTED WITH PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN CANADIAN CITIES

By establishing a direct and intimate connection with the schools, where this has not already been effected, the public library may enormously enlarge its scope of usefulness. Already many Canadian public libraries have risen to this opportunity. Eleven cities all in the province of Ontario report that there is a connection between the public library and the public school board. This is by virtue of "The Public Libraries Act," which provides that:

"The general management, regulation and control of the library . . . shall be vested in a board which shall be composed of the mayor of the city, and three other persons to be appointed by the council, three by the public school board, and two by the separate school board, if any."¹

¹"The Public Libraries Act," Ontario, 9 Edw. VII., chap. 80. sec. 7 (1).

In London the public libraries and schools "co-operate" while in Fredericton, Ottawa, St. Thomas, Calgary and Winnipeg there are branch public libraries in school buildings. The public libraries of Ottawa, Hamilton, London, Brantford, Peterborough, Fort William, St. Thomas, Stratford, Chatham, Winnipeg and Calgary are accustomed to "lend books in lots of 30 or 40 or more to school principals for use in class-rooms and for loan by teachers to individual children."¹ The Superintendent of schools for the city of Calgary reports that 60 such sets are placed in the class-rooms of Calgary public schools. The books are specially selected for the grades to which they are sent.

It is almost uniformly the rule of the school boards in the province of Quebec and Saskatchewan to provide each school with its own library. While this practice is indubitably worth while, especially in cities where there is no public library, it is not so liable to attract the attention of pupils as some of the plans used by public librarians. The great number and variety of books, the setting apart of a room, suitably decorated and furnished with low tables and chairs especially for children,² the weekly story-telling period,³ the lists of new books or seasonable books or books related to the history or geography of the course of study or lists of books on mechanics sent to the schools by many city librarians,⁴ the wholesale loan of sets of books to a school or class and the establishing of a branch public library in the public school building,⁵ these and similar plans will receive the enthusiastic acclaim of boys and girls. Teachers too, are glad to receive assistance from the public library. A fine collection of professional books made easily accessible,⁶ librarians who consult with the teachers,⁶ a certainty that the librarian and his assistants are "big brothers" (or sisters) to pupils "looking up" something or preparing for a debate or a speech,⁷ know-

¹ Questionnaire, Section XI., question No. 4.

² As in St. John, Toronto, London, Stratford, Kitchener, Calgary, Edmonton.

³ As in St. John, Toronto, Hamilton, London, Kitchener, Calgary.

⁴ As in Kingston, Calgary, Edmonton.

⁵ As in Ottawa, Hamilton, London.

⁶ As in Winnipeg.

⁷ As in Toronto, Kitchener and Fort William.

⁸ As for example in Kansas City, Cleveland, Indianapolis and Grand Rapids.

ledge that the city's custodian of books is animated by a spirit of helpfulness—a spirit which *a priori* exists in the breast of any lover of good books,—these surely contain an appeal to all teachers.

VALUE OF INTIMATE CONNECTION.

For, elementary teachers are primarily concerned in the rapid and effective mastery by the child of this "open sesame" to the realms of knowledge. Teachers of the middle and upper schools likewise recognize that reading ability in their pupils is the *sine qua non* of further intellectual progress.

"Reading is the most important thing the child can learn in school. It is the key that opens most of the doors through which the adult will wish to pass."

says Leonard P. Ayres, and as with most other accomplishments, practice is fundamental with this one. Ignoring, for the moment, the very large informational and intellectual development resulting from wide reading, we have the additional fact now clearly demonstrated that voluminous reading is necessary to develop facility in the mechanics of the art. The author just quoted continues,

"In order that children may really learn to read, they need large numbers of books. Their progress in reading will be almost entirely dependent on the number of interesting books at their command. They must learn to read as they learn to talk—through unremitting exercise. They must read and read and continue to read."¹

Professor Judd says:

"In general it can be shown that good quality and rapid reading commonly go hand in hand. Poor quality and slow reading are in like manner commonly related."

and following an exhaustive study of reading in the schools of Cleveland, the same authority recommends

"that the amount of oral reading beyond the fourth grade be materially reduced at once and that there be substituted silent reading exercises."²

¹ "The Public Library and the Public Schools," p. 92.

² Judd, Charles Hubbard: "Measuring the Work of the Public Schools," pp. 160, 161.

All will agree that ability to read is of great importance. Scientific investigators affirm that good quality in reading is a general concomitant of speed and that speed is obtainable only as the result of reading large quantities of interesting material, which in the nature of the case must be dealt with silently. Herein lies the importance of establishing and maintaining an intimate connection between the public library and the public schools. Textbooks for reading lessons containing selections of short stories seem to have been unavoidable in the past and are still to some extent necessary. But quantities of suitable supplementary reading material have pushed the formal textbooks more and more into the background. One of the evils perpetrated by the school reader, and the method of teaching reading formerly in vogue, was to cramp and hamper the child within the narrow confines of a single volume. "He is reading *in* the third reader," was literally true. The child read nowhere else. It was punishable to read ahead of the class or to read from other books. When the boy read aloud and stumbled he was told to "read carefully, more slowly." We now know that good reading and rapid reading are generally coincident. Moreover, reading slowly and reading principally from one book produced two other deplorable results. First slowness was accentuated and became habitual with the consequence that the amount of reading possible in a lifetime was enormously diminished. In the second place reading from a single volume of selections and reading these over and over again *ad nauseam* resulted in sickening the child of the actual exercise. Books were associated with many of the distasteful occurrences of the classroom. The sight of them was abhorrent and consequently the mind was forever closed to much that in subsequent years would have been useful and enjoyable.

Is it worth while to extend public library service? Is any one of the methods mentioned above for carrying the public library directly into the homes of all the people objectionable or unworkable? Is any Canadian public librarian employing all of these methods? Each of them entails extra labor and some of them require special appropriations but the object is so worthy that assistance and money should be forthcoming. Canadian

cities have schools and libraries, children and books. The problem is, how can the public library and the school co-operate to develop in children the habit of voluminous reading? By ringing the changes on every conceivable mode of relationship. In brief—carry the public school into the public library and the public library into the public school.

CHAPTER V.—RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the facts and discussion brought out in the foregoing chapter dealing with administrative aspects of the teaching corps in Canadian cities, it is recommended:

1. That officials of each Canadian city school board carefully examine and scientifically evaluate every mode of procedure employed in their system with respect to teachers.

2. That Canadian city school board officials meet in annual conference to discuss and compare and glean from each other the best details with respect to modes of procedure in dealing with the members of the teaching corps.

Special topics which should occupy the attention of officials in conference would be

(a) What is the real function of the school principal in accordance with true economy? What are the ways and means of setting him free for the adequate preformance of this function?

(b) What are the best methods of selecting and appointing members to the various ranks of the teaching corps?

(c) What is the best procedure with respect to the inefficient teacher antecedent to increased efficiency, or failing this to possible dismissal?

(d) What is the best probationary term for teachers? What tenure of office should be allowed the various members of the teaching corps?

(e) How may the Summer School be made attractive to city teachers?

(f) What are the basic principles which should be permitted to operate in the construction of salary schedules?

(g) What is a reasonable allowance to teachers for absence through sickness with continuance of salary?

(h) What policy should a board adopt to encourage teachers to improve their academic and professional standing while in service?

(i) What are the advantages and disadvantages of provincial uniformity of text books? What measure of selection and "trying out" of text books should be permitted?

(j) Would it be in the interests of economy and efficiency to compare school supplies,—the quality and prices in vogue in Canadian cities?

(k) What are the gains and losses financially and in potential wealth of numerous educational innovations; e.g., Industrial Training, Classes for defective and sub-normal children, Vacation Classes?

(l) What are the advantages and disadvantages, ways, means and costs of establishing and maintaining an intimate connection between the public library and the public school?

Many of the questions just indicated will provoke interesting discussion and several contain much debatable material. The following recommendations are urged :

(3) That steps be taken to relieve the school principal as far as possible of routine clerical duties and class teaching in order to set him free for his major function—supervision and the constructive thought and planning necessary to improve the work in his building.

To assist in this School Boards should provide:

(a) Clerical assistance for the principal.

(b) Means to enable the principal to take short courses in "Methods of Administration."

(c) Means to enable the principal to periodically visit the best schools of other cities and to attend the annual meetings of professional associations.

4. That provincial departments of education provide advanced professional training courses for teachers in the Summer Schools and that substantial inducements be offered to teachers to enroll for the courses.

5. That in framing salary schedules and in giving promotions to teachers due significance be given to satisfactory attendance from time to time in the training courses of Summer Schools.

6. That score cards appropriate to the various departments of teaching be scientifically constructed and that each member of the staff and possible applicants for membership be rated on these cards; such score cards to be kept on file in the superintendent's office and revised from time to time.

7. That the nomination antecedent to appointment of all members of the teaching corps rest entirely with the superintendent of schools and follow in general outline the plan set forth on p. 167 *f.f.*

8. That suitable procedure with the necessary legislation be developed impersonally and in advance for application in cases of inefficient teaching.

9. That scientific studies be made of prevailing salary schedules with a view to the development of principles to apply in forming such schedules and hence the development of those which will be more generally satisfactory.

10. That the working of Vacation Schools in cities which have instituted them be studied and that certain schools in each city be opened in the regular way during the months of July and August, and further that in large schools certain types of auxiliary classes be conducted on Saturdays.

11. That proper regulations with safeguards be adopted so as to provide when necessary for:

(a) Selection of text books.

(b) Use of unauthorized text books.

(c) "Trying-out" in class-rooms of text books in process of preparation.

(d) Term of contract for authorized text-books not to exceed five years.

12. That a branch public library be opened in every city school building which has an enrollment of 500 or more pupils, that the assistant librarian in charge be a member of the teaching staff and that the service rendered be not necessarily continuous but for example half-daily, every other day, evenings, etc., as the local constituency of pupils, teachers and parents may warrant.

CHAPTER VI.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND MEDICAL INSPECTION

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VI.

A. ATTENDANCE

1. This chapter commences with statistics which show that Canadian urban population has increased in recent years 24 per cent., but in the same time school enrolments have increased by an average of 55 per cent.

2. An important factor of increased school enrolment is compulsory attendance legislation. A digest and illustrations of Canadian laws are given.

3. A second aid to school attendance is the annual school census with individual cumulative records. These are very infrequent in Canadian cities.

4. Other factors influencing school attendance are the length of the school day and school year and the administration of the noon hour. Great variety exists in Canadian cities as to these matters.

5. Typical school attendance statistics are presented in tabular and graphic form. These and related discussions of Canadian annual reports are examined. The following features are disclosed:

(a) Withdrawals of children of 12 to 14 years of age, especially in grades VI, VII and VIII are very numerous.

(b) 30 to 50 per cent. of Canadian city children are retarded in some cases for several years.

(c) The retardation is due to failure to complete the course of study prescribed for each grade.

(d) *Discussion* of attendance, non-promotion and similar statistics is an unusual feature in Canadian annual reports. Toronto and Winnipeg provide exceptions.

(e) It is suggested that retardation and "dropping out" are to a considerable extent an illustration of cause and effect.

6. The reduction of the retardation of pupils would result in:

(a) The saving of considerable sums of money.

(b) The lessening of pressure on the accommodation for the lower grades.

(c) The retention of some pupils for a longer period of instruction.

7. Ten causes of retardation as given by Toronto principals are quoted. The list is admittedly unscientific. It is suggested that the causes might be reduced to one—the maladjustment of pupils and materials of instruction.

8. Remedial measures for retardation are suggested. (See Recommendations.)

B. MEDICAL INSPECTION.

1. Of 57 Canadian city school systems reporting for this study, 42 have some degree of medical inspection. This ranges from the system having only occasional visits from the doctor to a few systems which conduct regular examinations of the children and have elaborate medical departments with specialists, nurses and clinics.

2. One or more school nurses are employed by 32 city school boards. The usual variety in Canadian practice is shown in this instance respecting the duties and powers of school nurses.

3. Free medical clinics have been established in connection with 5 Canadian city school systems.

4. Comment on medical inspection in Canadian city schools is offered. The following points are emphasized :

(a) An adequate staff of experts, both of physicians and nurses, is essential.

(b) Medical inspection is an educational feature because:

(1) It makes perfect attendance of school children a possibility.

(2) It provides the authoritative instruction necessary to secure healthy children. The physical fitness of children is required both as a prerequisite for effective accomplishment in the usual school activities and also for present protection and the eventual physical improvement of the race.

(c) In accordance with the fundamental principle of school administration, that the board's chief executive should in a general way direct and co-ordinate all branches of school service, the medical department should be subordinate to the chief educational executive, the inspector or superintendent of schools.

The chapter closes with a series of recommendations respecting both school attendance and medical inspection of school children.

CHAPTER VI.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND MEDICAL INSPECTION

CITY POPULATIONS AND SCHOOL ENROLMENTS ARE INCREASING

Canadian educational reports and discussions indicate a continuous rise in school attendance. The upward trend is due partly to increase in population from natural causes and from immigration, partly to the more stringent application of compulsory attendance laws and partly to a quickened sense of the value of education.

At the opening of the present century, the total number of inhabitants of Canada was less than five and one-half millions. During the next decade it had increased to seven and one-quarter millions¹ and is estimated to be at least eight and one-half millions in the present year.² The urban population, constituting 37.8 per cent. of the whole in the year 1901, had increased to 45.5 per cent. in 1911.³ During this first decade of the twentieth century, the population of Western Canada was largely augmented. In the province of Saskatchewan, for example, the rural population increased 389 per cent. and the urban communities of the same province increased 652 per cent.⁴ But while the rural population of Ontario and the Eastern provinces was virtually at a standstill, or even showed a decline, that of the cities in the East as well as in the West went steadily forward. In 1901, the combined population of the largest 20 cities in Canada was 952,170, but by 1911 this had reached 1,722,203—an increase of 80.8 per cent.⁴ The increase continues to grow so that the population of these same cities in 1915 is estimated to be in excess of 2,700,000⁵—an increase over that of the year 1901 of 180 per cent.

¹ Canada Yearbook, 1916-17, p. 83.

² 1919.

³ Canada Yearbook, 1916-17, compiled from p. 83.

⁴ Canada Yearbook, 1916-17, compiled from pp. 81, 83.

⁵ Griffin, Watson. "Canada the Country of the Twentieth Century," p. 20.

The numbers of pupils enrolled in city schools also show marked increases. Data are not available for all cities but the ten cities used as representative Canadian cities in our discussion of school finance may be considered again in this connection. The following table No. 27 gives the population and pupil enrolment for the years 1911 and 1917 of these ten typical cities with the increase per cent.¹

TABLE NO. 27.—POPULATION AND ENROLMENT OF PUPILS OF TEN TYPICAL CANADIAN CITIES FOR THE YEARS 1911 AND 1917 WITH INCREASE PER CENT.

	POPULATION			PUPIL ENROLMENT		
	1911	1917	Incr'se per cent.	1911	1917	Incr'se per cent.
Calgary.....	43,704	56,514	27.2	5,800	10,366	82.1
Edmonton.....	30,479	56,760	86.2	5,163	11,146	115.8
Hamilton.....	81,969	107,832	31.6	11,359	16,637	46.5
London.....	46,300	55,887	20.7	8,106	10,889	34.3
Montreal (Prot.)...	488,000	664,640	36.2	15,535	23,022	48.4
Regina.....	30,000	40,000	33.3	2,330	4,916	110.7
St. John.....	42,511	45,000	6.0	7,294	7,977	9.3
Toronto.....	376,538	460,526	22.3	45,294	62,908	38.8
Vancouver.....	100,401	102,500	2.1	12,094	15,421	27.5
Winnipeg.....	136,035	182,848	34.3	11,885	29,310	146.7

We find upon instituting comparisons of the facts of this table that:

1. The population for every city advanced during the six-year period with increases varying from 2 per cent. to 86 per cent., and an average increase for the ten cities of 24 per cent.

2. The pupil enrolment of the same cities during the same period likewise advanced, by a percentage which is in every case greater than the corresponding increase per cent. in population. These increases in pupil enrolment vary from 9 per cent. to 146 per cent. with an average increase of 55 per cent.

¹ Compiled from reports and correspondence.

The increased school attendance has been developed and maintained by a variety of administrative devices, which will now be considered.

LEGISLATION FOR COMPULSORY EDUCATION

The most important contribution toward securing better school attendance has come about through provincial legislation. With the exception of Quebec, all of the provinces have enacted compulsory education laws.¹ These contain clauses relating to the four principal parties concerned with school attendance, viz.: the child, the parents or others *in loco parentis*, the school board or its officials, and employers of child labor. Table No. 28 provides a digest of the leading features of Canadian compulsory education laws in so far as they are directly concerned with public school administration.

THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

This table furnishes a view in outline of such Canadian legislative enactments as have been designed with the objective of compelling the populace to secure "a good common school education." While all of the data given are important, the fundamentals may be observed in the first four columns. The law for the cities of the province of New Brunswick is typical in this respect. It states that every boy or girl between the ages of six and fourteen years "shall attend school during all the days and hours that the public schools are in session unless it be shown to the satisfaction of the Board of School Trustees that the bodily or mental condition of such child is such as to prevent his or her attendance at school."²

¹ Nova Scotia : "Towns' Compulsory Attendance Act," R.S., N.S., 1900, chap. 55.
 New Brunswick : "Compulsory Attendance at Schools," 6 Edw. VII., chap. XIII., 1906, and amending Acts 1908, 1911.
 Prince Edward Island : "Public Schools Act," 1877 and amendments. Sec. XC. and XCI.
 Ontario : "The Truancy Act," 9 Edw. VII., chap. 92.
 Manitoba : "Shops Regulation Act," R.S.M. 1913, chap. 156.
 Saskatchewan : "The School Attendance Act," 1917.
 Alberta : "The School Attendance Act," 1916, chap. 9.
 British Columbia : "The Public Schools Act," chap. 206.
 "An Act providing for Compulsory Attendance at School," 6 Edw. VII., N.B., 1906. Amended 1908, chap. 2.

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TABLE NO. 28.—DIGEST OF PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION RE COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF CHILDREN IN CITIES.

Provinces	Lower Age Limit.	Upper Age Limit.	Minimum Period of Attendance.	Responsible for Attendance of Child.	Absence is Excused if			Teacher to report cases to Truant Officer.	Appointed by	Works under	Duties.	Reports.	School Census.	Employment of Children.
					Physical Disability	Lack of Accommodation.	Rec. satisfactory							
Nova Scotia *	6	16	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	13 yrs. of age and attended for maintenance, last yr. 60 days. In 14 consec. weeks.	Yes	Board or City	Board or City	Takes stray children to sch. Investigates cases. Notify parents. Inst. prosecute. Investigate re-ported cases. Notify parents. Inst. Prosec.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	City makes under direction of Bd. By Inspectory Board	Never under 13 yrs. If education must be satisfactory 6-16 or 15 only if education is satisfactory
New Brunswick	6	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	Yes.	Yes.	City	Sec. of P. S. Board	Take stray children to school law	Monthly	Board takes anually 6-18	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Prince Edw Island	8	13 or weeks	12 or weeks	Trustees and school	Yes	Yes	Yes.	Yes.	Police	Pub. Sch.	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Quebec ††	8	14	No compulsory clause	Parents	Yes	Yes	Absence not to exceed 6 weeks.	No	Police Com-mis-sion-Board	Pub. Sch. Insp.	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Ontario †	8	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	In school law.	Truant Officer has authority.	City	Sec. of P. S. Board	Take stray children to school law	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Manitoba	7	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	Yes.	Truant Officer has authority.	Police Com-mis-sion-Board	Pub. Sch. Insp.	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Saskatchewan †	7	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	Yes, and holy days.	Truant Officer has authority.	Board	Board	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
Alberta †	7	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	Yes, and holy days.	Truant Officer has authority.	Board	Board	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.
British Columbia	7	14	Entire School Year	Parents	Yes	Yes	Yes, or other unavoidable cause.	Truant Officer has authority.	Board	Board	Investigate reported cases. Notify parents. Institute prosecutions.	Monthly to police. Anually to Edu. Dept.	Yes	Never under 14 during school hrs.

REMARKS.—* Truants may be arrested and conveyed to school or may be imprisoned. † Minister of Education may appoint Provincial Chief Attendance Officer. †† There is no compulsory clause in the Quebec school law. Each city is required to make an annual census of the children of school age. Boys and girls cannot be employed in any industrial establishment, trade, business, or profession, etc., if being less than sixteen years old they are unable to read and write. Special inspectors appointed by the Minister of Labour have charge of this matter, and issue the certificate required. If the boy or girl under sixteen not otherwise certificated is attending a night school, authorization may be given by the inspector to continue in an employment.—Summarized from Statutes of 1916, 9 Geo. V., Chap. 50. This law is now in operation in the cities of the province of Quebec.

Exceptions are variously stated and the limiting years are not all alike, but omitting the province of Quebec, the fundamental principle of insisting on children attending school six or eight years where "at least the common school branches of reading, writing, spelling, English grammar, and geography are taught by a competent teacher, is maintained throughout the Dominion. Kindergarten departments are very general in the cities of Ontario and to these, children are admitted after passing the fifth birthday. This fact probably accounts for the lower of the two age limits in Ontario being eight years. The upper limit everywhere is fourteen except in the province of Alberta where it is placed at fifteen years.

All of the laws permit absence owing to physical disability and also for lack of accommodation from the overcrowding of school buildings. Likewise attendance at the public schools is not compulsory if it can be satisfactorily shown that the child is receiving equivalent instruction at home or in a private school. In the cities of New Brunswick school attendance is not enforced if the child is over twelve years of age and has passed grade seven or over thirteen years of age and has attended 60 days in fourteen consecutive weeks. The minimum school attainment apart from age is placed higher in Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta where the child must have passed the grade eight or public-school-leaving examination. In the province of British Columbia the "standard of attainment possible" in the local schools must be reached. In Ontario and the western provinces absence is permitted for the purpose of engaging in domestic or farm work under certain prescribed conditions. The absence may be for six weeks in each half year in Ontario and Alberta. In Saskatchewan the child must be over twelve years of age for home or farm duty and absence is for a period to be determined by the local board.

PARENTS ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR ATTENDANCE OF CHILDREN

Parents or guardians or the people with whom the child resides are responsible for the attendance of the child at school. All of the provinces provide penalties for non-observance of this duty, unless valid reasons under the law can be shown.

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POWERS OF SCHOOL BOARDS

The powers of local city school boards are everywhere explicit. In the province of New Brunswick these include taking a census annually of all children between the ages of six and fourteen. The instruction in private schools in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick must be approved by the public school board. The officials of the board in these provinces are also given the right to enter factories or other places where children work or congregate. In Alberta this is extended to include examination of all theatres or other places of amusement.

ATTENDANCE OR TRUANT OFFICERS.

In British Columbia the school board may complain to a magistrate if the attendance of certain children is not satisfactory and institute proceedings against the parents or guardians. Elsewhere the school boards of cities are required to appoint attendance or truant officers to enforce compliance with compulsory education laws. The New Brunswick law defines a truant as a child absent for ten days in any year without valid excuse and without the consent of the parent. Generally however, absence for any length of time whatever, without satisfactory excuse is regarded as an offence. Attendance officers are required to investigate and to take the necessary steps to secure the proper observance of the law.

The "truant officer" in the cities of Ontario is appointed, controlled and paid by the police commissioners. He may, and in actual practice generally does, work under instructions from the public school inspector. Teachers are required to report monthly to the truant officer the names, ages and addresses of children who are not attending school as required by the Act. The officer visits the homes, notifies the parents of their liability to penalty and institutes proceedings against the parents if such action is necessary. He is empowered "to enter factories, workshops, stores, shops and all other places where children may be employed or congregate." He must report monthly to the authorities who appoint him and annually to the Minister of Education.

The powers of truant or attendance officers are very similar in all of the provinces but with the exception of the cities of Ontario, nomination and appointment rests

with the local school board. In general, school principals must report non-attendance of pupils each week in order to permit quick action by the attendance officer. The latter reports monthly to the school board and annually to the provincial minister of education.

RESPONSIBILITY OF EMPLOYERS.

Employers of child labor are required to assist in enforcing compulsory education laws. In New Brunswick, for example, they must permit officers of the school board to enter and examine the premises and interrogate those who appear to fall under school regulations. They must furnish the school board with a list of all children in their employment. They must not employ children under fourteen years of age during school hours unless the child's certificate shows that he has passed grade seven and attended school at least half of the preceding year and must not employ a child under thirteen "at any time in any mechanical manufacturing or mercantile establishment."¹ In the other provinces the law generally states that children must not be employed under fourteen years of age unless they have a valid excuse under the Act.

WELL-MARKED TENDENCY TO ADVANCE THE UPPER AGE LIMIT.

There is a distinct tendency in Canada to raise the age limit at which children may legally leave school. In New Brunswick the age was fixed at sixteen years in 1906 but this clause was amended in 1908 so as not to apply to children in the cities. The "Act respecting the Compulsory School Attendance of Adolescents" in Ontario though since found to be unworkable and so repealed² is a further indication of this trend. In the province of Alberta, the upper limit is fixed at fifteen years, but if the child is fourteen years of age and regularly employed in some useful occupation, he may be excused from school attendance. That is to say every child must attend school regularly up to fourteen years of age and either be at work or at school in his fifteenth year. This would seem to be a very wise intermediate measure.

¹ Chap. XIII., 6 Edw. VII., N.B., sec. 31, cl. 2.

² Probably to be reintroduced in amended form.

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COMPULSORY LEGISLATION WAS FORMERLY TO PREVENT
ILLITERACY BUT IS NOW ALSO DESIGNED TO
ENSURE A GOOD LABOR FUTURE.

Studies of industry recently made in cities of the United States easily justify compulsory attendance up to sixteen years of age. "Industry and business have almost no desirable openings for boys or girls under the age of 16."¹ This indicates a new point of view, for compulsory education measures have in the past been devised as a rule to prevent illiteracy,—to secure for every child a good common school education as a minimum.

The new viewpoint sees the labor future of the youth and attempts to so guide him that advancement while he labors will be assured. In cities, work is available for girls and boys under sixteen but most of it is not *desirable*. It is of the "blind alley" type and leads nowhere except into the ranks of unskilled labor. On the other hand employers with positions to offer in which the worker learns and advances from point to point in both skill and knowledge, are generally not anxious to employ young people under sixteen years of age. There is therefore, in many cities in all of the provinces a gap between the fourteenth and sixteenth birthdays and in this intervening two years the youth may legally be out of school. During this period he may oscillate from place to place in undesirable work or he may do nothing. The "permissive" fifteenth year in Alberta is an advance in the right direction. It would appear that other provinces might wisely incorporate a similar provision in their compulsory school attendance legislation. It would probably be advantageous to both the child and the state in the end, if, under safeguards, the compulsory school attendance age were advanced to sixteen years. Such legislation has been added to the school laws of several of the States of the Union and is reported to be working effectively.²

¹ Ayres, Leonard P. : "Child Accounting in the Public Schools,"
p. 68.

² California, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin.

THE SCHOOL CENSUS

Another administrative device which assists in promoting a better school attendance is the school census. As stated above, school boards in the cities of New Brunswick are directed by law to take a school census annually. This is not compulsory in other provinces but of 51 cities throughout Canada 37 cities report that a school census is taken. Information is not at hand as to what extent these enumerations are conducted by the city, provincial or dominion authorities or as to their frequency, or regarding the use made of them.

Assuming that no argument is necessary as to the value of the minimum essentials of education to every young citizen, it may well be doubted whether all the youth of our cities are receiving those minimum essentials. Compulsory education laws, the energy of attendance officers and vigilance of school principals and teachers, no doubt, accomplish much. The greater part of their work in this connection, however, applies only to children who are enrolled on the school registers. The requisite machinery has been devised to keep these children in school until legally released. But many Canadian city school teachers believe that a serious deficiency exists respecting children whose names are not entered on school registers. Often they are the children in families recently entering the city, or moving about within the city. These children frequently escape attendance for a part of a term only, but interest is lost and irreparable damage is done. This is probably true to some extent in the smaller cities. The loss is undoubtedly heavy in the cities of medium and larger population where there are congested areas which attendance officers cannot possibly cover continually.

The best method yet devised for meeting this loss is the *continuous school census made effective in a few American cities*. In some American cities¹ by means of careful administrative organization and the assistance of other city departments, the school census is not merely annual, it is *never more than a week or ten days behind any given date*. It contains the name, address, date of birth and up to date facts as to the education of every inhabitant in

¹ As for example, Cleveland, New York, Rochester and Indianapolis.

the city between the ages of 6 and 21, whether attending public, private or separate school, or not in attendance in any school. With this type of school census, effective checking up of school registers and census lists can be carried on and adequate enforcement of compulsory education laws becomes assured. Every Canadian city school board should develop the necessary legislation and set about the details of securing and keeping up an accurate school census. The work should be in charge of an expert and should be closely co-ordinated with that of the attendance officer, the whole being under the general direction of the superintendent of schools.

THE PERIOD OF INSTRUCTION

The education of a community depends to a certain extent upon the actual amount of time during which the schools are in session. In the year 1917, 22 Canadian city school systems operated their schools 200 days or more, the city schools of Weyburn and Moose Jaw in the province of Saskatchewan having the longest school year with a total of 210 days. Twenty-seven cities kept their schools open more than 190 days and less than 200 days and 2 cities less than 190 days. The school day exclusive of noon intermission in 12 cities lasts 4 or 4 and a fraction hours; in 33 cities it is 5 or 5 and a fraction hours; in 3 cities it is 6 hours and in 2 cities—Sherbrooke and Three Rivers in the province of Quebec—it is 7 hours in length. These two cities, along with Thetford Mines, also in Quebec, open their schools at 8.00 a.m. All other city schools open at 9.00 a.m., except in the winter months, when those of several Western cities open at 9.30 a.m. Eleven cities close their schools for the day at 3.30 p.m., but 4.00 p.m. is the rule in 42 other cities.

The usual intermissions, one each morning and afternoon, are given in 50 cities, but the school boards in the six cities of Halifax, Sydney, St. John, Moncton, Outremont (Protestant) and Brantford, allow a morning intermission only.

THE NOON HOUR

The noon intermission in greatest vogue is ninety minutes—the custom in 36 cities. Seven others have a longer period, one taking one hour and three-quarters

and six city boards allowing two hours. Ten cities use less time than the mode. Of these, 4 take one hour and a quarter, 5 use one hour, and 1 each allow 30 minutes and 20 minutes. The children are expected to go home for lunch in 48 of the 55 city school systems which report respecting their noon intermission. In Prince Albert and Victoria they are not expected to go home and in 3 other cities it is optional or voluntary. Lunch is provided at cost to pupils of the Technical schools of Vancouver and Victoria and several elementary schools in Edmonton and Nelson. In some of the schools of Brandon and Portage la Prairie, hot drinks—cocoa, tea and coffee—are served to children, and in Calgary High School there is provision for the preparation of hot drinks. Lunch is provided free to the children of the Open-air and Forest schools of Toronto, to poor children of Three Rivers and to certain other children in Regina, Medicine Hat and Nelson. Few Canadian city schools have special lunch rooms. Where children bring their lunch the usual method is to set apart a class-room supervised by the staff in rotation. This is the plan adopted in 15 cities. Sometimes as in Guelph and Sarnia, supervision is left to the janitor and in a few cities, the children eat their lunch in the basement.

THE NOON HOUR WHEN CONTROLLED BY EMPLOYERS

Once more we are constrained to glance aside momentarily from schools, teachers and pupils to observe the methods of business men in conditions not unlike those of the school. He has found it worth while to make a close study of the physique of his employees and has determined that even the matured adult with well developed will power does not work to advantage if his body is improperly fed. Hence manufacturers, departmental store managers and other employers of labor have found that cafeterias, pleasant lunch rooms, newspapers and magazines and music and dancing all costing money and all possible only at an apparent loss will, in the final event, pay substantial dividends.

THE EFFECT OF THE NOON HOUR ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Similarly some education administrators are doubtful as to the wisdom of the cold lunch for the growing child, the school basement for a dining-room and a con-

siderable length of time after lunch with nothing to do—no adequate means of recreation. Thus a few school boards have been able to convince the taxpayer that expenditures to provide hot drinks at cost or even free of charge, magazines, and a comfortable attractive reading room are quite justifiable. Also there are advocates of access to the school library and to the school piano at noon hour. All of these innovations are being tried with good result. There is ground for believing that a measure of imperfect school attendance in the past may be attributed to gradual falling off of the child's interest in his school, occasioned by factors other than the actual teaching. This in turn is due to obscure vision as to the needs of children. In schools which are open to try out new ideas, evidence is accumulating which goes to show that attendance improves when the conditions suggested above are recognized as contributory causes to low attendance. Such conditions must be studied and adequate remedies provided.

It is little more than 50 years ago that objections to free education were many and vigorously advanced. The argument for free schools in Canadian cities may now be regarded as definitely settled. Only a decade or two have elapsed since the free textbook was, after much opposition, adopted in some Canadian cities. Perhaps another decade or two may see the general incorporation in certain city school systems of attractive lunch-rooms, with lunch at cost to some children and to others even free of all cost.

COMMENT ON "THE PERIOD OF INSTRUCTION" IN
CANADIAN CITIES.

This summary of the details of Canadian city school practice in the matter of the period of instruction invites discussion. Which is better, 181 days of school in a given year or 210 days? Which is preferable, four hours of school each day or seven? What are the best opening and closing hours? Do the pupils in the schools of Halifax, St. John, Brantford and other cities suffer any physical or mental handicap from not having an afternoon intermission? Will a child be a good student, will he learn to like school, to develop habits of industry, to be regular and punctual in his attendance; will he

cleave unto his book if his food and drink at noon are insufficient or if he is compelled to eat too hurriedly or in a basement room with the janitor as guide?

Such questions cannot be answered in a word, by a "Yes" or a "No." To answer them satisfactorily would require much information not at present accessible. We should have to examine and compare the content of Courses of Study both as to quantity and richness. The length of the school day and school year depend upon them. We ought to have accurate information as to the results of education in so far as this is related to attendance and the latter to the separate details enumerated in the summary above. And assuming that the requisite facts of the courses of study and of the results of instruction were available and made ready for investigation, we should require very refined methods of measuring all these factors. These methods are in process of construction and evolution, and each year, is marked by some forward step in the development of ways of measuring the value of all that teachers and pupils do and all else that contributes in any way to the grand total.

Meanwhile thoughtful teachers and administrators are constructively doubting. Some children are seen to require a long school year, so vacation schools are being tried out. Teachers find that other pupils are benefited by a long school week, not such as will tax the daily physical endurance but still such as will give some additional school time when mind and body are fresh, and so Saturday morning sessions have been inaugurated.

A REITERATION

One further remark on the matter of school attendance may be offered. It is in keeping with comments several times made in earlier parts of this study. Is each of these variously different plans as to compulsory education, as to school census or lack of it, as to the period of instruction and to the noon hour and noonday meal, absolutely satisfactory to the people of the locality where the plan is in force? Do the educational administrators, teachers, pupils, parents know how these matters are managed in other cities of the Dominion? Have they themselves experimented under carefully controlled

conditions with other plans? Is there overwhelming evidence that their own plan is positively the best? Educational administrators and teachers must be given power to examine and experiment and encouraged to scrutinize and to evaluate these and similar moot points in the management of schools. Along with the positive gain in knowledge and possible improvement in practice, studies of such questions comprise a sure prelude and accompaniment to the reinvigoration of the teaching staff for the more usual and ordinary duties it must perform.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN ANNUAL REPORTS.

In discussing the duties of the superintendent in Chapter III., general and particular comment was offered respecting certain parts of published annual reports which constitute a special duty of a superintendent of schools. It will be fitting to add to the former discussion by including "school attendance" in this chapter, as a feature in annual reports. All annual reports received give the customary space to the facts of school attendance, but only two of them, Toronto and Winnipeg, offer any discussion or explanation of the facts. Some of the reports include the statistical device of comparatively recent development and closely related to school attendance which is known as the "age-grade" table. Of 14 Canadian annual reports received for the purposes of this study, five for the school systems of London, Montreal (Protestant), Ottawa, Toronto, and Winnipeg make use of the "age-grade" table to indicate the pupil enrolment. The five tables are substantially the same in form. All give the total number of pupils at each age in each grade in the system. The Montreal and Winnipeg reports give separate figures for boys and girls.

THE DANGER POINT AS TO AGE.

First, let us consider certain significant features which the "age-grade" tables reveal as to the *age* of school children. The two following tables are based on "age-grade" tables in the reports. Table No. 27 gives the enrolment at each age from six years to 18 years in each of the cities of London, Montreal and Winnipeg.

TABLE No. 29.—ENROLLMENT OF PUPILS BY AGES IN THREE TYPICAL CANADIAN CITIES. FROM PUBLISHED ANNUAL REPORTS.

AGE.	LONDON Sept., 1916	MONTREAL Jan., 1917	WINNIPEG June, 1916
6.....	767	2,474	2,839
7.....	843	2,720	3,308
8.....	902	2,975	3,007
9.....	884	2,818	2,899
10.....	828	2,744	2,597
11.....	803	2,587	2,425
12.....	787	2,328	2,401
13.....	582	1,780	2,020
14.....	236	1,210	1,500
15.....	65	596	669
16.....	10	381	198
17.....	2	160	49
18.....	...	54	26
18+.....	...	12	20

TABLE No. 30.—PERCENTAGE OF THE WHOLE ATTENDANCE OF EACH OF THREE CITY SYSTEMS, OF PUPILS ENROLLED AT EACH YEAR OF THEIR AGE. COMPUTATIONS BASED ON FACTS OF TABLE No. 29.

AGE.	LONDON.	MONTREAL	WINNIPEG
6.....	11.4	10.8	11.9
7.....	12.6	11.8	13.8
8.....	13.4	13.0	12.5
9.....	13.2	12.4	12.1
10.....	12.3	12.0	10.8
11.....	12.0	11.2	10.1
12.....	11.7	10.1	10.0
13.....	8.6	8.7	8.4
14.....	3.5	5.3	6.2
15.....	.9	2.6	2.7
16.....	.1	1.7	.8
17.....7	.2
18.....2
18+.....

It is assumed that these are representative of all Canadian cities. Table No. 30 is made up of careful computations of the facts of Table No. 29. It reduces Table No. 29 to a percentage basis. That is, referring, for example, to the column for London in Table No. 30, we may note

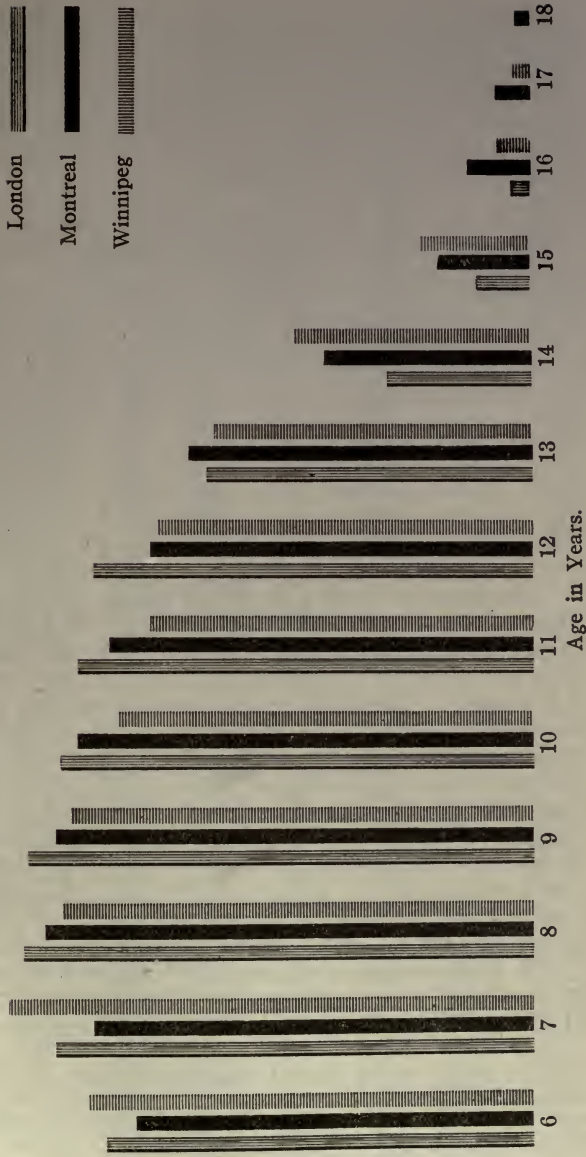
that of all the children in the London schools 11.4 per cent are six years of age, 12.6 per cent are seven years of age, 13.4 per cent are eight years of age, and so on for all the ages represented in the schools of the three cities.

Upon reading the data of Table No. 30 by columns downward, we note several striking features. The percentage of a school system at each age from six to twelve years is fairly constant. It ranges from 10 to 13 per cent. At thirteen years, however, there is a considerable decline to about 8 per cent. At fourteen years, the decline is again sharp and is still more pronounced in the higher ages. Reading the data of the same table, line by line crosswise, we may observe that the school enrolment percentages in these three typical cities are strikingly similar for any age from six to thirteen years inclusive. These facts are graphically shown in Diagram No. IV., p. 223. It will be noted that from seven years to twelve years the decline is very gradual. This is owing to the fact that while the majority of children at these ages are in school, there are relatively more children in the city at the lower ages than at the upper ages. The fall in the height of the columns and decline in school enrolment is, however, quite abrupt at thirteen and fourteen years and onward. These then are the ages when children commence to leave school in large numbers. We have a clear indication that the general disposition and needs of children at these ages (and probably earlier) should be carefully studied to the end that they be retained a longer time in the schools.

THE GRADES IN WHICH DISINTEGRATION COMMENCES.

Having noticed from the graph and the tables the *ages* at which children are likely to leave school, let us determine the *grades* from which they leave and hence secure a general idea as to the degree of education received. The "age-grade" tables to which reference has already been made and which provide the basis of the previous discussion, also furnish the data for Table No. 31. This shows the distribution of the school children of the same three cities according to grade. Table No. 32 has been prepared from computations of the facts of Table No. 31. As in the former instance, Table No. 32 repeats the data of Table No. 31, but on a

DIAGRAM NO. IV.—THE PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN ENROLLED AT EACH AGE, 6 YEARS TO 18 YEARS, IN EACH OF THREE CANADIAN CITIES. THE HEIGHT OF THE COLUMNS REPRESENTS THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN AT EACH AGE OF EVERY HUNDRED CHILDREN ENROLLED IN EACH SYSTEM.



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percentage basis. From No. 32 we may see that in the schools of the city of Winnipeg, 21.5 per cent of the children are in the first grade, 18.8 per cent in the second grade, 15.2 per cent in the third grade and so on for the remaining grades. Similar percentage readings may be made of the enrollment by grades of the children in the schools of Montreal and London.

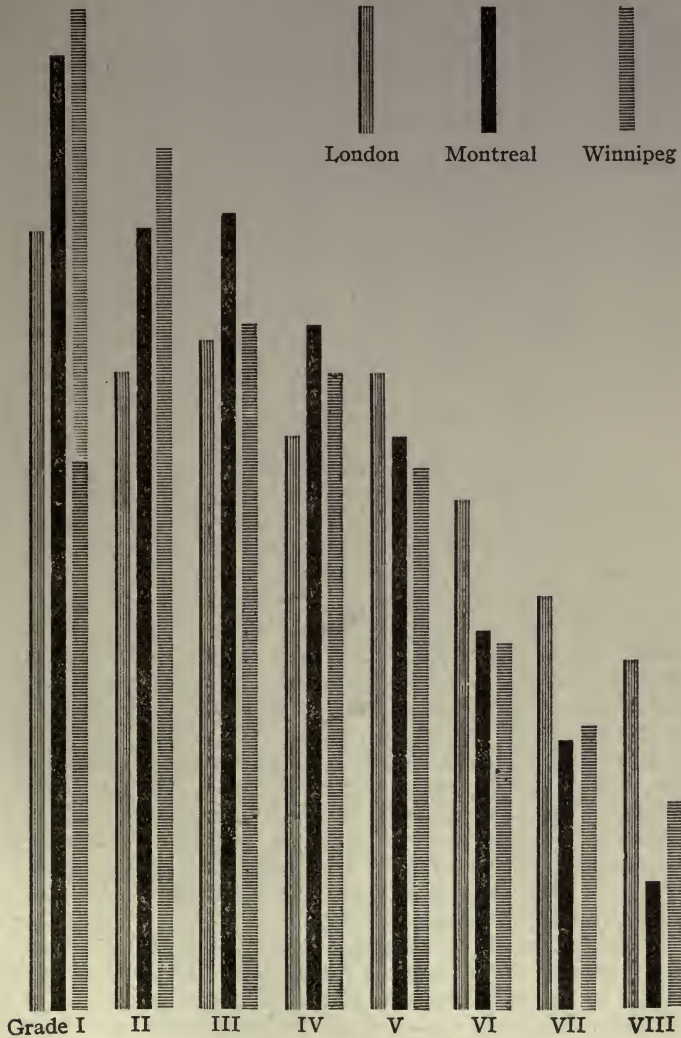
TABLE NO. 31.—ENROLLMENT OF PUPILS BY GRADES IN THREE TYPICAL CANADIAN CITIES. FROM PUBLISHED ANNUAL REPORTS.

GRADE.	LONDON Sept., 1916	MONTREAL. Jan., 1917	WINNIPEG. ¹ June, 1916
I.	1,173	4,553	5,172
II.	943	3,707	4,550
III.	999	3,755	3,692
IV.	849	3,256	3,387
V.	942	2,575	2,899
VI.	765	1,812	2,016
VII.	621	1,267	1,441
VIII.	499	595	1,087

The facts of Table No. 32 are shown graphically in Diagram No. V., p. 225. The significant feature in this diagram is the almost invariable decline in the height of the columns made to represent grade enrollment in each of the cities. There are only three exceptions to this otherwise constant fall. Two are in London, where the column representing Grade V. is somewhat taller than that for Grade IV. and Grade III. is slightly higher than Grade II. In Montreal also Grade III. is a trifle taller than Grade II. A still more impressive fact is the sharp decline in each city from Grade V. onward. For London, for example, the columns in the graph representing London's Grades VII. and VIII. are not so tall taken together as the column representing Grade I. The case is still more pronounced for Montreal and Winnipeg, where the columns representing Grades VI., VII. and VIII. if placed above one another would not be so tall

¹As pointed out in the Winnipeg report, figures for June are not valid in a discussion of retardation. But after promotions are made in September, the numbers in each grade would be substantially the same and thus they have been used as an *approximately correct indication of the "dropping out" tendency.*

DIAGRAM NO. V.—THE PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN ENROLLED IN EACH GRADE I. TO VIII. IN EACH OF THREE CANADIAN CITIES. THE HEIGHT OF THE COLUMNS REPRESENTS THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE SCHOOL GRADES I. TO VIII. OF EVERY HUNDRED CHILDREN ENROLLED IN EACH SYSTEM.



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as that representing Grade I. These are the grades then, VI., VII., VIII., from which the large part of the "dropping out" takes place in Canadian city schools. The education of such children is meagre. Is the condition remediable? Who is at fault?

TABLE NO. 32.—PERCENTAGE OF THE WHOLE ATTENDANCE OF EACH OF THREE CITY SYSTEMS OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN EACH GRADE. COMPUTATIONS BASED ON FACTS OF TABLE NO. 31.

GRADE.	LONDON.	MONTREAL.	WINNIPEG.
I.....	17.3	21.0	21.5
II.....	13.9	17.2	18.8
III.....	14.7	17.4	15.2
IV.....	12.5	15.1	13.9
V.....	13.9	12.4	11.9
VI.....	11.3	8.4	8.3
VII.....	9.1	5.8	6.0
VIII.....	7.4	2.8	4.5

ATTENDANCE AND RETARDATION.

In the original "age-grade" tables in the annual reports may be found a suggestion toward answering the questions just raised. The tables show the position as to age and grade of all the children in the respective systems. Since the course of study consists of eight parts, each corresponding to a year of work and the usual entering age is six years, the course should be completed when the pupil is 14 years of age. It likewise follows that pupils of ordinary ability experiencing no untoward check—such as long term of sickness—should progress through the grades at the rate of one grade for each year in school. This is a generally understood law,—as is evidenced by the London, Ottawa and Winnipeg reports in which the "age-grade" tables indicate the numbers of children making "normal" progress by means of bold face type and heavy black lines. The tables also show the numbers of children faster and slower than normal.

Table No 33 is compiled from the original tables of the reports and shows the ratio of the slow or retarded pupils to the total number of pupils in the grade. For example, the table shows that the percentage of Grade

TABLE NO. 33.—THE PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN THE UPPER GRADES WHOSE PROGRESS IS SLOWER THAN NORMAL, COMPILED FROM THE "AGE-GRADE" TABLES OF ANNUAL REPORTS, THREE TYPICAL CANADIAN CITIES.

Grade.	Total Number in Grade.			Total Number Retarded.			Percentage Retarded.		
	London		Winnipeg	London		Winnipeg ¹	London		Winnipeg
	Montreal	Winnipeg	Montreal	Winnipeg ¹	Montreal	Winnipeg ¹	Montreal	Winnipeg	
III.....	999	3,755	3,692	462	1,489	1,452	46.2	39.6	39.3
IV.....	849	3,256	3,387	408	1,566	1,541	48.1	48.9	45.5
V.....	942	2,675	2,899	458	1,206	1,537	48.8	45.1	53.0
VI.....	765	2,812	2,016	411	902	839	53.7	49.7	41.6
VII.....	621	1,267	1,441	240	572	714	38.6	45.1	49.5
VIII.....	499	595	1,087	181	234	447	36.2	39.3	31.1

¹ Since the statistics for the Winnipeg report were compiled in June, they are not valid in a retardation study of the actual amount in years of retardation. They are included in the present table as given in the original report, because they will be approximately correct as to the number of pupils retarded.

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VI. retarded one, two, three or more years in London is 53.7 ; in Grade VII of the same city, 38.6 and in Grade VIII, 36.2 and that there are similar percentages of retarded in Winnipeg and Montreal.

There is no intention at this point of instituting comparisons as to the number of retarded children in these three cities. Geographically the cities are located at wide intervals and in three different provinces. Their courses of study are not alike and there may be other differences. Rather the obvious implications in this connection are :

1. Of every 100 children in Canadian city schools 30 to 50 are retarded. Some are retarded several years.
2. Retardation is due to failure to do the prescribed work.
3. Failure means repetition of work, then monotony and then loss of interest.

Do these facts bear any relation to the large number of withdrawals from the upper grades as shown in Table No. 32 and the companion Diagram No. V. ? Will not failure, retardation, repetition, monotony probably produce "interrupted attendance" and finally "dropping out ?"

ATTENDANCE AND PROMOTION IN THE TORONTO, 1916 ANNUAL REPORT.

As was stated earlier in this chapter, attendance and related statistics in the published annual reports of Canadian city school systems are almost invariably without comment.¹ The facts are generally presented in a formal and traditional manner. Explanation is seldom offered and constructive comment on a text which might be made the basis of needed sermons in educational administration is rare. In the Toronto Report for 1916, for example, three pages are occupied with a summary of attendance facts and a statement showing the registration, the number of rooms and average number of pupils per teacher for each of nearly 100 school buildings. No explanation is provided. The

¹Two reports, Toronto and Winnipeg, offer explanatory comments regarding their attendance statistics.

facts constitute statistical information, but have not been arranged with a view to scientific elucidation of administrative problems.

By way of contrast, mention may be made of the discussion a few pages farther on in the same report of the related subject, "Promotion of Pupils." The treatment is largely statistical and is both elaborate and scientific. There are 19 tables occupying as many continuous pages. Unfortunately, the tables are not directly accompanied by the explanatory notes and therefore readers not trained in statistics may find them difficult to interpret. Furthermore, the total treatment is somewhat marred by the interposition of several pages of unconnected matter, "Cost of Maintenance," "The City Council and the Board." Discussion of these topics is inserted between the 19 pages of statistical tables on "Promotion of Pupils," and the related exposition of the facts of the tables. As the entire discussion of this important topic in the Toronto report stands alone in Canadian annual reports, particular comment follows.

This section of the Toronto report opens with an "age-grade" table showing the age of each pupil of the system as well as his location in the grades in the month of June, 1917.¹ A similar table shows the condition in September, 1917, after promotions had been made. Seven additional "age-grade" tables give the facts for the seven inspectoral divisions into which the city is divided. Each of these tables gives the average age in years and months of the pupils in each grade. Other tables give the numbers of pupils promoted from grade to grade in each district and the combined numbers for the city, as well as the numbers of those who "skipped" a grade.

THE PERCENTAGE OF PROMOTIONS IN THE UPPER GRADES
IS HIGHER THAN IN THE LOWER GRADES. WHY?

A very significant table shows the percentage of pupils promoted grade by grade in each inspectoral district. From this table we may learn that promotions in the first two grades fell as low as 44 per cent. with averages of 48 and 50 per cent., while in the upper grades the average promoted is 72 to 76 per cent. with a high mark in one district of 84.3 per cent. promoted. It

¹See p. 230, Table No. 34.

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TABLE No. 34—BRING PAGE 41—ANNUAL REPORT 1916, BOARD OF EDUCATION, TORONTO.
REPORT ON PROMOTION OF PUPILS—JUNE, 1917.

TABLE A—SHOWING ROLL OF PUPILS ARRANGED ACCORDING TO AGES AND FORMS BEFORE PROMOTION.

GRADE	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	TOTAL
	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	YRS.	
K'GARTEN.	36	1,521	4,979	1,824	97	3	1	8,461
Jr. 1.....	3	39	614	4,672	3,958	1,242	282	78	22	9	2	1	1	10,923
Sr. 1.....	14	459	2,457	2,617	1,091	346	119	29	10	2	1	7,145
Jr. 2.....	17	805	2,460	2,212	1,161	450	185	30	7	1	1	7,329
Sr. 2.....	208	1,124	2,157	1,892	1,098	497	143	23	3	7,149
Jr. 3.....	8,050
Sr. 3.....	5,574
Jr. 4.....	4,168
Sr. 4.....	3,093
TOTAL..	39	1,560	5,607	6,975	7,535	7,687	7,062	6,582	6,382	5,976	4,046	1,782	534	108	14	3	61,892

TABLE NO. 35, BEING PAGE 48, ANNUAL REPORT 1916, BOARD OF EDUCATION, TORONTO.

REPORT ON PROMOTIONS OF PUPILS—JUNE, 1917.

TABLE H—SHOWING THE LENGTH OF TIME THE NON-PROMOTED PUPILS HAVE BEEN IN THEIR PRESENT GRADES, WITH NUMBER OF PUPILS IN EACH CASE, AT END OF SCHOOL YEAR, JUNE, 1917.

TIME IN PRESENT GRADE	KGTN.	Jr. 1	Sr. 1	Jr. 2	Sr. 2	Jr. 3	Sr. 3	Jr. 4	Sr. 4	TOTAL
Less than one-half year	2,175	867	243	169	191	260	117	49	7	4,078
One-half year	1,181	2,298	1,564	1,633	1,221	1,627	594	312	172	10,602
One year	896	1,825	642	564	577	914	743	705	467	7,333
One and one-half years	51	271	...	50	34	107	29	16	10	568
Two years	5	165	64	25	15	61	37	40	35	447
Two and one half years and over	42	16	4	2	6	1	...	6	77
TOTAL	4,308	5,468	2,529	2,445	2,040	2,975	1,521	1,122	697	23,105

NOTE.—The School year covers about ten months, or two terms of five months.

might be asked whether the higher percentage of promotions in the upper grades is due to better teaching or is it possible because the majority of "stupids" have been first retarded and then eliminated in the lower grades.

THE TORONTO REPORT FURNISHES GOOD ILLUSTRATIVE MATERIAL

Two other tables which should be of great significance to all educational administrators give the length of time pupils promoted were in the grades they had just left and the length of time non-promoted pupils have been held without promotion.¹ It is clear that these latter tables present a general view of retardation as it exists in the Toronto schools. Explicit reference is being made in this study to retardation and promotion in Toronto, because the Toronto report, through its frank and elaborate statement of facts offers the best available illustrative material for a discussion. In many cities of the United States where conditions are said to be not very dissimilar from those in Toronto, the problems involved in the regular progression of pupils through the school system constitute live topics with the administrators. Canadian officials have in general not made comparable data available. It may be assumed, however, that careful statistical investigations in other Canadian cities would reveal conditions not unlike those in Toronto.

THE COST OF RETARDATION

As with all else, whether a defect to be eradicated or an improvement to be introduced, the matter of cost demands attention. Careful computations based on the facts given show that the extra annual expenditures due to retardation or non-promotion in Toronto are very large. The single item of teachers' salaries at the lowest estimate is not less than \$65,800.² If the "total cost per

¹ See page 231, Table No. 35.

² Reducing the amount of retardation of the numbers of pupils (Tables E and H, pp. 45 and 48, Toronto Annual Report, 1916), who have been 1½, 2, 2½ years and over in their grades to "pupils retarded one year," we have 4047 pupils. At 43 pupils per teacher, these would require 94 teachers, whose salaries at the initial figure of \$700 would total \$65,800.

pupil for calendar year 1916 = \$45.25"¹ in the Toronto system is used as the base of the calculation we have the very large total of \$183,000² as the extra annual expenditure on account of retarded pupils. Assuming that all retardation is not preventable, it is clear that if even one half of it could be avoided the resulting annual saving in any Canadian city would be no mean item. This is irrespective of other savings which might be effected in such matters as building accommodation and equipment. It also neglects the less obvious but no less real effect which retardation may exercise on the pupils themselves. Attention has already been drawn to the probable relation between retardation, poor attendance and "dropping out." This latter aspect of the cost of retardation often constitutes a social tragedy.

RETARDATION AND ACCOMMODATION

After dealing with some other matters, the Chief Inspector proceeds to a discussion of the tables referred to in the previous paragraphs. As in all other growing cities, the building department of the Toronto board is "behind in its program of providing class-room accommodation." Moreover, the average number of pupils per teacher is considered to be too large for the most effective work. It is pointed out that part of the solution rests in relieving the pressure in primary classes "by keeping the higher classes larger." To this end the chief inspector says:

"Vigilance on the part of the principals in respect to the progress of the "repeaters" in all the rooms of the school is essential to the reduction of retardation and to the consequent shortening of the average time it takes to cover the entire public school course."³

THE CAUSES OF RETARDATION

In accounting for the fact that one pupil in every four due for promotion actually fails,⁴ the chief inspector gives a table which shows the classification by causes

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 60.

² 4,047 pupils (see Note p. 232) at \$45.25 = \$183,126.75.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 63.

⁴ 24.48 per cent. *Ibid.* p. 65.

and distribution by grades of the non-promoted pupils. The details of the table have been supplied by teachers and principals. The causes¹ assigned for non-promotion are given as:

Slow mental development	Physical defects
Interrupted attendance	Lack of application
Inapt in academic work	Adverse home conditions
Ill health	Feeble-mindedness
Mentality below average	Various minor causes.

The Chief Inspector comments on each of these classes and remarks that the school principals use the list "in the absence of a commonly accepted and definitely applicable scientific terminology." The report does not state just how decisions were arrived at with respect to placing children unsuccessful in school work in one or other of these classes. Since the classification itself however, is admittedly unscientific, it may be inferred that the actual assignment to the classes given above is based on mere subjective opinion.

RETARDATION CAUSES REDUCE TO ONE—MALADJUSTMENT.
WHAT IS THE REMEDY?

Failure in school work as shown either by retardation or non-promotion or by "dropping out" or elimination from the school, constitutes a tragedy for the many children to whom our discussion applies. This tragedy means that probably the gates of systematic learning are henceforth closed to these children. The supposition has generally been that the fault or misfortune rested with the children and that the various facilities for instruction were nearly perfect. But on examining the list of causes for non-promotion given in the last paragraph, it may be seen that many of them reduce to one great cause—maladjustment of pupil with the materials of instruction. For, "slow mental development" and the other causes of non-promotion simply mean that the child is asked to do work for which he is not suited. The teacher's ability to hasten the speed of mental development is limited at best. On the other hand, since the child all too apparently does not fit the curriculum why not endeavor to secure a happier result some other way?

¹ Ibid p. 65.

We might change, rearrange, add and subtract in the course of study if we would. Herein lies a remedy for non-promotion, for retardation, and for discouraged children as well as a method of preventing the elimination of pupils from the school, which is only recently attracting the attention of administrators.

REMEDIAL MEASURES FOR RETARDATION

That this alluring alternative is present in the minds of the Toronto principals and of the Chief Inspector is evidenced in the report. The principals set down half of the failures to *slow mental development and inaptitude for academic work*.¹ The head of the system says:

“There is also the question as to whether it would not be in the interest of many of them (the failures) to be provided with a course of school work different from much of that which constitutes the standard syllabus.”²

The matter reduces itself then to the question— Shall we endeavour to make every child conform to one unalterable course of study and thereby cause the retardation and subsequent elimination of many? Or, since it appears that we cannot change the inherent capacity of the child, shall we modify the materials of instruction so as to more adequately suit his capacities and his needs?

In suggesting measures toward reducing retardation to a minimum we do not consider valid the simple expedient of passing the pupils through the grades irrespective of ability and capacity unless specific investigation of individual cases shall warrant such a procedure. Scientific method should invariably be used. Three factors are involved, teacher, pupils and course of study. It may be admitted that some teachers do poor work. Also it may be admitted that some pupils have inherent weaknesses or are otherwise unfortunately circumstanced. These admissions suggest partial remedies. But since the majority of pupils do not fail of promotion and since practically all teachers find it necessary to “fail” some of their pupils, the major remedy probably rests in the

¹ 48 per cent. Ibid p. 67.

² Ibid. p. 67.

third factor. As already suggested, the enormous failure of pupils to comply with the prescribed educational requirements can mean in the main only one thing—the inappropriate character of the course of study for the pupils pursuing it. In other words, the remedy consists in a recognition of the lack of adjustment between pupils and the materials of instruction and in the formulation of adequate courses of study. The steps are:

- 1 A thorough, modern and local diagnosis
 - (a) of the needs of society.
 - (b) of the needs of the pupils who really constitute a part of society.

- 2 A prescription of school work untrammelled by tradition; a prescription which will adequately provide for the genuine needs of the people by taking into account variety of locality and many individual types of pupils.

MEDICAL INSPECTION—ITS ENORMOUS VALUE.

Although usually considered from the standpoint of preventing the spread of contagious disease, of remedying physical defects, and of maintaining general health, vigor and happiness, medical inspection in schools is, in addition, an aid of first rank importance in securing the perfect attendance of the children and as a total consequence of producing a much enlarged educational output. To the administrator of schools anxious to secure the maximum educational result both in quantity and quality, healthy, vigorous, happy children in attendance at every school session is a *sine qua non*. Teachers have repeatedly shown the futility of attempting to instruct children who can see neither blackboard nor books correctly, who have imperfect hearing, whose teeth are carious or whose throats, scalp or hands require attention. They have shown that not only is the progress of these children retarded but also that their presence in the classroom has a handicapping influence on those who are in perfect physical condition. The thoughtful parliamentarian has realized that compulsory education enactment in order to preserve the state carries with it responsibilities for the protection of the children whom it compels to attend school. Social

workers have urged the value of the moral assistance in the struggle with certain well-known evils and temptations of city life, if the body can be kept clean and free from disease.

THE MEDICAL OFFICER IN CANADIAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

In 15 Canadian cities the boards of education have not set up any form of medical inspection whatever. The school children of 42 other cities are medically inspected but in 9 of these, the work is directed by the city or by the municipal officer of health, and not by the school board. "Partial" meaning "by nurses only," describes the scope of the system in 12 of the 42 cities. The medical inspector devotes his entire time to work in the schools in 6 cities and in 3 of these—Toronto, Winnipeg, and Vancouver—there are several assistants to the chief medical officer. In other cities the school doctor gives only a portion of his time to the school children as in Sault Ste. Marie, Sarnia, and Saskatoon where this is fixed at one-half of each school day, in Lachine, six hours per week, and Halifax one hour per day. In Westmount schools, medical inspection is quarterly and in Weyburn monthly. In some cities the inspection is of a casual character as, for example, in Sydney where the schools are visited by the doctor "occasionally" and in Three Rivers "whenever called on." This is in striking contrast with the attention given medical inspection in Toronto where "each school is visited every day by a school medical officer and a nurse alternately."¹

THE SCOPE OF MEDICAL INSPECTION.

In 3 Canadian cities, Quebec, Portage la Prairie, and North Battleford, medical inspection is still on the level which marked its inception as a feature of public school administration. It consists simply in locating and restricting contagious and infectious diseases. In addition to this phase, in itself very important, examination is made for eye, ear, nose and throat defects in the schools

¹ Annual Report of the Board of Education, Toronto, 1916. Department of Medical Inspection, p. 2.

of 37 cities, while in 11 cities there are dental clinics and in 6, Montreal (Roman Catholic), Outremont (Protestant), Ottawa, Toronto, Vancouver, Victoria, expert scientific examinations are made of alleged subnormal children.

SCHOOL NURSES IN CANADIAN CITIES

School nurses are employed by the boards of education of 32 Canadian cities. Of these, 18 city boards have one nurse, 7 have 2 nurses, Hamilton and London have 3 nurses, Ottawa and Calgary each have 4 nurses, Vancouver has 5 nurses, Winnipeg has 10 nurses, and Toronto¹ 46 nurses. There is a wide range in the authority under which Canadian school nurses perform their duties. In Toronto, Montreal and cities in which the department of medical inspection is not responsible to the board, the school nurses usually act under the direction of the City Medical Officer of Health. School nurses in Windsor are responsible to the Board of Health and in Brandon to the Provincial Health Department. The school board, or the Medical Committee of the board direct the nurse's activities in 14 cities. In 7 cities the nurse is responsible to the school doctor and in 7 other cities to the city inspector of schools.

THE DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE SCHOOL NURSE.

The duties of school nurses have been carefully formulated for several city school systems where medical inspection has passed through the experimental stage and become firmly established. Besides her final responsibility to the upper administrative authority of the board or its committee, the superintendent or inspector of schools, or the school doctor, she is subject to the authority of the principal of the school she is visiting in such of her duties as effect its general organization and management.

For certain specified causes the nurse may send a child home from school in Peterborough but in other cities, report is made to the principal, who exercises this power.

In Toronto every child is examined as soon as practicable after admission to the school and afterwards

¹ In 1916.

every two weeks. Systematic examinations of children are made in Ottawa schools at least three times each year and "include a close observation of throat, teeth, hair, eyelids, hands, ears and cervical glands." In addition, the joints and spine are examined by Toronto nurses and practically all cities include simple tests for sight and hearing. First aid in cases of emergency must be rendered but giving or prescribing of medicines is forbidden. The Toronto rules prohibit explicitly recommending any particular physician or hospital. The nurse must refer "all cases of children requiring treatment to their parents or guardians."

All of the "rules" detail extraordinary measures in cases of communicable disease. The nurse's regular program of duties is cancelled in Ottawa. If the case is reported from the Board of Health, as in Toronto, every room in the building is to be checked in order to discover if children from the sick home are present so as to secure their exclusion and if necessary the case is reported to near-by schools.

The examinations, instructions to individuals, and treatments of many kinds total thousands for each nurse in the course of a year. As many of these refer again and again to the same children, accurate record of what is done and the progress achieved must be kept and for this purpose elaborate forms have been devised. These are the basis of monthly and annual reports and the greater part of the detail of this work must be carried on by the school nurse.

In Ottawa a principal may arrange for conferences "between nurses and teachers to discuss school hygiene" and the senior inspector may require the nurse "to give talks to the pupils on personal hygiene." The giving of lessons in hygiene is a regular duty of the school nurse in Saskatoon. "To conduct 'Little Mothers' classes' in accordance with the special instructions" is a duty of Toronto nurses and such classes are also carried on by the school nurses in the city of Vancouver.

THE RELATION OF THE SCHOOL NURSE TO THE PUPIL'S HOMES.

The principal relation of the school nurse to the homes of the pupils may be briefly described as "follow up" work in the form of efforts to secure remedies and

corrections as disclosed by medical examination in the schools. Almost all of the cities report that the nurse "visits the homes," "advises the parents to act," "consults with the parents," "explains to the children and parents" or "follows up" the formal notice sent to the home stating the nature of the defect. Attention must be given to the child in Three Rivers, as directed or "he is sent back home" and in Regina the child is "sent to the family physician," but in most cities the parents are urged by the nurse in her visits to the home to do whatever is necessary to remedy the diseased condition.

SCHOOL CLINICS

Since adequate treatment often appears to be beyond the finances of the parents, several school boards have extended their department of medical inspection to include free clinics for the children of parents not able to afford the requisite professional attendance. These have been established in 5 cities, Toronto, London, Saskatoon, Vancouver and Victoria. To the nurse falls the major part of the investigation necessary to determine whether or not a child is to receive free treatment of the kind given in a physician's, dentist's or oculist's clinic and frequently it is necessary for the nurse to accompany the child to the clinic.

COMMENT ON MEDICAL INSPECTION IN SCHOOLS

From the parent has come the principal objection to medical inspection of school children and this on the ground that it involves an infringement of personal prerogative—a "trespass on the domain of private rights and initiative." This has of course no logical basis in fact. So far, medical inspection in public schools has carried with it little of a mandatory character. Its attention has been confined to the prevention of contagion and to a systematic methodical search for physical ailment and maladjustment. Such being found it offers a courteous business-like notification to the parents that the conditions discovered are so and so. Naturally it hopes that the plain responsibility and duty of the parent will be acknowledged and that remedial measures will be taken forthwith. However as the home condi-

tions of some children suggest that alleviation is a very remote possibility, some school boards have arranged to provide free treatment for such cases.

The whole movement toward adding the doctor and the nurse to the school staff may be considered to be past the stage of inception. Argument as to the advisability of medical inspection in schools no longer attracts much notice. The majority of communities are convinced and representatives in the board room make haste to carry into effect the mandate of the people. The discussion has resolved itself into one of ways and means. Experiment has been rife, standards are still in process of determination and as is customary with all innovations a variety of administrative procedure abounds.

The foregoing summary of the duties of the school nurse as variously formulated by the boards of education in Canadian cities will easily convince the reader that she is the mainstay of medical inspection in schools. Perhaps the school physicians themselves will be willing to admit as much. With the services of a physician only, as in some cities, medical inspection in schools except in a few cases of emergency rarely consists of more than a casual visit. It is then of the same order as the prevailing medical inspection of the homes of the people. All the members of any family are medically inspected just when required or rather in most cases a little later when the conditions are somewhat alarming. The doctor must then treat a disease which is already well established. Medical inspection in schools, on the contrary, aims to discover physical ailments and to give advice as to their treatment when they are still in the incipient stages. It recognizes literally the old adage that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of remedy.

AN ADEQUATE STAFF OF EXPERTS IS REQUIRED

To conduct medical inspection of school children in any genuine way an expert staff of doctors and nurses is required. That would seem to be axiomatic. Some Canadian city school systems, however, seem to manage with nurses only and no doubt, if funds are not sufficient to permit a completely balanced staff, inspection by one or two capable nurses will accomplish much until a regular

medical practitioner can be retained for service in the schools. Both the doctor and the nurse have specialized functions to perform with respect to school children and neither can do well the work of the other. Owing to the part time service, especially of doctors, accurate calculations as to the number of trained experts required are extremely difficult. In a recent study of this question in the schools of Cleveland,¹ one nurse for each 2,000 children and one doctor for each 5,000 children was recommended. At present Ottawa, with nurses only, has one for each 2,200 children. Toronto has one nurse for each 1,500 children while Winnipeg and Vancouver employ one nurse for each 3,000 children and in each of the latter three cities there is a staff of medical, dental and other expert doctors. Officials in these cities should compare notes as to the class of duty performed, the number of examinations each child receives per annum, the cost and the general efficiency of the service rendered. Until each city has placed this important department of school service on a proper basis by engaging an adequate staff of expert doctors and nurses it can scarcely claim to have inaugurated a complete system of medical inspection in its schools.

MEDICAL INSPECTION IS PRIMARILY AN EDUCATIONAL
FEATURE AND INSTRUCTION IS MORE EFFECTIVE
IF CHILDREN ARE HEALTHY.

But medical inspection in schools should not be assumed to be something apart from the traditional class-room instruction—a luxury, a mere addendum. In two ways it is intimately connected and bound up with systematic educational effort. In the first place, it maintains the necessary physical condition of the children without which mental progress is well nigh impossible. It nips contagion in the bud. It quickly vanquishes many ailments of childhood which are exasperating to both child and teacher. It discovers the more serious physical maladjustments and urges action or provides the remedy. It singles out the subnormal, recommends him to the instructor of the auxiliary class and releases the regular teacher and normal pupils for un-

¹ The Cleveland Survey of Schools.

hampered work. It is instrumental in securing perfect attendance at school and those conditions of health, vitality and happiness most conducive to the aims of the teacher. In brief, medical inspection is an *assistant* of first importance to the educator.

DOCTORS AND NURSES ARE ESSENTIALLY INSTRUCTORS.

In the second place, medical inspection is *teaching*. This is clearly evident all along the line. In the use of the tooth-brush, of soap and water, of towels and drinking cups, in advice from a professional expert as to correct posture in sitting, standing and walking, as to clothing, food, sleep and exercise, doctors and nurses do much actual teaching. They give skilled demonstrations in first aid and impart knowledge as to common ills and the efficacy of simple remedies. They provide authoritative information to the older girls on the care of infants, and to older pupils, both girls and boys, on personal hygiene. All these bear ample testimony to the fact that medical inspection in schools is, in a very real sense, *instruction* in the vital essential of every complete curriculum—knowledge and skill in developing and preserving the health of the human body.

RELATION OF MEDICAL INSPECTOR TO THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

The foregoing discussion indicates clearly the relation which ought to exist between the Medical Inspector and the Superintendent of Schools.

(1) Because the school doctor and the school nurse provide such strong support for the teacher.

(2) Because so much that they do is and should be genuine teaching, and

(3) Because of our fundamental principle of school administration that the board's chief executive—the inspector or superintendent of schools—should be the directing and co-ordinating head of the educational organization, since the board holds him responsible for smooth-working, efficient machinery and high grade of output,—because of these:

The chief medical inspector, while supreme in the professional conduct of his department, should be subordinate to the chief educational executive, the inspector or superintendent of schools. He might well be given the title assistant superintendent.

CHAPTER VI.—RECOMMENDATIONS.

Public schools and public school administration stand primarily on the assumption that benefits accrue to the state if a certain prescribed quality and quantity of education are given to every member of the community. With this aim, school systems have been set up and compulsory education, attendance and child labor laws and laws respecting medical inspection have been enacted. It is believed that the following recommendations if carried into effect would improve conditions:

1. The scientific evaluation by the officials of each city school board of every sort of mode and procedure which they employ with respect to Attendance and Medical Inspection.

2. Conferences of Canadian city school board officials in which the proposed evaluation of modes and procedures would be discussed and compared with a view to setting up the highest possible standards of efficiency and the changing of modes and procedures in the direction of the new standards.

Having tentatively completed recommendations 1 and 2 above, special topics which should further occupy the attention of officials in conference would be:

3. A census for each city school district is recommended. This should be complete, accurate and totally checked up annually just before the commencement of the school year. Furthermore, steps should be taken to provide for additions or subtractions as these become necessary throughout the year

4. City attendance departments are recommended. These should provide an individual enrolment card and cumulative records for every child in the school district. The entries would consist of facts as to date and place of birth, parentage, school history and physical, educational and sociological data. All these have a bearing on attendance.

5. A careful examination is recommended of all the factors which condition in any way the regular progress of children through the grades. Such factors are:

- (a) The administration of the period of instruction.

(b) The noon hour.

(c) The adequacy and appropriateness for specific children of the materials of instruction.

The object in examining such factors would be to secure for remedial purposes the following data :

(1) The number and percentage of children promoted from grade to grade.

(2) The number and percentage of children repeating the work of any grade and the causes of their retardation.

(3) The actual location in the grades of the specific individuals retarded, at the *beginning* of the period of retardation with a view to diagnosis and educational remedies.

6. The establishment is recommended in every city of such wise and complete measures of medical inspection of school children as have already been set up in a few Canadian cities.

7. As features of such departments of medical inspection, the establishment is recommended of psychological and psychopathic clinics. Their aim is to remove the selection and segregation of subnormal and super-normal children from the realm of unscientific opinion and to recommend adequate provision as to the teaching of such children.

Such measures would materially assist in improving attendance in the grades, would tend to diminish the elimination of pupils from the upper grades and would be a notable contribution toward the policy of securing a maximum of efficient product from all the raw material offered.

8. It is further recommended that the head of the department of medical inspection, while supreme in the detailed direction of all doctors and nurses in his department, should be subordinate to the Superintendent of schools. He should rank as Assistant Superintendent.

CHAPTER VII.

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VII.

1. The expenditures for school buildings and grounds in Canadian cities have enormously increased since 1900. In the city of Ottawa, which is probably a typical example, the total expended in the period 1910-1914 was 45 per cent. greater than the total expended in the period of 1905-1909 and 531 per cent. greater than the total expended in the period of 1900-1904.

2. Some essential problems requiring definite enunciation and solution are briefly suggested.

3. Canadian urban school boards are almost evenly divided as to whether or not they possess absolute power respecting property expenditures. Funds for additional accommodation are universally raised by a debenture issue. Comment is offered on this plan.

4. The functions of the property committee in general and in detail for five Canadian cities are tabulated and attention is drawn to the abundant variety in this matter.

5. For 22 Canadian city school boards there is a Department of Buildings with a chief executive generally designated Superintendent of Buildings. The relation of this officer to other school board officials is indicated and comparison drawn with the American practice.

6. The specific duties of the superintendent of buildings in the three Canadian cities, Ottawa, Toronto and Winnipeg, which have such information available in published form, are tabulated. Dissimilarities are pointed out. The prescriptions of duties for the superintendent of buildings of these three cities are, however, strikingly similar.

7. Attention is drawn to the very brief statement of duties for the Inspector of Buildings of Montreal, as contrasted with the minutely detailed prescription of duties for the corresponding officer in Ottawa, Toronto and Winnipeg.

8. The general building practice as to school building policies is indicated with special reference to:

- (a) Heating, ventilation and seating.
- (b) Offices and rest rooms for principals, assistants and medical inspection.
- (c) Assembly hall and gymnasium.
- (d) The school piano.

9. Canadian practice as to the wider use of the school plant is summarized. Permission to use buildings and grounds should be a duty of the superintendent of buildings acting in conformance with the board's legislation. The caretaker should receive extra remuneration for his services in this regard.

10. The size of playgrounds in 33 Canadian cities is tabulated. The trend is toward a larger space for play activities and for specialized playground equipment.

11. Janitors and caretakers are important officials in public school buildings. The Canadian practice is detailed and comments are offered respecting:

- (a) Appointment and tenure.
- (b) Qualifications.
- (c) Duties.
- (d) Assistant janitors.
- (e) Inspection and responsibility.

12. Canadian annual reports are silent as to the work of the janitors. A suggestion for the improvement of janitorial service is quoted from an American report.

13. The chapter closes with general remarks as to the old and the new in Canadian city school buildings and a series of recommendations.

CHAPTER VII.

BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

INCREASED EXPENDITURES

Schools with handsome, dignified exteriors, beautiful, spacious, well-appointed interiors, fire-proof construction, greatly increased accommodation, and acres instead of two or three city lots as a building site and playground, cannot be secured without a greatly increased outlay. This is the experience everywhere. The city of Cleveland, Ohio, for example, has increased its population 40 times since 1850, but its expenditures for school buildings in the decade 1905-1915 were 800 times larger than the building expenditure of a corresponding period 75 years ago.¹ Few Canadian city school boards have made this type of data available for study and comparison. Table N. of the annual report for the year 1917 of the inspector of Ottawa public schools furnishes a noteworthy exception² and from it the following table has been compiled:

TABLE NO. 36.—EXPENDITURES FOR SCHOOL PROPERTY IN THREE
5-YEAR PERIODS WITH INCREASE PER CENT,
CITY OF OTTAWA, ONT.

5-Year Period.	New Buildings	School Sites	School Furniture	Total Expended on School Property
1900-1904.....	\$ 73,589	\$ 16,057	\$ 8,597	\$ 98,243
1905-1909.....	369,391	49,101	9,138	427,630
1910-1914.....	493,267	108,402	18,647	620,316
Increase of third period over second.....	123,876	59,301	9,509	192,686
Increase of third period over first.....	419,678	92,345	10,050	522,073
"Increase per cent of third period over second period"	33.5	120.8	104.0	45.0
"Increase per cent of third period over first period"...	570.3	575.1	116.9	531.4

¹ Ayres, Leonard P., and May Ayres : "School Buildings and Equipment," p. 12.

² In a single table are shown receipts and expenditures, the former subdivided into five and the latter into 20 important classes year by year since 1895, down to and including 1917.

From this table it may be seen that the board of education for Ottawa has enormously increased its expenditures for school property. For purposes of comparison the three quinquennial periods previous to the opening of the great war are taken and the outlay is classified as "New Buildings," "School Sites" and "School Furniture." During the five years ending in 1914, the expenditure for new buildings was 33.5 per cent. greater than for the five years ending in 1909 and no less than 570.3 per cent. greater than for the five years ending in 1904. Likewise in the same periods of time we find that the expenditures for school sites increased 120.8 per cent. and 575.1 per cent., while the total expenditure for building, land and furniture in the third over the first quinquennium indicates the enormous increase of 531.4 per cent. Undoubtedly similar increases could be shown in the disbursements for school property in many other Canadian cities if the necessary data were compiled and made available for scientific study.

PROBLEMS OF THE SCHOOL BOARD WITH RESPECT TO ITS BUILDING DEPARTMENT

In all probability it may be demonstrated that each of these enormously increased expenditures is justifiable on the ground of increased educational facility and efficiency. In Canadian cities as in American, a serious task continually confronting the school board is the timely provision of adequate and thoroughly modern accommodation for the ever-increasing swarms of children.

Every school board member in accepting the responsibilities of his office binds himself to give the problems involved in housing the children his most careful consideration. Herein are many disputed points in educational administration. Does the size of the city warrant employing an expert superintendent of buildings and, if so, shall he be a major executive or shall he be subordinate to some other school official? What shall be the policy of the board respecting heating, ventilating, lighting and furnishing new buildings? What accommodations other than class-rooms should be provided in new buildings? Should the building site permit sufficient playing space for football and baseball and for school gardens? Shall the policy be adopted

and the expense be incurred of providing playground equipment for a part of the open area surrounding each school? Should small school sites in congested districts be enlarged? Ought the board to control public playgrounds which are not attached to its schools? Who should nominate school janitors, what should be their qualifications and duties and to whom should they be responsible for the correct performance of those duties? Here is work for a school board as to the framing of policies, and for its executives in securing obedience to those policies and reporting thereon and finally for the board in inspecting the reports and work done and in developing further necessary legislation. We shall now consider Canadian practice in this regard.

AUTHORITY AND FINANCE.

One of the most important questions relating to public school property refers to the authority under which school sites are purchased and buildings erected. On this point the school boards of 29 Canadian cities are not compelled to consult any other body or officer while in 26 other cities the board must refer the question before entering into agreements or signing contracts. In 2 cities, this reference is by means of a special by-law which must receive the approval of the people, in 8 cities the city council must consent and in 16 cities the inspector, education department, or the government must be consulted and report favorably.

The confirmation of the board's decision to buy land or to build new schools is in reality only another way of demanding that the city or government provide for extraordinary expenditures. In some cities this consists of power to raise the necessary funds by the issue and sale of bonds or debentures. The legal basis for the powers of city boards in the matter of school bonds was treated in Chapter V. In this connection it is worthy of note that school bonds or debentures are to raise money and solely for permanent improvements, that is for the purchase of school sites or the erection of buildings. A bond issue is rarely paid off in less than 20 years. Forty years is a favorite term and for some cities the time may be 50 years.

FUNDS FROM BOND ISSUES OR FROM CURRENT REVENUE.

To require payment in full to-day for "permanent" improvements which will be used by subsequent generations is a principle which has been held almost universally to be unfair. The erection of buildings from current revenue is probably not to be considered in cities with rapidly increasing population. It may however, be entirely possible in the older cities of more stable population, in which facilities of great value have been put in place and frequently paid for by previous generations. In the first place, the vaunted statement of school property superintendents that they have built for the future, may be questioned. Studies made of the life of school buildings in American cities¹ show that this is not more than thirty-five years. How does this fact align itself with bond issues to erect these buildings if the bonds are not entirely retired for forty or fifty years. In view of the expenditures for upkeep and necessary alterations even a 20 year issue seems financially unsound.

But in the second place, if it is true that the buildings "will last a century" we have in all probability a building blunder. For in view of the changes brought about in the last twenty-five years in educational practice, and other modifications of instruction distinctly on the horizon it may be said with little less than absolute certainty that elementary school buildings at least, built to-day in the approved prevailing style will be unsuited to the educational plans of twenty-five years hence. While still advocating adequate, safe, healthy accommodation it might be wise to study the possibilities of erecting school buildings which are good but which are not intended to endure for ever and which will therefore have a lower initial cost. This would make possible in many of the older Canadian cities at least a commencement toward the erection of buildings from current revenue instead of by means of the more expensive method of issuing bonds.

THE PROPERTY COMMITTEE. FUNCTION IN GENERAL.

Canadian school boards accustomed to discuss detailed business in standing committees² generally

¹ Grand Rapids, for example.

² Vide Chapter II., page 41ff, supra.

nominate such a committee to consider the minutiae of school property. Of the 57 cities reporting, 36 have a property committee. The work of this committee is usually limited to buildings and grounds, but in a few cities other matters are assigned to it for consideration and report to the board. An indication of the regular function of the committee may be obtained from its title.

TABLE NO. 37.—PROPERTY COMMITTEES OF CANADIAN CITY SCHOOL BOARDS.

Title of Committee.	Cities.
Property.....	12
Building and Grounds.....	9
Sites and Buildings.....	3
Real Estate and Buildings.....	1
Buildings.....	8
Buildings and Supplies.....	2
Grounds, Health and Recreation.....	1

From this table it may be seen that in 25 cities, the Property Committee of the Board considers matters related to both buildings and grounds, in 8 cities there is a standing committee for buildings alone, while in 3 cities other matters such as supplies and health are dealt with by this committee.

FUNCTIONS OF PROPERTY COMMITTEE IN HANDBOOKS.

A more detailed account of the duties of the property committee may be obtained from the official handbooks. As remarked elsewhere, few Canadian school boards have accurately defined and published the functions, duties and powers of their officials and committees. Only five handbooks received,—viz., those for the school boards of the cities of Kingston, Ottawa, Toronto, Windsor and Winnipeg,—outline the duties of the property committee in minute detail. These functions are shown itemized in Table No. 38. There is the usual Canadian variety and lack of agreement among these five cities, in this instance as to the duties and responsibilities of the property committee.

Of the 29 items which include all the duties prescribed, the Ottawa board assigns 18 to its property committee, the Windsor board 15, Toronto 11 and Kingston and Winnipeg each 10. Only 4 items of the 29

TABLE No. 38.—THE FUNCTIONS OF THE PROPERTY COMMITTEE OF THE SCHOOL BOARD. COMPILED FROM PRINTED BY-LAWS OR RULES AND REGULATIONS. FIVE CANADIAN CITIES.

FUNCTIONS	Kings- ton	Ottawa	Tor- onto	Wind- sor	Winni- peg
Report to Board re purchase and enlarging of school sites.	+	+	+	+	+
Report to Board re erecting, repairing, altering, improving, enlarging.	+	+	+	+	+
Report in writing annually as to repairs and improvements.	+	+	+	+	+
Charge of heating and ventilating.	+	+	+	+	+
Care and improvement of school grounds.		+	+	+	+
General supervision of school buildings.	+		+	+	+
Providing additional accommodation.		+	+	+	
General supervision of school furniture.	+		+	+	
Consider other matters referred to it.		+	+	+	
Recommend sale of school property.		+		+	
Study most economical and desirable changes for comfort and welfare.	+				+
Suggest a plan and mode for each new building.	+				+
Superintend erection of new buildings.	+	+			
Charge of water, gas and electricity.		+		+	
Supervision of janitors.		+		+	
Recommendations for appointment of janitors.		+	+		
Charge of repairs, enlargements and improvements.		+			
Supervision of plumbing and sanitary arrangements.					
Charge of insurance and taxes.				+	
Examine school property during summer.					+
Report annually as to character and value of school property.					+
Secure written contracts with janitors annually.		+			
Dismiss caretakers on report of superintendent of buildings.		+			
Report action to Board re dismissal of caretakers.		+			
Recommend salaries of caretakers.	+				
Control mechanics and workmen employed by Board.		+			
Control of superintendent of buildings.	+				
Give superintendent of buildings special power to deal with contractors.			+		
Supervision of superintendent of repairs.				+	

are assigned to the property committee in all five cities, only 2 items for 4 cities, while 3 of the items are among the duties of the property committee in 3 cities, 7 items in 2 cities and 13 of the 29 items of the list come within the prescribed responsibilities of the property committee in only one of the five cities.

Futhermore, it may be remarked that the Ottawa and Winnipeg boards each designate the committee by the prefix "Building," although as may be seen in the table, in each case the committee considers such matters as the purchase and enlarging of school sites and the care and improvement of school grounds. In neither case, however, does this "Building Committee" have general supervision of school furniture. In Ottawa, this is assigned to the "Furnishing" committee and in Winnipeg to the committee on "printing and supplies."

It is also to be noted that in Kingston, the school board has a standing committee for each of its school buildings. It may thus be seen that there is much difference of opinion and procedure relating to school buildings, school grounds, school furniture and janitorial service in the official prescription of duties and responsibilities of the property committee of the five boards whose handbooks afford a detailed definition of duties.

THE BUILDING DEPARTMENT

The property committee of the school boards of smaller cities recommends from time to time the temporary employment of architects and other property and building experts as may be found necessary. The school boards of the larger cities, however, have set up building departments with officials whose particular duties are the providing and maintenance of school accommodation.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF BUILDINGS. HIS RELATION TO OTHER SCHOOL OFFICIALS

In 22 Canadian cities, the school board has instituted such a special department for the care of its property. The head of the department is usually designated "Superintendent of Buildings." In Montreal this official is subordinate to the Secretary-Superintendent

of Schools. In a few other cities of the province of Quebec, the duties of superintendent of buildings and superintendent of schools are performed by the same individual, the secretary-superintendent. In 2 cities, the relation of Superintendent of Buildings to the Inspector or Superintendent of Schools is "not defined" while in 15 other Canadian cities, or 68 per cent. of the cases, this relationship is definitely described by the terms "independent," "co-operate" or "colleague." In the United States,¹ of 30 cities with population more than 100,000, the superintendent of buildings is independent or co-operative in 26 cities or in 86 per cent. of the cases, while in 55 cities of population less than 100,000, the superintendent of buildings is independent or co-operative in 38 cities or in 68 per cent. of the cases. It may thus be seen that the situation as to the business relationship of these officials in Canadian cities is very similar to that in American cities. Nevertheless, a distinct tendency in such cities of the United States as are in process of reorganizing the functions and responsibilities of their school boards and school officials is toward making the superintendent of buildings and his department subordinate to the superintendent of schools. The latter is thus definitely constituted the chief executive of the board.

SPECIFIC DUTIES OF SUPERINTENDENT OF BUILDINGS.

Again referring to the handbooks, we are enabled to examine the specific duties of the superintendent of buildings, in the three cities whose school boards employ this officer and of whose duties we have minutely detailed information. Table No. 39 furnishes a list of these duties (stripped of their legal phraseology for brevity's sake). An indication is given when each specific item falls within the province of the superintendent of Buildings in the cities of Ottawa, Toronto and Winnipeg. The numbers in the columns refer to the footnotes which show any variation from the items listed in the table.

Once more we are compelled to note the variety shown in the formulation of duties for school board

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S.: "Current Practices in City School Administration." U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1917, No. 8, p. 22.

TABLE 39.—DUTIES OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF BUILDINGS OF THE SCHOOL BOARDS OF OTTAWA, TORONTO AND WINNIPEG. TABULATED FROM OFFICIAL BY-LAWS AND RULES AND REGULATIONS.

DUTIES—"Superintendent of Buildings" Ottawa & Toronto. "Building and Supply Agent" Winnipeg ¹	Ottawa	Toronto	Winnipeg
Attend all meetings of Board and Committees.	+	+	+
Make annual report to Board showing values of property, accommodation, conditions, etc.	+	+	+22
Report to property committee re. purchase of sites.		+	
Have care of furniture and see that such is according to contract.	+ 2	+12	+23
Report to Property Committee annually re. repairs.	+	+	+
Prepare all plans etc. as to buildings and grounds.	+	+	+24
Have charge of contracts and construction and placing of all fixtures and machinery.		+	+
Superintend erection of buildings.	+	+	+
See that materials and work are according to contract	+	+	+
Report to Property or Building Committee re buildings in course of construction.	+	+	+
Certify and be responsible for accounts of department	+	+	
Superintend all repairs of school buildings.	+ 3	+13	+
Authority to order small repairs requiring immediate attention.	+ 4	+14	
Have charge of materials for repairs.	+ 5	+15	+25
Supervision and control of caretakers.	+ 6	+16	+26
Report as to salaries of caretakers.	+ 7	+17	
Authority to suspend caretakers for neglect of duty.	+ 8	+18	+27
See that all school property is kept clean and that caretakers perform duties.	+	+	+28
Make inspections of buildings and keep records.	+ 9	+19	
Issue permits for special use of buildings or grounds.		+	+29
Attend to proper heating and ventilation of schools.	+	+	+
Make repairs of heating apparatus when necessary.	+	+	+
Make smoke tests of plumbing from time to time.		+	
Have charge of the Board's mechanics and laborers.	+10	+20	
See that materials for Building Department are purchased by contract or written order.		+	
Pass upon requisitions for caretakers' supplies.	+		
Attend in his office from 9 to 10 a.m. daily, or if prevented notify Sec. Treas. of Board.	+		
Study most efficient and economical manner as to erection of school buildings.			+
Advise Property Committee as to building operations			+
Attend to seating of all new rooms.			+
Prescribe the duties of employees of his department		+	
May dismiss contractor and employ other persons		+21	
See that no changes are made in interior arrangements of platforms, school desks, etc.			+30
Authority to appoint and dismiss architect, inspector, clerks, other employees of dept.		+21A	
Authority to conduct whole work of the dept.		+	

NOTES.—TABLE NO. 39.

1. In Winnipeg, one officer attends to both property and supplies
In order to make the duties as to property comparable for the purpose of the table, duties relating to the purchase of supplies (except building supplies) of the Winnipeg official have been omitted. In Ottawa there is a "clerk of supplies" and in Toronto a "superintendent of the Supply Department"
2. "Under the furnishing committee."
3. "Ordered by the Building and Furnishing Committees."
4. Under \$25, and report in detail to proper committee at its next meeting.
5. "Under proper committee."
6. "Under the direction of the "Building Committee."
7. "Fortnightly to the Secretary-Treasurer."
8. "Must immediately report same to Chairman of Building Committee."
9. "Periodically."
10. "Under direction of Building or Furnishing Committee."
12. "Under the Property Committee."
13. "Ordered by the Property Committee."
14. Not involving more than \$50. Report to be made at next meeting of Property Committee.
15. "Under Property Committee."
16. "Under the direction of the Property Committee."
17. Monthly to the Finance Committee.
18. "With the approval of the Chairman of the Property Committee."
19. "Monthly."
20. "Under direction of the Property Committee."
21. "With the special consent of the Property Committee or with the written consent of the Chairman of the Property Committee," under conditions recited in special by-law."
- 21A. "In conjunction with the Property Committee of the Board."
22. "To the Building Committee."
23. "Under supply committee."
24. "For minor repairs or improvements."
25. "May purchase under the direction of the proper committees.
26. "Under the School Management Committee."
27. "With the approval of the Chairman of the School Management Committee."
28. "Under the Building Committee."
29. If "authorized by the Board."
30. "Without the consent of the proper committee."

officials. In each of the three cities there are duties for the superintendent of buildings which are not required of the corresponding officer in each of the other two cities. Are there then, items of service required of the superintendent of buildings in one city and not actually necessary from the same official in another city? For example, the Toronto officer "reports to the Property Committee from time to time as to the purchase of building sites." Evidently the Toronto board and its committee desire this sort of information and advice. Is this not necessary in Ottawa and Winnipeg and if so, who performs the service? Or do the Ottawa and Win-

nipeg school boards require and receive this sort of service from their officials but do not think it necessary to prescribe it definitely in their handbooks?

AGREEMENT AS TO DUTIES

There is, nevertheless, considerable agreement in the prescription of duties for the three officers. There are 35 items in the table and of these, 15 are required by the superintendent of buildings in all three of the cities, and 7 other items are duties of the superintendent of buildings in two of the three cities. The actual wording of the clauses in the official handbooks provides noteworthy evidence of agreement. It may be remarked that the Winnipeg by-laws were adopted on December 29th, 1903; the Ottawa "rules and regulations" were adopted January 6th, 1916, and the Toronto "by-laws" on April 26th, 1917. Consequently, it may be inferred that the Winnipeg rules have not been revised for 15 years, while the Ottawa and Toronto rules have undergone revision very recently. Nevertheless, note the similarity with only minor dissimilarities in the following quotations:

Winnipeg, Clause 2. "Report to the *Building Committee in writing at the regular meeting in February* in each year the improvements and repairs which in his opinion should be undertaken during the year."¹

Ottawa, Clause 5. "Report *in detail* to the *Building Committee* on or before the first day of *February* in each year, the improvements and repairs which, in his opinion, should be undertaken *by the Board* during the year."²

Toronto, Clause 7. "Report *in detail* to the *Property Committee* on or before the first day of *April* in each year, the improvements and repairs which, in his opinion, should be undertaken *by the Board* during the year."³

Italics are not used in the originals but serve to call attention in this connection to essential words which

¹ By-laws, section VII., p. 28.

² Rules and Regulations, p. 43.

³ By-laws No. 81, p. 21.

are, however, not precisely the same in all three quotations. It will be noted that the quotations are essentially identical.

Further comparison indicates striking resemblances for all three prescriptions of duties of the Superintendent of Buildings. This is particularly remarkable in the case of Ottawa and Toronto in which 14 clauses of a total of 23 are practically identical in their phraseology. It may scarcely be expected that such matters worked out in minute detail to exactly fit conditions in one city could be made to apply *in toto* in any other city. Nevertheless, each city may possibly learn something from other cities of its own class. It would appear that in the matter of prescribed duties for superintendents of buildings, conferences of some sort, with probable mutual advantage, have been held by the officials interested in these three cities.

SHOULD DUTIES BE OUTLINED MINUTELY OR IN GENERAL?

A strong contrast of a somewhat different sort may be pointed out as between Ottawa, Toronto and Winnipeg on the one hand and Montreal on the other. The duties of the superintendent of buildings in Ottawa and Toronto and of the "building and supply agent" in Winnipeg are minutely outlined in each case in 20 or more clauses, some of which might be still further subdivided. They occupy more than two pages in their respective hand books. For the duty of the "Inspector of Buildings" of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of Montreal, there is, on the other hand, one brief paragraph of six lines as follows:

"The Inspector of Buildings is entrusted with the duty of keeping the school buildings in repair, and of providing fuel for the schools and supplies for caretakers upon such conditions as may be determined from time to time. He shall superintend all buildings in course of erection, and all important repairs and alterations committed to the Architects of the Board while in progress, and see that the work is carried out in accordance with the specifications."¹

¹ Regulations of the Board, p. 4.

One is justified in inquiring whether this brief statement is satisfactory to the officials and board of the Montreal system of schools. If so, why are such duties so elaborately detailed in other cities? Does the lengthy, carefully itemized prescription for Ottawa, Toronto and Winnipeg in reality contain *all* the important duties which the superintendent of buildings must perform? The detailed list may prevent the official from forgetting or omitting some duty and it makes easy the checking up of his duties. Moreover, to the extent at least that duties are detailed, no other official can very well trespass on the domain of the superintendent of buildings. With the briefer more general prescription of the duties of officials in Montreal, is trespass ever committed? If not, how in the ordinary nature of human interests is it avoided?

IMPORTANT BUILDING POLICIES.

The funds available, no matter how they may be obtained, determine to a large extent the building policies of any school board. While all that is new is not necessarily good, it is in general true that improvements and new features cost additional sums of money and that the more money invested in a school building, the better will be the facilities for instruction. As the aim of every board of education is to bring about conditions as nearly as possible adequate to the complete development of intelligent, healthy, happy citizens, the members are continually on the horns of a dilemma. They may decide not to incur expenditures which their expert officials advise. They may thus be termed an economical board although some may say that the service is stinted and hampered and that the children are the losers. Or they may determine to secure the best that is to be had. This will please officials and teachers. The children will reap the real benefit but the board may be condemned on the score of extravagance. Undoubtedly the correct course to pursue leads in the final event to the best obtainable but by easily climbed gradients rather than by steep roadways which may become impossible to follow. Hence school boards must frequently go slowly. In planning a new building they will desire one better than the last they erected but they may find it im-

possible to eclipse anything else on the continent. They must frame policies with respect to materials, mode of construction, sanitation, heating and ventilating, accommodation other than class-rooms, and the inclusion of such expensive features as an assembly hall, a gymnasium, and a ten-acre building site. Each of these items involves several alternatives, some of which may not be absolutely the best but at the same time not altogether bad. It becomes a duty of the school board to make decisions in these matters. Space forbids an elaborate discussion of all of these features. A few have been selected as being of special importance and at the same time illustrative of administrative procedure with respect to school buildings and grounds. Details and discussions follow.

HEATING, VENTILATION AND SEATING.

Perhaps no other items exercise a more important effect upon school management than the physical condition of the pupils resulting from breathing pure air, at the proper temperature and sitting in seats and writing at desks of correct height and form. The value to the educational administrator in securing in each new building the best known practice in heating and ventilating the class-rooms and in seating the pupils is at once obvious. No attempt will be made at this time to decide which of the many plans and systems is beyond doubt the best. Those adopted in Canadian cities have been summarized however, and the summary is suggestive. It may be said to indicate the trend.

In 21 cities steam heating has been installed in the latest school buildings; in 3 cities the system of heating is by hot water; in 3 other cities, by hot water and steam, and in 10 other cities by hot air, hot water and steam. The method of ventilating the best school buildings in 32 cities is by forcing fresh air into the class-rooms by means of mechanically driven fans. In Fort William the air is washed, heated to the proper temperature and then forced into the class-rooms. In 6 other cities ventilation is described as by gravitation, through air chambers and air shafts.

The class-rooms of all the elementary schools in 35 cities contain "some" or "two rows" or "about one-

quarter" of adjustable seats. In 8 other cities some of the buildings have adjustable seats but in 11 cities adjustable seats are not provided in the elementary schools. The high schools of 32 cities are reported as being supplied with adjustable seats. There are "some" or "only a few" such seats in the high schools of 3 cities while in 16 cities there are no adjustable seats in the high schools.

OFFICE AND REST ROOMS.

THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE.

There is practically no exception to the rule that Canadian city elementary school buildings now contain extra accommodation for the principal. This is generally designated "principal's office" but in a few cities, "small private rooms," or "retiring rooms." In some of the Guelph buildings there is a room for the joint use of principal and teachers. On the other hand the schools of Fort William have a large double office for the principal.

High School buildings in Canada are in general planned with better office accommodation for the principal than the elementary schools. Report is made of only one in which the office space is entirely unsatisfactory. In the majority of cases the architect definitely provided office space in his building plans. In a few cases there appears to be a combination of office and library in an ordinary class-room unit. Vancouver High Schools have an office and reception room and Victoria—"offices, general and private."

PRIVATE ROOMS FOR ASSISTANTS

Rooms are set apart for the private use of assistant-masters in the elementary school buildings of 21 cities; in two cases they share with the principal and in one instance there is a teachers' room for the use of the entire staff. The elementary school buildings of 13 cities have no accommodation other than the class rooms for assistant masters. With only a few exceptions this matter has been well attended to in the high schools throughout the country. In one instance the assistants share with the principal, in another "there is only the

lunch room," and in still another "we are overcrowded for teaching space." In five high schools there is a teachers' room common to all members of the staff, but elsewhere special private accommodation is given to the assistant-masters.

The women assistant teachers in Canadian elementary schools are in general provided with a "rest room," for their private use. This is customary in all but the oldest buildings in 42 cities. The high schools of 37 cities are reported to have satisfactory private accommodation for the women assistants. In other cities, either there is no accommodation other than class-rooms, or there are no women assistants.

ROOM FOR MEDICAL INSPECTION

The officers for medical inspection are given a special room in the elementary school buildings of 28 Canadian cities. In almost all of these the room is said to be well equipped. In Stratford there are two rooms, but in Fort William and other cities, the principal's office is used while in New Westminster, the school doctor and nurse have special accommodation in the central offices of the board, but none in the school buildings. The high school buildings of only eight cities in Canada are reported as giving satisfactory office space for medical inspection.

REMARKS AS TO OFFICE ACCOMMODATION.

It is clear that the school boards of a majority of Canadian cities are endeavoring to provide appropriate and comfortable accommodation for the members of their staff in addition to the regular class-rooms to be found in all school buildings. A principal can scarcely preserve the dignity of his position and conduct a fruitful interview with parents, teachers or pupils in a class-room, or if he must stand in a large hallway through which other members of the school are continually passing. Neither is it fair to expect the best results in an "office" little larger than a trunk room or a clothes closet. The visits of parents may be a valuable aid in school work, but the parent who must "wait his turn" and stand in the corridor outside the office door even for only a short time is not predisposed to endure the exasperation of a

second occasion. Neither can the business of giving the current events of his school adequate consideration, or of doing the thoughtful planning for the future spoken of in an earlier chapter as a major function of a school principal, be brought about effectually in accommodation which the average business man would not endure for a day. The same may be said for the space, or lack of it, allotted to the school doctor or nurse. In attempting to save at these points, boards of education are "penny wise and pound foolish."

In all cities where the convenience of assistant teachers has been thought of in the architect's design, there is little doubt but that the outlay is more than covered by the increased service given by employees whose physical needs are thus provided for. Comfortable rest rooms, toilet rooms, and lunch rooms, all suitably equipped and furnished for the use of teachers are now customary in all new school buildings. Wherever possible it would be worth while to make the necessary alterations in the older buildings.

ASSEMBLY HALL AND GYMNASIUM.

New elementary school buildings in 38 cities and new high school buildings in 49 cities include an assembly hall but this accommodation has not been provided in the elementary schools of 16 cities and in the high schools of 3 cities. A completely furnished gymnasium is provided in the elementary school buildings of 12 cities and in the high school buildings of 38 cities and in 7 cities of the 38, the gymnasium of the high school is used also by the elementary school pupils.

Both assembly hall and gymnasium constitute expensive additions to a building programme. The return seems to be small indeed if use is not fairly constant. As to the need of a gymnasium in the elementary school building there is some difference of opinion. The majority of educators favor the freer forms of play out of doors as physical exercise for the younger children. Opinion is practically unanimous that many girls and boys while attending high school are benefited physically by means of systematic work in a gymnasium in addition to outdoor games and sports. That the assembly hall is of great value in both the elementary and high school

is admitted by all educational administrators but use should be frequent by individual classes, by groups of classes, and by the entire school both with and without visitors. The assembly hall should be available also for other meetings than those directly under school auspices and to this end arrangements should be perfected for separate heating and lighting and free access from the street without throwing open the remainder of the building.

THE SCHOOL PIANO.

Only one Canadian city reported that none of its school buildings is provided with a piano, although in 14 other cities a piano has not yet been placed in every school building. These valuable accessories to the effective life of the school have been supplied as any other piece of equipment by the school boards of 40 cities, while in 15 other cities funds were raised for the purchase of the pianos either in whole or in part by means of entertainments given by the pupils and staff.

EXTENDED USE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

The use for other community activities of buildings erected primarily for school purposes only, was formerly much debated in board meetings. Opposition in many cities has completely died down. Trustees understand that the buildings belong to the people who elect them as their representatives. They see that it is a greater waste to have buildings idle than to have them wear out through use. Thus in many cities, any responsible body of citizens can now secure accommodation for public meetings if there is no collision with the use for regular school purposes. Two debatable points remain. Who shall grant permission to outsiders to use school accommodation and who should pay the caretaker for extra work involved.

PERMISSION FOR USE OF BUILDINGS.

Both are matters for legislation to be followed by executive action. They are specific instances of a general administrative principle covered in Chapter IV. The legislation falls entirely within the province of discussion

and decision by the members of the board. They may call on their officials for information and advice but the duty of framing rules and regulations is theirs only. This should be done impersonally and apart from immediate instances and requests. Once the legislation is complete it is the duty of the executive officials of the board to bring it into effect and to submit reports from time to time for the inspection of the board, and as a basis for improving existing legislation.

The demands made for the use of school property by outside organizations have increased enormously in recent years. The number of such requests granted by the Toronto Board of Education in the year 1917, for example, totalled 6913. The purposes for which requests are made as reported by 44 cities, include every form of public meeting—lectures, concerts, entertainments, socials, bazaars, and annual meetings of Ratepayers, Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Daughters of the Empire, Playgrounds, Neighborhood Workers, War Veterans, Patriotic and other associations, societies and clubs. In addition in 20 Canadian cities the school buildings are used once or twice annually as polling places. This latter practice is not customary in 34 other cities.

A FUNCTION OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF BUILDINGS.

The official to whom applications should be made, and who should grant permission or refuse the use of the accommodation requested on the basis of legislation previously enacted by the Board, is the Superintendent of Buildings. If there is no such official, this responsibility should be assigned to the superintendent or inspector of schools.

PAYMENT OF CARETAKERS FOR EXTRA SERVICES.

Past question caretakers should be paid for the extra services rendered. The greatest demands fall on buildings with good assembly halls, centrally located, and easily accessible. Some school buildings therefore may entail extra work for the janitor for many evenings every month. It is of doubtful wisdom to allow the remuneration for this work to be decided in haphazard fashion. The size of the room or rooms used, the season of the year, the weather and amount of cleaning required

at the close of the meeting produce a problem requiring careful consideration in order to bring about a satisfactory solution and avoid possible friction. In 24 Canadian cities no fee is charged for the use of school buildings as meeting places of outside organizations. This class of service has come to be considered as one which the taxpayer is entitled to receive. In many cities the organization must arrange satisfactorily with the janitor for the extra labor involved. The better plan is to work out a fair scale of wages to be paid to the caretaker by the school board in the same way as for the usual janitorial service. This plan is absolutely fair to all and keeps the buildings and workers entirely in the control of the board and its officials.

PLAYGROUNDS

In some cities the land around the school buildings occupies very much the same relation to the building that a vestibule does to a dwelling house. Children who arrive before the regular hour of admission wait in the yard until the doors are opened to receive them. Then they "line up" and stand at attention for which sort of military manoeuvre there is just about enough space. As remarked elsewhere to run in such a school-yard is dangerous and organized sports are an impossibility.

The indubitable advantages of organized athletics assume that the essential space for the play has been furnished. This cannot be said to be true of that part of the building site left open for the free play of children in many Canadian cities. The following table gives the size of the playgrounds as reported in questionnaire answers:

TABLE NO. 40.—SIZE OF SCHOOL PLAYGROUNDS IN CANADIAN CITIES.

Size of Playgrounds	No. of Cities
$\frac{1}{4}$ acre or more.....	1
$\frac{1}{2}$ " " ".....	7
1 " " ".....	2
2 acres " ".....	12
3 " " ".....	2
4 " " ".....	4
5 " " ".....	3
One city block or more.....	2

It will be noted that the areas given in acres refer to the approximate size of the grounds *surrounding* the school buildings. After due allowance is made for space in front and at the sides of the building and for walks to and from the building, it must be evident that the actual playing space for the school children in some of the playgrounds cannot possibly be sufficient to permit of more than standing room. The children might play marbles or hop-scotch but scarcely hand-ball, basket-ball or tennis, and certainly neither base-ball, football, lacrosse, hockey, nor other similar games affording vigorous physical exercise.

Several facts lead to the belief that Canadian school boards and school administrators as well as Canadian city taxpayers are gradually becoming convinced of the importance of liberal playgrounds for their school children. The sites purchased for school buildings during the last four years are for well understood reasons not numerous but their area is significant. Of the 13 plots reported as having been acquired by school boards, two are more than a half, but less than an acre in area; three have an area of $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres each, three others of 2 acres each, two other plots are $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres each in area, one plot has an area of 3 acres, and one is an entire city block. The city of Vancouver leased 18 acres subject to purchase. The average area of playgrounds in the city of Toronto is stated to be 2 acres but recent acquisitions have been from 7 to 10 acres. In several Canadian cities smaller school playgrounds have within the past five years been enlarged by the addition of adjacent property.

The installation of playground equipment which is gradually gaining force in many Canadian cities also points to an aroused public consciousness as to the efficacy of play for growing children. Unfortunately 17 cities report that the school children are not given this extra incentive to indulge their play instincts and impulses. The school playgrounds of 16 other cities, however, are provided with standard playground equipment, and 22 cities report that equipment is furnished to some extent or is gradually being provided.

School-board assistance to other playgrounds. Another significant fact in this connection is the setting

apart of playing space for children in public parks or other property not controlled by the board of education. Regina is the only Canadian city in which the school board is reported to exercise control over such playgrounds. Seven school boards, however, in the cities of Halifax, St. John, Belleville, Peterborough, Stratford, Kitchener, and Calgary contribute to the support of playgrounds which they do not directly control.

Value of playgrounds and play. Fortunately there is a growing desire to allow children, especially the younger children, an abundance of opportunity for self-expression,—one form of which is the gratification of their play instincts. As they advance in the grades, boys and girls display a fondness for organized play. They want “to take sides.” Some show a desire to lead, others to follow. Educators, at first somewhat slow to appreciate the value of physical exercise in the form of play are now thoroughly awake as to its real significance. The boy frequenter of the corner lot indubitably undergoes certain risks. Just as surely he falls heir to certain advantages. The aim of the modern school man is to secure these advantages while eliminating the risks. Organized athletics are now seen to be an absolute necessity for the city boy whose physical development is to follow sound lines.

Moreover, scores of playgrounds and thousands of children have demonstrated that some of the valuable qualities for success in later life—power for self-control and for vigorous exertion, ability to concentrate, the habit of intense application, an appreciation of cause and effect, willingness to obey the rules of the game which is unwittingly the precursor of unhesitating obedience to law and order, loyalty to a leader or to a cause, ability to recognize and to defend one’s own rights as well as a keen appreciation and respect for the rights of others,—these qualities and others are enormously reinforced by playground activities.

JANITORS AND CARETAKERS

Many problems in the administration of schools focus on the janitor. His principal tasks of heating the building, keeping it clean and of taking care of the property are fundamental to the successful working of the

instructional staff. Teachers may complain that classrooms are not swept clean, that furniture is not dusted, that windows are dingy and that heating is sometimes not satisfactory during the first and last hours of the school day, and near-by residents may vigorously object to violence done to lawns and flowerbeds. Teachers will report to the principal that such and such are the conditions and the principal may request, suggest, demand, order, that so and so be done. Herein centers a multitude of opportunities for legislative and executive work by the school board members and their professional and expert officials. The following summary of the facts regarding school janitors in Canadian cities and related comments are pertinent to the successful administration of schools.

Appointment and tenure. The janitor is selected from applicants and nominated for the vacant position by the official responsible to the board for its school property—the Building Commissioner, Superintendent of Buildings or Secretary-treasurer—in 8 cities; in 47 cities the nomination comes to the board through its property committee and the appointments are in all cases made by the school board. Appointments are made for the duration of the school-year in 38 cities, for an indefinite period in 2 cities and from month to month in one city.

There can be little question but that after a probationary period a tenure of one year or an indefinite tenure for janitors is the preferable plan. If a janitor's work becomes unsatisfactory beyond remedy his resignation should be enforced at the termination of a month's notice. If his work is satisfactory in all respects there is little to be gained by having him uncertain as to the stability of his position.

Nomination and dismissal. Concerning the nomination and appointment of janitors and their dismissal when necessary, there will be difference of opinion. Exception is herewith taken to the prevailing practice. In accordance with the administrative principle so often enunciated in this study, it is held that the janitor ought to receive both nomination and appointment by the person to whom he is directly responsible, that is, the commissioner or superintendent of buildings

in large cities employing such an official or the superintendent or inspector of schools in smaller cities. The school board should ratify the action of their official. The same principle applies in cases where the janitor must be dismissed. Immediate discharge should follow gross impropriety. For low grade of workmanship, complaints should be preferred, warnings should be issued and reasonable efforts made to secure the desirable performance of duty. If these attempts to maintain efficiency are unavailing, the official whom the board has made responsible should be expected to dismiss the incompetent janitor without appeal to the board. This is the only method by which strict discipline may be maintained and excellent work secured. Where used, it saves school board members much avoidable annoyance.

Qualifications. As yet few school boards have definitely formulated the qualifications which they require from those seeking appointment as caretakers or janitors. Only 9 Canadian boards examine applicants on methods of sanitation. The examination is conducted variously by the Principal, the Building Commissioner or other executive official of the board, the board members, the city sanitary inspector, or by the provincial government. The handbook of the Board of Education for Toronto is the only one of the seven manuals received which explicitly covers the qualifications of caretakers. According to the Toronto rules the caretaker must:

“Hold Provincial certificates for Stationary Engineer and be not over forty-five years of age.

“Have sufficient mechanical skill to make ordinary repairs and provide so far as practicable against damage to any part of the school property.

“Produce and file with the Secretary of the Board a certificate of qualification approved by the Superintendent of Buildings and the Property Committee.”¹

In other cities it may be supposed that applicants must likewise meet requirements of some preliminary test, but these will probably be subjective on the part of the examiner and may be lax or severe as the circumstances may warrant. Definite qualifications for this work

¹ By-laws of the Board of Education for the City of Toronto, sec. 128. cl. 3-5.

should be determined impersonally. Applicants for the positions and present occupants as well should be required to measure up to the prescribed standards.

Duties of Janitors or Caretakers. In the handbooks of some of the Canadian city school boards, duties of school janitors are set forth in careful detail. In Toronto, for example, the duties of the caretaker are outlined in 27 clauses, in Windsor 25, in Ottawa 24, in Stratford 19, in Winnipeg 15 and in Kingston in 11 clauses. In Montreal and Westmount, on the contrary, one clause as follows covers the duty of the caretaker.

"The Caretaker of each school is responsible to the Principal for the cleanliness, warmth and ventilation of the school rooms and for the good order and security of the school premises and grounds, in accordance with the terms of his written agreement."¹

Evidence is not at present available, but it would be interesting to know whether a score or more of clauses detailing the caretaker's duties in some cities really exhausts the subject and whether one clause in other cities is effective in securing a complete performance of all the work that a janitor should do in his school. Does the following clause

"(21) During school sessions yield a ready obedience to the requests and directions of the Principal of the School."²

apply only to the performance of duties actually specified, or is the caretaker to give service in other legitimate ways which may not be specifically set down in the manual? This point is well covered in the Ottawa rules:

"24. The duties and responsibilities of janitors are not limited to those hereinbefore specified. . . . but are in general to tender faithful and efficient service at all times, to be courteous and obliging. . ."³

Assistant Janitors. Beyond question there is a limit to the amount of work which a janitor can efficiently perform. For some buildings one janitor is not sufficient for the work occasioned by regular school sessions.

¹ Regulations of the Board, Montreal, Art. XLIII., sec. 1, p. 34.
Regulations for Schools, Westmount, Art. XXX., sec. 1, p. 28.

² Toronto.

³ Rules and Regulations, Ottawa, p. 66.

Two buildings of exactly the same plan and similar enrolment may require different janitorial service owing to the central location of one building and the frequent demands made upon it for extra public meetings or for evening classes. Another building adequately staffed as to janitors during a large portion of the year may require an additional helper for the "heavy firing" during the winter months. Buildings of the same enrolment may have differences in corridor space, in assembly halls, in extra rooms, in lawns, in methods of heating. In many cases assistant janitors must be employed. In the last analysis the school board pays for the extra help. The important question administratively is who shall *directly* engage and pay the wages of the assistant janitor?

Canadian and American practice in employing and paying janitors. In 33 Canadian cities the assistant is chosen, appointed and paid directly by the board; in 6 cities nomination and appointment is a responsibility of an executive official of the board and in 13 cities the janitor himself receives extra wages on account of the increased janitorial services necessary. Thus it may be seen that in exactly one-third of the cities reporting, the janitor is personally held responsible for the entire service and he himself employs and pays the assistant janitor. The statistics are somewhat similar for American cities.

"In 751 of the cities reporting, school boards engage the assistant janitor and in 467 the janitor engages his assistant. In 755 cities the assistant is paid by the board and 455 by the janitor himself."¹

Appointment of janitors is a legitimate function of the Superintendent of Buildings. It will be unnecessary to present lengthy argument as to the wisdom of the board directly appointing this class of employee, although that mode of procedure is customary in two out of three cities in both Canada and the United States. Consistently with the position previously taken it may simply be reiterated that power to appoint and to dismiss should be held entirely by the official directly responsible to the board for the satisfactory performance of the work to be done.

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S.; "School Administration in the Smaller Cities." U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1915, No. 44, p. 96.

This principle of sound administration is universal in the commercial world. There are the same good reasons for its adoption by the administrators of schools. Neither is it the best plan to allow the janitor to employ and pay his assistants. It is of course well known that this plan permits the janitor requiring only a few hours assistance each day to secure the aid of some member of his family. In such cases it may be justifiable. If, however, the assistant is to be a man regularly employed for day work or as night man, or for half a day in each of two schools, the appointment should be made in accordance with the best principles of administrative management. There is no more reason for the assistant janitor being engaged and paid by the janitor of a building than there is for a grade teacher being engaged and paid by the principal. The assistant janitor should be chosen and appointed by the Superintendent of Buildings or other official to whom the board has delegated direction and supervision of janitorial work. Like all other employees of the board the janitor should be paid by the Secretary-treasurer.

Inspection and Responsibility. The work of the school janitor in Canadian cities is inspected by the Principal, or by the Supervisor, Inspector or Superintendent, or by the Secretary, or the Superintendent of Buildings, or the Chairman of the Board or the Property Committee of the Board, or the whole board or finally by almost every combination of these taken two or three at a time. The inspection is daily, weekly, monthly, half-yearly, regularly, frequently, occasionally, when required or when necessary.

As to the satisfactory performance of work, the janitors of the schools in all Canadian cities are ultimately responsible to the board or its officials. In 6 cities they are said to be *directly* responsible to the board or to some official, but in 46 other cities immediate responsibility rests with the principal of the school.

In the cities of Westmount and Montreal the school commissioners have placed the matter on a somewhat different basis. The principal is

“personally responsible for seeing that the duties of caretakers are performed strictly in accordance with their agreements.”¹

¹ Op. Cit., Montreal, cl. 4.

How do principals in Montreal and Westmount become aware of the duties of caretakers in specific terms? Will all the principals in each of these cities exact the same identical details? If not, do the caretakers ever discuss the matter among themselves and if so, does this affect the performance of their duties and their relations with their respective principals?

Once more we are compelled to remark the variety in Canadian city school administrative practice, in this instance with respect to janitors. Are all of these plans absolutely equal as modes of producing efficiency? Are the officials in each city clearly satisfied with their own plans? Are they aware that the plans of other cities may possibly incorporate certain very effective features which are not included in their own modes of procedure? Is it not probable that an evaluation of these various methods and some degree of scientific analysis and comparison would be beneficial?

The improvement of janitorial service. Many city school principals agree that the work of the janitorial staff is susceptible to substantial improvement. To bring this about is an administrative task of some magnitude. The plan perfected by the city superintendent of schools for Connersville, Ind., is most suggestive and where tried noteworthy results have been produced. The following is an excerpt from his report:

For good janitor service it is required that the janitors have the necessary help, that they know what to do, and that they have the spirit to do it. The second and, to some extent, the third of these can be met by the use of janitors' manuals. The manuals here in use are typewritten in loose-leaf form on firm paper with substantial covers. Each contains an introduction that explains the purpose of the manual, defines the janitor's relations to principals and teachers, and calls attention to the importance of his work on both the physical and the moral sides of the school. Then follow pages on "some things that can be done in school time." "Other things to do" with schedules, "Points as to cleaning," "Some things to remember," and "Directions for fumigation." While many items are common to all of the manuals, each one is made with a particular

building in mind. In such a plan items can be noted that could hardly be placed in a book of "Rules and Regulations" made for several schools. It is pointed out, too, that the janitor himself must constantly use judgment and that "a good janitor sees dust and dirt where other folks would not even think of looking for it," and that he "does many needful things that teachers and principals never even find out about." *Prepared in such a spirit the manual becomes a welcome guide to janitors who actually go at their work with an added pride, which is indispensable to good service anywhere.*

The old and the new. Not to go back to the days of the one room log school house, it is still a far cry to-day from the shoe factory type of school building and the cramped playgrounds which city boards of education were adding to their school plants twenty or twenty-five years ago. Buildings usually had four, eight and twelve class-rooms with necessary passageways and staircases. The principal interviewed parents and teachers in his own class-room or in the darkness of the narrow hallways. It was a step in advance when the principal was given an office on the second floor over the entrance, but the architect of those days had not provided means of heating this office for the winter months. There were no cupboards for school books and other supplies. The teacher placed his hat and coat on a chair. Hooks for children's hats and coats were on the walls of the passageways. Black boards were meagre and frequently placed so high that the teacher required a chair in order to reach the upper part. Toilet rooms were often unpardonable and drinking at least unsanitary. Assembly rooms, lunch rooms, bath rooms, play-rooms and rooms for the school doctor, the school nurse and for teachers were almost unknown and a gymnasium was a luxurious extravagance.

With the advent of Kindergarten, Manual Training and Domestic Science teaching, rooms for these departments were included in new buildings, but were, for some years, despite the varying needs, no different from the usual class-room units. Few exits, steep and narrow staircases and no fire-escapes were the rule. For the "school yards" (they could scarcely be termed play-

grounds) equipment had not been thought of, and "swift" or "fast" running was prohibited on account of danger to life and limb while even then accidents were common. The school garden except as occasionally fenced off by some zealous caretaker was still merely a dream.

The changes in the building, equipment and playground policy of city school boards which the last two decades have brought to our notice are exceedingly remarkable. School architecture, heating, ventilation, and sanitation have become specialized sciences. The ideals of the taxpayer have changed and his children are reaping the benefit. Economy in building is still urged but every accommodation for education is required, health and safety are demanded, the happiness of the children is consciously striven for, and the convenience and comfort of the teaching staff are now considered to be worth while. In many cities, the newer public school buildings both in exterior appearance and interior appointments and furnishings rank with the city hall and public library among the show places to which visitors are taken with pardonable pride.

CHAPTER VII.—RECOMMENDATIONS.

The facts brought out and comment offered in this chapter treating Canadian practice respecting school buildings and grounds point to certain definite ways and means of securing improvement in these features of administration. It is recommended:

1. That the officials of each city school board should make a scientific evaluation of every sort of mode and procedure which they employ with respect to school buildings and grounds.

2. That Canadian city school board officials should engage in conferences in which the proposed evaluation of modes and procedures would be discussed and compared with a view to setting up the highest possible standards of efficiency and the changing of modes and procedures in the direction of the new standards.

Among the matters to be examined, studied, evaluated, compared, discussed and improved in the light of new standards would be the following:

(a) Careful studies of the prevailing customs respecting the erection of new school buildings from funds borrowed and to be repaid after periods of 20 to 50 years, with a view to devising means if possible of constructing new buildings from current revenue.

(b) Careful, accurate and detailed definition of functions, duties and responsibilities of the property committee, the superintendent of buildings and caretakers. When these matters have been accomplished the necessary legislation by individual school boards should be brought about.

(c) Careful studies as to the real value to school children and to the teaching staff, in assisting efficient work and a high grade of product of the current building policies respecting such matters as heating, ventilation, seating, offices for principals and other members of the staff, assembly halls, gymnasias, playgrounds, wider use of school plant, etc., etc. Comparisons of the proposed studies should be made as soon as these have been effected in connection with similar topics in different cities.

More specifically it is recommended:

3. That each city school board, acting on reports following the special study and advice of its Property Committee and Superintendent of Buildings, examine the needs of the city and the practice of other cities as to school buildings and grounds and definitely formulate a school property policy; that the proposed school property policy look forward at least five years but be subjected to annual revision and restatement, and that the statement of the proposed school property policy be published annually.

4. That each city institute the practice of erecting (at least some of) its new buildings from current revenue.

5. That the powers and duties of the Property Committee (where such committee is deemed necessary) be carefully examined and reformulated.

6. That the powers and duties of the Superintendent of Buildings (where such official is employed) be carefully examined and reformulated.

7. That the Superintendent of Buildings exercise absolute control as to the details of his own department but be subordinate to the general manager of the city system—the Superintendent of Schools.

8. That, in addition to the necessary class-rooms, all school buildings to be erected include ample accommodation for principal's office, for medical inspection, and for rest rooms for men and women assistants and that the deficiency in present buildings be made good in so far as is possible.

9. That as with all other details respecting school property, each city school board formulate its policy and enact the necessary legislation respecting the wider use of the school plant and that the proper execution of the resulting regulations be committed to the Superintendent of Buildings.

10. That the school board policy recently coming into vogue of purchasing playgrounds large enough for the major sports of older children and of equipping part of the playing space for the smaller children be continued.

11. That the qualifications to be expected and required duties of janitors in general be carefully and impersonally formulated and incorporated in the Board's regulations.

12. That applicants for janitorial service be examined by the Superintendent of Buildings and that appointment, inspection, and dismissal when necessary rest with this official in accordance with the Board's previously enacted regulations in this regard.

13. That in addition to the general duties formulated to apply to all janitors, a careful study be made by the teachers and principal of each school building of janitorial service particularly applicable to the building in question, that the principal report the result of the study to the Superintendent of Buildings, to the end that instructions specially applicable to each school building be issued to the respective janitors.

14. That whenever assistant janitors are employed full time, their appointment be by the Superintendent of Buildings (ratified by the Board) and their payment for services rendered be by the Secretary-Treasurer on the usual warrant.

15. That, while all janitors are in the final event responsible to the Superintendent of Buildings for the quality of their service, it is to be distinctly understood that regarding regular daily duties the janitor is responsible directly to the principal. In the event of disagreement, investigation and adjustment rests finally with the Superintendent of Schools.

CHAPTER VIII.

CITY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER VIII.

Following a very brief recital of the material of previous chapters, this final chapter of our study of Canadian School administration, sets forth certain important conclusions. These have been given in the form of suggested remedies believed to be fundamental to the improvement of Canadian city school administration.

The remedies are :

(1) School boards must perform all but no more than all of their legitimate functions, viz. : the board members must appoint an expert general manager ; they must decide and legislate as to broad educational policies ; they must delegate the actual carrying out of these policies to their responsible expert general manager ; they must see to what extent their decisions become matters of fact and finally they must keep the public informed as to present progress and as to policies for the future.

(2) Under certain specifically detailed circumstances, standing committees of school boards may be abandoned. Otherwise such committees, should be few in number (not more than three committees), small as to membership (not more than five members) and restricted in function. The latter is to assist the board in the performance of its legitimate duties.

(3) Administrative details must be definitely delegated to the board's expert officials who must be held responsible for adequate performance. Officials must not be interfered with by board members, but must be supported through suitable accommodation, equipment and clerical assistance. Superior officials in cities are not to do the work of clerks, and are expected in con-

junction with the city superintendent of schools to work out and to provide the board with progressive educational plans.

(4) City school boards should reorganize their overhead management, giving all departmental heads authority as to the details of their respective departments, but co-ordinating all such officials and all departments under one general manager—the superintendent of schools.

These four remedies looking towards improved city school administration require as anticipatory measures, profound study of the appropriate facts. There are three methods of securing the data for study.

(1) Compilations may be made by officials or other students of educational administration.

(2) Conferences of educational officials may be held at which exchanges of data and views as to administration may be made.

(3) Surveys of educational systems both city and provincial, directed by experts in such work, may be made. These should be followed by published reports both of findings and of suggestions for improvements.

CHAPTER VIII.

CITY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.

PUBLIC EDUCATION, A TOPIC FOR MUCH DISCUSSION.

It is quite to be expected that the administration of public schools in Canadian cities should constitute a major topic of conversation and of newspaper discussion. The boys and girls whom society compels to attend the schools comprise a large fraction of that very society. Enormous activity and enthusiasm are striking characteristics of its youthful members. These seek modes of outlet for unbounded energy and instinctively search for stimuli whose responses tend to prepare them for the business of living. "Going to school," "At school," and "Coming home from school" comprise a large share of their young lives. They naturally like to tell of what has been happening. Moreover, the adult members of society each noon hour and each evening wish to question their children as to what they have been doing during the day. They are interested in their children's progress and welfare, and since they themselves attended school only a few years ago, they readily compare the present with the past. Furthermore, though the children are the real stake there is another which sometimes seems to be of equal or even greater importance. The adult members of society must meet both the capital expenditure and running expenses of the educational machine which serves the younger members. So there is unlimited discussion and argument in the homes and through the press as to ways and means in education.

CONSIDERABLE DISSATISFACTION—QUESTIONS RAISED.

If everybody were fairly well satisfied with the organization and administration of the schools much, nevertheless, would probably still be said and written on the grounds just stated. Educational conditions in Canadian cities are, however, distinctly unsatisfactory. Almost

every city bears witness to this in the ever-growing stream of criticism which goes on and on in popular discussions in the home, in social organizations, in the editorial columns of the local dailies, and in the carefully prepared articles of the magazines. What can be done to allay the dissatisfaction? What should be done to develop a more nearly unanimous approval and support? This study of Canadian city school administration offers as its main objective, a contribution toward the satisfactory solution of these problems. More simply and explicitly the questions raised are,—What is wrong with Canadian educational administration? What are the remedies?

SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS CHAPTERS—SUGGESTED
FUNDAMENTAL REMEDIES.

The discussion of the preceding chapters has centered on answers to these questions. Following the introduction to the study explaining its scope, the sources of the material and the plan used in developing it, other chapters treat certain selected topics having an extremely important bearing on administration. For example, there is a chapter dealing with the school board, the method of its selection, its powers and duties, what it ought not to do, what it does do, and what it ought to do, committee work, etc. Another chapter is devoted to a discussion of money matters, the sources and methods of securing necessary school monies, annual per capita costs and school accounting systems. Still another chapter discusses the duties and powers of the two chief school officials in Canadian cities,—the Secretary-Treasurer, and the Inspector or Superintendent of Schools. Under this heading come discussions concerning such matters as the real work of the head of a school system and the round of petty routine he must almost invariably follow. Related to this, pointed suggestions are made to school boards for the reorganization of their central administration. Similarly subsequent chapters discuss the administrative details which concern principals, teachers, supervisors, text-books, vacation schools and other special features, the branch public library in the school, the attendance of pupils, the prevalence of retardation and possible remedies, medical inspection as prevention

and cure, and also as instruction, buildings, school sanitation, janitors, the improvement of janitorial service and annual reports to the board, to the taxpayer, and what each type of report should include.

The greater part of each chapter consists of the narration of facts obtained from officials or from the official records of fifty-seven Canadian cities. The opinions of officials are not included, but the author has ventured to intersperse throughout the chapters his personal comment on the facts. Likewise he has proposed remedies. For the particulars of such comment, the reader interested should consult the index and various chapters. To offer constructive criticism on the basis of the facts was the original and set purpose with which the study was undertaken. The recommendations proposed are briefly stated at the close of each chapter. Many of these remedies would follow almost inevitably if certain broad and fundamental changes in administrative procedure were made. The most important of these changes will now be set forth.

THE LEGITIMATE WORK OF A SCHOOL BOARD.

Administrative procedure and alterations therein depend upon the leaders. The quality of the education provided in any city will be a reflection in large part of the quality of the leadership which directs it. This applies both to board members in their specific duties and to the expert officials to whom the details of administration are delegated. The first change suggested and fundamental to all else would follow a clear determination of the legitimate work of a city school board. That is, it is believed that if certain city school boards had a true conception of their real work they would set about reformulating the statement of their duties and reorganizing their administrative procedure.

The specific duties of school boards were treated at length in the second chapter of this study. One extremely important duty is to secure a highly trained educational expert as general manager or superintendent of the system. This done, responsibility should be placed upon him for all administrative details. That is not to say that from then on, the board has washed its hands of these matters. Such must be given attention

by the board continuously, but in its inspectorial capacity. The earlier discussion also indicated that instead of interfering with responsible experts or of dealing with trivial questions and minor details, and thus reaching decisions for use in the single instance under consideration, the board should attack large problems of general policy.

Such large problems will in due course come before the board in four different aspects and these give clear indication of the legitimate work of a school board.

(a) *A school board should legislate.* In anticipation of its legislative function, careful consideration of each educational innovation and of each revision or amendment of its previous legislation must be given. This may entail securing and examining reports from its own officials, correspondence with similar officials of other cities, perhaps visits to other cities for personal examination of important educational features. Canadian city school boards contemplating the introduction of the Junior High School, the supervision of playgrounds or the erection of new types of school buildings may easily, and very properly, occupy in the consideration of any one of these problems, the major part of the time of several board meetings. There are scores of such problems. Right decisions as to these are of enormous importance. Time for discussion in order to arrive at right decisions cannot be given—absolutely cannot be given—by a school board accustomed to dealing with the trivial matters which all too frequently occupy their attention. This is the condition in many Canadian cities. Granted that the board members and their officials have engaged in the team play of securing the data to apply to the solution of a problem and that time has been available and has been taken for the cool, calm, consideration of the facts secured, a gradual unanimity follows and the matter culminates in the required legislation.

(b) *The second legitimate feature of the work of a school board is executive.* The board simply acts in the light of its own legislation. It does not do the work but it instructs its officials to set the work in progress.

(c) After the board has completed its legislative and executive functions it still has board work to perform in

connection with each particular matter involved. *This is in the line of inspection.* It must see that its behests are carried into effect. This is done through the securing and examination of the reports of its officials,—reports of progress, monthly, semi-annual, and annual. Oral reports are practically valueless. That very few comprehensive and permanent reports dealing with local education problems are to be found in Canadian city school board offices is striking evidence that Canadian school boards do not perform this duty. The construction of a good official report is a piece of work requiring a high degree of technical proficiency. Attention has been drawn in previous pages to the matter of reports. They should be carefully prepared and should receive not perfunctory notice but detailed analysis and comparison with other reports, and should result in further definite instructions by the board to its officials. That is, the reception and examination of reports by a board acting in its inspectorial capacity may entail renewed action in its legislative and executive capacities.

(d) There is a fourth type of work which a school board should undertake. In business parlance, *school boards should advertise.* It is foolish to expect the public to furnish more and more money, and with enthusiasm to take up every innovation which the board proposes even when the board has given careful and adequate consideration previous to its decisions, if the board does not take the public into its confidence. The people ought to be told about the educational problems which must be faced. When policies have been decided upon and are set under way, they have a right to be told what progress has been made. This should be done in public meetings and by means of reports carefully prepared and published.

These then, are the legitimate functions of a school board, to appoint the most expert general manager or superintendent available for the salary they can afford to pay ; to secure, examine, consider, analyze, and compare the data concerning any large matter of broad general policy and then to decide what they want done ; to delegate all details for execution to the proper officials ; to examine the reports of these officials so as to see that the board's commands are being carried into effect, and

finally to tell the people what new problems must be met and to keep them advised as to the progress being made.

COMMITTEE WORK ABANDONED OR MUCH RESTRICTED
AND CAREFULLY DEFINED.

A second fundamental change which would produce a more effective type of administration of public education in Canadian cities has to do with standing committees of local school boards. It is probable that standing committees could be entirely dispensed with

- (a) if the city (no matter what its size) had a school board of five, seven, or not more than nine members ;
- (b) if the board accepted the prescription of legitimate duties summarized in the preceding paragraphs ;
- (c) if the board delegated the working of all details to its paid officials, and
- (d) if the board's officials were highly trained experts.

The common argument advanced for the indirect action of standing committees is that the work of the board is thereby expedited. In fact, the contrary is frequently the case, as is evidenced by the customary procedure of many Canadian city school boards. This is clearly shown, for example, when important opinions held by a minority of the committee are not adequately presented in the committee report to the board. If, in the process of securing board adoption of the committee's report, the minority insist upon presenting their opinions to the board, the result is a second hearing and less expedition rather than more.

In any event the action of a city school board through committees should be reduced to a minimum. "Management," "Property," and "Finance," are the only committees for which there is the slightest reason.

The membership of a standing committee should never exceed five. Three would be still more effective. Where resort is had to standing committees their function should be clearly defined. This should be in general to assist the board in its legitimate duties,—

(1) By the collection and preparation of data necessary for the discussions anticipatory to the board's new or amended legislation, and

(2) By the careful examination of official reports (inspectorial function) so as to ascertain to what extent the board's legislation has become operative.

OFFICIALS SHOULD BE RESPONSIBLE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE DETAILS.

A third alteration which would be extremely beneficial in Canadian city school board administrative procedure has been incidentally alluded to in discussing the other two fundamental changes. This is the matter of the delegation of administrative details to the board's officials. If the suggestions just made as to the work of the city school boards and their committees should prove to be correct in theory and can be carried out in practice, it would follow that all else which school boards or their committees might undertake to do would be wrong. This is the direct implication here insisted upon.

Especially is this the case in the matter of the work of a superintendent or inspector of schools. He ought to be allowed and should be expected to do the specialized work for which he was engaged. He should be at least more expert in the particular tasks and duties of his position than any school board member can be. If this is not the case the board ought to engage another man. Then since the board has decided upon hundreds of educational details which it desires to see carried into effect, it should instruct its chief executive to have the matters put under way and should then step aside and permit the work to go on.

Moreover, a school board should not only give its chief executive a free hand but should also do everything in its power to assist him to perform the highly technical duties of his office. He should have suitable office accommodation and sufficient clerical assistance. School board members—business men—who expect or permit their inspector or superintendent to write long-hand letters to parents, teachers, and officials, to "O.K." requisition supply sheets and to perform other similar routine duties may blush with shame. They may imagine that they are saving money for their school

district. On the contrary, it may easily be proven that, —in having a high-grade official at a commensurate salary do tasks which might be done better by an assistant, while at the same time the official is prevented from doing the work in which he is expert—the board is actually wasting money.

The special work of school board officials was set forth in the earlier chapters. One phase of this with special application to the head of the system and his supervisory assistants will bear additional stress. This is the need of such officers,—superintendents, inspectors, supervisors, and principals doing independent thinking and planning with absolutely no interruption. The worth of such officials should not be estimated simply in terms of the hours spent in office duties, or in interviewing parents, or in watching teachers at work or in listening to class recitations. All these are necessary, but in addition, a good administrator must be permitted *time to plan* for other school activities. Such officials must prepare to assist the board, or the officials above them, in advance of impending legislation and must examine the reports of the results of teaching. If the official is not permitted to do his special work but must do the work of a stenographer, or storekeeper, or must always be in the public view, why not dismiss the official and engage the stenographer or some person cheaper, because he lacks ability to plan and power to foresee? By the latter means *money* might be saved, temporarily at least.

Canadian city school boards must habituate themselves to these other better modes of official action. Having decided upon broad general policies, and having engaged experts and made these responsible for the working out of the policies, the school board should delegate the details to its officials. Furthermore, it should by every means in its power make it possible for each official to render maximum quality of expert service.

THE CENTRAL ORGANIZATION SHOULD HAVE ONLY ONE
CHIEF EXECUTIVE.

The fourth administrative principle to be insisted upon and one which, put into effect, would produce results both important and far-reaching, has to do with the organization of the board's leading officials. This

matter of central organization has been discussed in various connections in the previous chapters. In many Canadian cities, several of the following officers—the secretary, treasurer, inspectors, superintendents, supervisors, medical health officer, senior high school principal, and others are directly responsible to the board for the work of their respective departments. Nobody imagines that the positions of these officials are parallel, but they frequently make independent reports to the board and on occasion, their positions are made to assume equal importance. In case of maladjustment, there is always some board member to champion the cause of the official, be he never so wrong. In consequence there is inharmonious action and discord. This is detrimental to the best interests of the teaching staff and of the children.

Canadian city school boards must put an end to this unbusinesslike practice. If they look about them in any direction they may see numerous examples of business and governmental institutions of great magnitude, each with its general manager to whom every other official while supreme in the details of his own department, is in the main responsible to the general manager. If school boards should examine carefully into their own overhead management they might find numerous examples where a clash in authority with serious consequences was only narrowly averted. There will even be many cases where the serious consequences were only temporarily postponed.

Many Canadian city school boards could scarcely bring about the changes indicated especially those of the immediately preceding paragraphs, because they would find it difficult to consider the questions in a strictly impersonal manner, and apart from the interests of some influential school official. Yet every Canadian city school board desirous of having an efficient central organization must eventually subscribe to the principle of one general manager over the whole system. He should be known as the "Superintendent of Schools." All the other officials, with the possible exception of the Secretary, should be responsible to the Superintendent. Some of these officials might rank as Assistant Superintendents. Each would be supreme in the details of his

own department. All departments thus co-ordinated under the superintendent would work with a greater degree of harmony and efficiency.

THE PROPOSED CHANGES ARE FUNDAMENTAL. HOW
MAY THEY BE BROUGHT ABOUT ?

It is believed that the four suggested changes in public education just briefly recounted would enormously ameliorate Canadian city school board administration. It will have been noted that the proposed alterations in procedure have to do with the topmost level. Proposals that the board and its committees shall do only their legitimate work ; that authority shall be delegated to and responsibility imposed upon the board's chief executive—the superintendent of schools, and that a high degree of co-ordination of upper officials shall be brought to a focus by the superintendent with every member of the system responsible to him and he alone directly to the board—these constitute the principal remedial measures proposed in this entire study.

This is not to say that other remedies concerning the teaching staff, text-books and supplies, janitorial service, playgrounds, buildings, attendance, and so forth, are unimportant or to be disregarded. On the contrary, remedies in these respects are very important, and much attention has been given to such matters in the previous chapters with a detailed summary of specific recommendations dealing with the principal topic at the close of each chapter.

However, the four administrative changes just suggested are thought to be fundamental, so much so that these put into effect, many other important remedial measures might be expected in due course. Such being the case it is worth while to consider what steps would assist in bringing about the four administrative changes proposed.

FACTS AND STUDY ARE NECESSARY. COMPILATIONS AND
SUGGESTIONS MADE BY STUDENTS OF EDUCATION.

Any alterations in existing administrative procedure must necessarily be preceded by new or amended legislation. Some of this is entirely local and could be effected by the individual school boards. Other legisla-

tion will be found necessary, but also of more widespread application, and could not at present be brought about without provincial parliamentary or provincial departmental action. In any case action along right and enduring lines must be preceded in turn by collecting the local facts, by arranging the facts so that they may be considered and by assembling similar series of facts obtained from other cities. All of this should be followed by careful consideration and profound study. This collection, preparation and study of facts, anticipatory to the desired remedial legislation may be developed by three distinct methods.

Of the first of these, the present study is an example illustrating what may be done by an individual student in bringing together school statistics and other facts related to education. In the field of Canadian city school administration it is a pioneer study which, it is sincerely hoped, may be carefully and sympathetically examined by educators in Canadian cities. The author even ventures to hope that the work may be useful in stimulating interest and perhaps in leading to some improvement in administration. The study itself should be followed by many other similar studies prepared by other students interested in this important field of Canadian public affairs.

OFFICIALS IN CONFERENCE DESCRIBE AND EVALUATE
THEIR VARIOUS MODES OF PROCEDURE.

Another method of preparing for remedial legislation is through conferences of officials. The value which would accrue to local boards, through the collection, preparation and study of the facts related to their ways of conducting business by means of such conferences has been frequently mentioned throughout this study. The reader's attention has been drawn again and again to the variety in methods of administration. The desirable aim is, of course, not mere uniformity. Variety, in general, is a desideratum. It is, however, quite within the truth to say that some of the modes of educational administration in Canadian cities are not good and that in all probability some one mode is better than all the others, and further that possibly a combination of the better elements of several prevailing methods of doing

things would be better than any existing plan. How can these statements either be verified or disproven? The obvious method is to put some well-known plan with respect to any specific phase of education and the results obtained from that plan side by side with other plans and results of the same phase—first plan and its result, second plan and its result, third plan with its result. Follow with analysis, comparison and decision. Who can do this?

Educational officials themselves can do this best and should frequently "get together" in the process. All the secretary-treasurers of the cities of a province or of several provinces, for example, should meet and confer. All the superintendents and inspectors, all supervisors, all high school principals and so on. This matter of conferences should have city and provincial departmental support.¹ The writer is even frank to suggest that departmental officials themselves should analyze and compare their respective modes of administration. There is little question but that conferences, whether of city or provincial educational administrators, would effect noteworthy improvement.

Perhaps it may be said that such conferences are already an established custom through the various annual conventions of teachers and officials—city and provincial. There is no desire whatever to belittle such meetings. Undoubtedly they are a means of advancing professional skill and are also a source of inspiration. What is being contended for herein is, however quite a different arrangement. The usual custom for the "annual convention" is somewhat as follows: A programme of speakers and topics is arranged by a committee. An audience fairly homogeneous, it is true, and which knows something—perhaps in a vague way a great deal—about the topic, listens to carefully prepared papers. This is enjoyed and probably there is some appreciable profit. Then discussion usually follows. This often indicates how wide of the mark is the aim of the impromptu speakers. Moreover, is it not true that the habitués of annual meetings will sometimes confess that while the addresses and discussions heard are profitable, one great gain, if not *the* great gain in an

¹ As in the case of Alberta, for example.

inspirational way transpires through the meetings of old colleagues and acquaintances in the auditorium corridor and hotel lobby?

The type of conference proposed herewith is suggested by the following :

(1) Not a great concourse of individuals with more or less heterogeneous interests, almost entirely passive listeners to carefully prepared eloquence, but rather, a small group of officials, whose work is, in general, similar, all entering actively into a business-like constructive though critical discussion.

(2) Not eloquence prepared and voiced by the few and listened to by many. On the contrary *studies*, carefully designed and developed, with accurate evaluations of some few phases of educational administration *by every official*. Such summaries should be prepared, collected, and edited. Those with marked differentiations should be mimeographed, distributed by mail and carefully studied by all *in advance of the meeting*.

(3) The time of the conference should be taken up by further explanation and debate. The members will be seated around a large table with their concrete data before them. Each official, for several weeks previous to the discussion has been in possession of the facts. Speeches will be brief, logical and to the point. Definite decisions can then be arrived at and the members eventually leave for their homes with specific programmes of reform to carry out. The results of their programmes will subsequently be submitted to similar discussion, criticism and suggestion.

Through this form of conference, officials will at least have become definitely aware of plans of administrative procedure other than their own. It is inconceivable that minor alterations would not be made immediately and large and far-reaching improvement in administration would be quite probable. Remedial legislation in educational administration would invariably follow such conferences.

FACTS MAY BE COLLECTED AND STUDIED THROUGH
COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATIONAL SURVEYS.

The school survey is a third means anticipatory to required remedial legislation in educational administration. The main object of the survey is to raise and

clearly define the desirable standards. This is done through a careful compilation and analysis of facts. Every citizen realizes, though sometimes vaguely, that the fundamental reason for the existence of a system of schools is to assist every unit of society to a higher level. He desires to make education effective, but does not always know that the educational fabric is highly complex. He sees that among educators themselves there is much difference of opinion as to ways and means with frequent lack of agreement as to the correct interpretation of results. The citizen's criticism is sometimes caustic, often severe. This inharmonious situation is effectively met by the educational survey. It attempts to provide an evaluation of each factor of the educational process. An important aim is the establishment of sure ground for the desired common agreement as to the value of the results attained and for positive and constructive recommendations looking to improvement.

An interesting parallel may be found in the business world. The people of Canada in matters of education, by provinces or by cities, are comparable to enormous corporations of stockholders. The legislatures and boards of education are the elected directors. The ministers of education and superintendents of schools correspond to the "superintendent of the plant." The people as shareholders with vital interests in the company are entitled to a fair and complete statement as to the human profit and human loss and further as to future policies. In requesting a survey in addition to the annual reports of the department or of local school boards, the people simply express a desire for something more than the usual "stock-taking." They wish to be shown the whole condition of affairs seen from an independent and impartial point of view, and set forth in a form at once scholarly and intelligible. Similarly men of affairs occasionally employ "efficiency engineers" to report on some unusual undertaking. Generally speaking, the mere mention of this matter in business circles leads both general manager and superintendent of the plant to advise retaining the expert for the work.

With the school surveys also this has been almost invariably the rule. In the year 1918, educational ways and means in the Province of Saskatchewan were carefully examined, described and recommendations for

improvements made by local workers directed by expert investigators from the United States Bureau of Education. This survey was instituted by the provincial government. Further illustrations may be drawn from American practice of recent years. The survey of the St. Louis school system was set under way by the Board of Education for the city, acting on the suggestion of the city superintendent of schools. Professor C. H. Judd, of the University of Chicago—an outsider—directed the survey. The state survey of Arizona was initiated by the Arizona School Officials' Association. For this survey a committee consisting of the President of the State University, two professors of education, three city superintendents of schools, a newspaper editor, and the State Superintendent of Public Instruction requested the United States Bureau of Education to direct the work. Elaborate reports of the educational system of the State of Delaware have recently been issued by the Federal Bureau of Education, the survey having been made at the request of state education officials.

The scope and method of the educational survey may be seen by an examination of the published reports. The plans adopted for the Arizona survey are typical of those followed for other States. They comprised (1) visits to elementary and high school classes while in session ; (2) visits to Normal Schools ; (3) visits to the State University ; (4) examination of buildings and grounds ; (5) examination of departmental records, financial accounts and general business methods ; (6) questionnaires to all teachers as to training, salaries, experience, etc. ; (7) questionnaires to school officials regarding buildings and grounds ; (8) general letter to five hundred people of various occupations requesting their opinions as to strength and weaknesses of the educational system ; (9) information from all state and other educational officials.

The findings and the recommendations offered following such a survey are usually given to the public in published reports. These are extremely interesting and constitute an exceedingly important body of educational literature. A single pamphlet or book generally comprises the report, but the St. Louis survey came out in three volumes of standard size, while the report of the survey of the State of Delaware was issued in six bulletins

of the U.S. Bureau of Education. The report of the Cleveland survey was made in sixteen small volumes, each a special section of the entire work. An indication of the scope of this survey may be obtained from the titles of a few of the sixteen volumes. For example, there is a volume entitled, "Child Accounting in the Public Schools," and another is "Financing the Public Schools." Still others are "Measuring the Work of the Public Schools," "What the Schools Teach and Might Teach," and "Educational Extensions."

Almost invariably such reports have been productive of enormous benefit and similar surveys of educational facilities whether provincial or city are strongly urged for Canada. They would constitute extremely valuable instruments anticipatory to improved educational administration. The material gathered would be principally factual. It would cover an entire city or an entire province. It would be representative of all interests both inside and outside of the system under examination. It would show in mathematically precise terms actual conditions as seen and summarized by sympathetic, experienced independent educators. Nothing educational that is good and no competent, up-to-date, wide-awake official need fear the result. Of course one may expect thought irritants for the people, both lay and professional, to be provided. Perhaps a few highly routinized officials might be shocked out of their complacency. The people at large and all true educators, however, would welcome the large body of objective fact properly arranged and intelligently presented. This would form a desirable basis for diagnosis and with recommendations for action would be of manifest assistance to Canadian educational administrators and ultimately would work to the benefit of the children in Canadian schools.

Accidentally Omitted. See Page 121 for Discussion.

TABLE NO. 16.*—ASSISTANTS TO THE SUPERINTENDENT (CHIEF OR SENIOR INSPECTOR) AND SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS IN CANADIAN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

City	Total Number of Teachers	General Assistant to Superintendent	Title of General Assistant to Superintendent	Is he assigned to districts?	By whom nominated	Length of Tenure.	Is clerical assistance supplied?	SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS									
								Art	Musie	Manual Trainig	Household Sci.	Physical Culture	Kindergarten	Writng	French	Primary Grades	
Brantford, Ont.	108	0	Inspector	No.	Board (2)	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Calgary, Alta.	263	2 (1)	Inspector	Yes.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1 (3)	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Charlottetown, P. E. I.	271	0	Inspector	Yes.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Edmonton, Ont.	386	1	Inspector	Yes.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Hull, Que.	85	1 (4)	Assistant	Yes.	Board	Year.	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
London, Ont.	215	1	Inspector	Yes.	Board (5)	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Montreal, Que. (Protestant)	803	2	Assistant	No.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Montreal, Que. (R. C.)	2148	..	(8)
Ottawa, Ont.	253	1	Inspector	Yes.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Regina, Sask.	111	0
St. John, N. B.	212	0
Stratford, Ont.	352	0
Toronto, Ont. (Public)	1687	7	Inspector	Yes.	Board	Unlimited	No.	2	3 (7)	1	1	3	1	1	1	1	1
Toronto, Ont. (Separate)	476	0	Inspector	No.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Winnipeg, B. C.	603	1
Winnipeg, Man.	677	1	Assistant	No.	Board	Unlimited	Yes.	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	3

* See page 121ff for discussion relating to the facts of this table.

- (1) Formerly only one, none during the war; appointment of junior or assistant inspector under advisement in June, 1919.
- (2) Education Committee in consultation.
- (3) Director of Technical Education, and Supervisor of Manual Training and Domestic Science.
- (4) In addition, classes of boys are under the direction of two Christian Brothers, and classes of girls of three sisters of the Order "Reverendes Soeurs Grises de la Croix."
- (5) In conference with Senior Inspector of city and chief inspector of the Province.
- (6) Every teacher on staff has Physical Drill Certificate, but there is no special supervision.
- (7) Appointment under organization under the Catholic School Commission of Montreal is entirely different from the general facts requested for use in this table.
- (8) The Administrative organization under the Catholic School Commission of Montreal is entirely different from the general facts requested for use in this table. The special subjects, Art, Music, etc., are taught by the regular teachers under the supervision of the school principals.

Appendices

The chief school official of each city was requested to forward the most recent "Annual Report," "Rules and Regulations," "By-Laws," and "Salary Schedule." Provincial Departments of Education also furnished copies of School Laws and their last annual reports.

The following are lists of such material used in this study :

APPENDIX "A."

ANNUAL REPORTS—CITIES.

- Brandon, Man.—*Annual Financial Statement—The School District of Brandon, No. 129—1917.*
- London, Ont.—*Annual Report of the Board of Education of the City of London, Ontario, 1916.*
- Montreal, Que.—*Report of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of the city of Montreal—Oct. 1, 1915, to Sept. 30, 1916.*
- Montreal, Que.—*Report of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of the city of Montreal—Oct. 1, 1916, to Sept. 30, 1917.*
- New Westminster, B.C.—*Financial Statement and Annual Report, 1916.* Corporation of the City of New Westminster, British Columbia.
- North Battleford, Sask.—*Report of the Trustees of the North Battleford High School District, No. 12—1917.* (Typewritten.)
- North Battleford, Sask.—*Report of the Trustees of the North Battleford School District, No. 1438—1917.* (Typewritten.)
- Ottawa, Ont.—*Ottawa Public Schools—Inspector's Annual Report, 1917.*
- Ottawa, Ont.—*Ottawa Public Schools—Inspector's Annual Report, 1918.*
- Toronto, Ont.—*Annual Report of the Board of Education for the City of Toronto, 1916.*
- Toronto, Ont.—*Printed Reports of the Committees of the Board of Education—Finance, Property, Management, etc.—January, 1918.*
- Vancouver, B.C.—*Vancouver City Schools—Trustees' Annual Report, 1916.*
- Victoria, B.C.—*Victoria City Schools—Financial Statistics for the Fiscal Year ending December 31st, 1917.*
- Winnipeg, Man.—*Winnipeg Public School Board Annual Report, 1917.*

ANNUAL REPORTS—PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.

- Manitoba.—*Report of the Department of Education for the year ending June 30th, 1915.*
- Manitoba.—*Report of the Department of Education for the year ending June 30th, 1916.*

- Manitoba.—*Report of the Department of Education* for the year ending June 30th, 1917.
- Nova Scotia.—*Annual Report of the Superintendent of Education of Nova Scotia* for the year ended 31st July, 1917.
- Ontario.—*Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario*, for the year 1915.
- Prince Edward Island.—*Annual Report of Public Schools of Prince Edward Island* for the year ended December 31st, 1917.
- Quebec.—*Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Province of Quebec* for the year 1916-17.

APPENDIX "B."

RULES AND REGULATIONS ; BY-LAWS.

- Kingston, Ont.—*By-laws and Regulations of the Board of Education* Adopted May 18th and July 13th, 1905.
- Montreal, Que.—*Regulations of the Board, 1917.*
- Ottawa, Ont.—*Rules and Regulations of the City of Ottawa, Public School Board.*—Adopted January 6th, 1916.
- Stratford, Ont.—*Rules and Regulations.*—Adopted by the Board, September, 1912.
- Toronto, Ont.—*By-laws of the Board of Education for the City of Toronto.*—Adopted April 26th, 1917.
- Victoria, B.C.—*By-laws of the Board of School Trustees of Victoria.* Passed April 6th, 1918.
- Westmount, Que.—*Regulations for Schools.*—Authorized August, 1914.
- Windsor, Ont.—*Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education of the City of Windsor.*—Consolidated June 11th, 1912.
- Winnipeg, Man.—*By-laws of the Winnipeg Public School Board.*—Adopted December 29th, 1903.

APPENDIX "C."

Salary schedules for 1918 and 1919 were supplied by the school officials of :

Brandon, Man.	North Battleford, Sask.
Calgary, Alta.	Ottawa, Ont.
Edmonton, Alta.	Peterborough, Ont.
Fredericton, N.B.	Regina, Sask.
Halifax, N.S.	Saint John, N.B.
Hamilton, Ont.	Vancouver, B.C.
London, Ont.	Victoria, B.C.
Moncton, N.B.	Windsor, Ont.
Moose Jaw, Sask.	Winnipeg, Man.
Montreal, Que.	

APPENDIX "D."

PROVINCIAL EDUCATION ACTS.

- Alberta.—Office Consolidation of *The School Ordinance, The School Assessment Ordinance, The School Grants Act, and The Schools Attendance Act.* 1917.
- British Columbia.—*Manual of the School Law and School Regulations of the Province of British Columbia.* 1916.
- Manitoba.—*The Public Schools Act*—Chapter 165, R.S.M., 1913.
- Manitoba.—*An Act to Amend the Public Schools Act.* Chapter 67, of 8 George V., Statutes of Manitoba.
- Manitoba.—*The Attendance Act* with explanations.
- Nova Scotia.—*Manual of School Law, Nova Scotia.* 1911.
- Nova Scotia.—*An Act to Amend and Consolidate the Acts relating to Public Instruction,* passed the 26th day of April, A.D. 1918.
- Nova Scotia.—*The Towns' Incorporation Act.* 1900.
- New Brunswick.—*Manual of the School Law and Regulation of New Brunswick.* 1913.
- Ontario.—*Acts of the Department of Education, Province of Ontario.* Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1914.
- Prince Edward Island.—*The Public Schools' Act.* 1877.
- Prince Edward Island.—*The Public Schools' Amendment Acts, 1912 and 1913.*
- Quebec.—*Code Scolaire de la province de Quebec.* 1912.
- Quebec.—*School Regulations of the Province of Quebec.* Revised by the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, 1909.
- Quebec.—*School Regulations of the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction of the Province of Quebec.* Revised 1915.
- Saskatchewan.—*The School Act, School Assessment Act, School Grants Act, School Attendance Act, Free Text Book Act, Consolidated for Office Use.* 1917.

APPENDIX "E."

The University of Chicago
The School of Education.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS
IN THE CITIES OF
THE DOMINION OF CANADA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR INFORMATION.*

City.	Name of officer reporting.	Province.	Title.
I. <i>The School Board.</i>	Its official name? How many members compose it? May women serve as School Board members? If so, how many were there in 1916? 1917? 1918? Are members elected or appointed? If elected, are they elected at large or by		

* Not a facsimile of original questionnaire, but accurate copy of its contents. The original was a four-page document, each page 8½ inches by 11 inches. Spaces were left after each question in which the appropriate answers could be written and completed questionnaire was then returned to the author.

wards? If appointed, who appoints them? If appointed, are the individual members appointed to represent the entire city, or some ward, or section? If elected by popular vote, is an election held especially for this purpose? How often? What time of year? Are other than School Board members elected at the same poll? Length of term of School Board members? How many go out of office each year? Salary per year? Is the secretary a member of the board? If not, does the Public School Inspector or Superintendent of Schools serve as secretary? Or is an outside person employed as secretary? Annual salary of secretary? Is the same person treasurer? If not are treasurer's duties performed by inspector, superintendent, member of the Board or by some outside person? His yearly salary? Names of standing committees with number of members in each and officials who attend meetings of committees. Does new business originate with the standing committees? Can standing committees dispose of matters when the Board is not in session? How often does the Board meet in regular session? How many members constitute a quorum for business? May the superintendent, principals and teachers be appointed by the vote of the majority of a quorum? Or is a vote of the majority of the Board required? Does the same rule apply to other business? Is there an official corresponding to the commercial "Business Manager?" If so, his title?

II. *Finances of the School Board*—Does the Board refer its annual budget or financial estimate to any other body or officer for approval? If so, to whom? Is there any statutory limit to the amount of the annual financial estimate? What is the estimated limit giving statutory reference? Has the Board power to issue bonds? For what purpose? For what purposes and to what limit may it issue bonds without the special consent of the people? If the Board does not have power to issue bonds for erection of new buildings, removal of deficit, etc., who does? Is interest paid on daily bank balances? If so, what rate is paid? Who audits school accounts? Who appoints the auditor? What amount is paid for auditing school accounts? Who devised the system of school accounting used? In what year? Has the Board received at any time any funds from gifts or endowments? If so, how much? Are calculations made of annual per capita costs?

III. *The Supervision of the Schools*—A. *The Head of the System*. What is his title—Superintendent, Inspector, High School Principal, Model School Principal, Secretary or Chairman of Board? What is his term of office? What qualifications does he possess as to Education? (Name certificates and degrees.) As to Experience? (State positions previously held with number of years in each.) Does the Superintendent have exclusive right to nominate teachers? If so, about what percentage of his nominations does the Board accept and appoint? Does the Superintendent at any time appoint teachers without action of the Board? Does he recommend salaries to be paid teachers? Does he recommend salaries to be paid to other employees, such as assistant superintendents, janitors? If so, which ones? May the superintendent dismiss teachers without special authority of the Board? May the superintendent dismiss other employes, especially janitors, without special authority of the

Board? To what extent may the superintendent make contracts and expend money without special authority? Has the superintendent the same degree of control and responsibility for the high school that he has for the elementary schools? Does he attend board meetings? Does he take part in discussions or simply give information when called upon? Approximately what proportion of the school year does the superintendent devote to actual teaching? What portion of his time must he use in actually visiting classes? Does he have power to revise the course of study? Do the plans for new school buildings originate with him? If not, is he consulted in the planning of new school buildings? Does he receive necessary clerical assistance? What educational meetings outside of his own city did he attend in 1915? 1916? 1917? What schools, other than his own, did he visit in 1915? 1916? 1917? To what extent does the Board pay expenses of superintendent or other officials, incurred in attending educational meetings and visiting schools in other cities? (Specify instances 1915-1917.)

B. *Assistants for Supervision.* If there are associate, deputy or assistant, give title, number and major duty of each. Are they assigned to districts? Who nominates them? What is the term of office of each? Is clerical assistance provided for these officials? For what subjects are special supervisors employed and how many for each subject? Who nominates them? Who appoints them?

IV. *Teachers—High School Principal.* Length of term of office? By whom nominated? By whom appointed? His minimum qualifications as to education? (State certificates and degrees.) As to experience? Years? Amount of teaching required of him? How much clerical assistance does he receive? How many H. S. Principals in your city? Men? Women?

High School Teachers. Does the principal nominate his assistants? Are all required to possess a University degree? What are the exceptions? To what extent is each required to have had professional training? What are the exceptions? Must they have had other experience before appointment in your city?

Elementary School Principal. What minimum qualifications are required as to education? As to experience? Years. By whom nominated? By whom appointed? Amount of teaching required of him? How much clerical assistance does he receive? How many elementary school principals in your city? Men? Women? How many non-teaching principals are there? In general how many class rooms in a building before the principal is free from teaching?

Elementary School Teachers. By whom nominated? By whom appointed? What minimum qualifications are required as to education? As to experience? Years. Age limits? About what percentage are appointed without previous experience? For what length of time are teachers appointed? If appointment is at first for a probationary term, for how long? Does the board make written contracts with teachers? If the teacher resigns before the expiration of the term of contract to accept a position in another city, is the resignation accepted? If not, and if the teacher breaks

the contract, what is done ? By whom may a teacher be suspended ? Dismissed ? How are temporary vacancies filled ? Are teachers paid for time absent on account of sickness ? If so, for how many days each year ? On full pay ? If not, on what part of salary ? On what basis are teachers advanced in salary ? May a teacher receive leave of absence to acquire higher professional standing ? To travel ? On what conditions of service ? Does the teacher receive whole or part pay during such leave ? On return to duty, does such absence militate against rank in the salary schedule or is the ranking as if duty had been continuous ?

V. *Janitors and Caretakers.* Appointed on whose nomination ? Are applicants for positions examined on methods of sanitation ? If so, who conducts the examination ? Who inspects the work of janitors ? How often ? Do janitors perform police duty in and around school buildings ? If not, who does ? Are janitors employed for the entire year or for the school term ? If a janitor needs an assistant who employs him ? Who pays the assistant, the janitor or the board ? Is the janitor responsible to the principal ? If not entirely, to what extent ?

VI. *Buildings and Grounds.* Does the school board purchase land and erect buildings without consulting any other body or officer ? If not, who passes on its proposals for new school buildings ? Is there a superintendent of buildings ? What is his relation to the superintendent of schools ? About what is the average size of the grounds surrounding your school buildings ? Are they equipped as playgrounds ? State area of each plot of land purchased for school purposes during the years 1915-16-17. Is an assembly hall provided in each elementary school recently constructed ? In each High School ? Have the elementary schools gymnasiums ? The High Schools ? If the High School has and elementary schools have not gymnasiums, are elementary school pupils permitted to use the H.S. gymnasium ? Are the buildings used as polling places ? For what other purposes than school activities are the buildings used ? Who gives permission for such use ? Is a fee charged ? Does the janitor receive extra remuneration when school building is used for other than regular school purposes ? What system is used for heating the buildings ? What arrangement is there for ventilating other than windows and doors ? Are adjustable seats provided in the elementary schools ? In the High Schools ? What accommodation other than class-room in the elementary schools is provided for Principal ? For male assistants ? For female assistants ? For school doctor or nurse ? What accommodation other than class-room in the High School is provided for Principal ? For male assistants ? For female assistants ? For school doctor or nurse ? Are the buildings provided with pianos ? If so, are these provided by the board ? Or by funds raised by entertainments ?

VII. *Textbooks.* Who determines what text-books shall be used ? Does the Board, Superintendent, Inspector, Principal, Teachers' Association, or other body make recommendations for the adoption of new text-books ? If so, is the recommendation acted upon ? Are text-books furnished free ? If so, are they supplied by the Board or by the Province ? What other principal supplies for pupils' use, such as pencils, blank books, etc., are furnished free ?

VIII. *Courses of Study—Special Features.* Does the regular Course of Study include Manual Training? If so what materials and in what grades? Are special teachers employed? Does the regular course of study include Cooking and Sewing? In what grades? Are special teachers employed? Does the Board provide industrial training for pupils below High School attainment? If not, has it considered offering such training? Does the board provide special schools or classes for backward and defective children? If so, what is the approximate yearly cost of this work per pupil? Does the board provide summer schools so that pupils who failed of promotion may have an opportunity to make up deficiencies? Does the school board control and supervise public playgrounds other than those at its schools? Does the board contribute to the support of public playgrounds not directly in its control? Does the board conduct any other educational agencies? If so, what agencies?

IX. *Attendance* (where necessary indicate separately for elementary and high schools). Has your city an attendance or truant officer? Who nominates him? Who appoints him? Who directs his activities? If there is no attendance officer, how is the compulsory attendance law enforced? Is there a city or provincial school census? What was the length of the school year in 1917? Days. What is the length of the school day?—hours. At what time of day do sessions begin? Close? At what time are the doors of the school open for the admission of pupils? Must teachers be in their rooms when the doors are opened? How many recess periods are given, not including the noon intermission? What is the length of the noon intermission? Are the children expected to go home for lunch? If not, does the school provide lunch at cost? Does the school provide any children with lunch free? What provision is made for school lunch-rooms and their supervision?

X. *Medical Inspection.* Does the board provide medical inspection of school children? If not, by whom is it provided? Does the medical inspector give his entire time to the school? If not, how much? Does the inspection consist simply in locating and restricting contagious and infectious diseases? Is examination made for eye, ear, nose and throat defects? Does the medical inspection include a free dental clinic? Does it include expert scientific examination of alleged subnormal children? What efforts are made to secure remedies and corrections of diseased conditions disclosed by medical examination? How many school nurses? Responsible to whom? What is the nurse's relation to the homes of pupils? To the school? Has she administrative duties? If so, what are they?

XI. *Public Library.* Is there any connection between the administration of schools and that of the Public Library in your city? In what way? Is there a branch Public Library in any school building? Does the Public Library lend books in lots of 30 or 40 or more to school principals for use in class-rooms and for loan by teachers to individual children? What special provision does the Public Library make for teachers and school children?

XII. *Remarks.* A separate sheet with additional remarks to amplify the above may be necessary in some cases and will be appreciated. Please head any such sheet with name of city, etc.

APPENDIX "F."

NAMES OF SCHOOL OFFICIALS WHO SUPPLIED INFORMATION ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE OR THROUGH CORRESPONDENCE.

Nova Scotia—

Halifax—G. K. Butler, Supervisor.
Sydney—James J. Curry, Secretary.

New Brunswick—

Fredericton—Chas. A. Sampson, Secretary.
Moncton—F. A. McCully, Secretary.
St. John—A. Gordon Leavitt, Secretary.

Prince Edward Island—

Charlottetown—H. H. Shaw, Superintendent.
B. Balderston, Secretary.

Quebec—

Hull—Joseph Provost, Secretary-Treasurer.
Lachine—S. G. Grimston, Secretary-Treasurer.
Maisonneuve—Chas. E. Price, Secretary-Treasurer.
Montreal—H. J. Silver, Secretary-Superintendent of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners.
Montreal—A. La Fontaine, Secretary-Treasurer of the Roman Catholic Board of School Commissioners.
Outremont—W. Allen Walsh, Principal, Board of Protestant School Trustees.
Outremont—J. A. Gauthier, Secretary-Treasurer of Roman Catholic Board of School Commissioners.
Quebec—Antoine C. Janemeau, Secretary-Treasurer.
St. Hyacinthe—Rene Morin, Secretary-Treasurer.
Sherbrooke—L. O. Lacombe, Secretary-Treasurer.
Thetford Mines—Gabriel T. Taschereau, Secretary-Treasurer.
Three Rivers—Arthur Beliveau, Secretary-Treasurer.
Valleyfield—J. D. S. Tremblay, Secretary-Treasurer.
Westmount—E. W. T. Raddon, Treasurer.
W. Chalk, Secretary-Superintendent.

Ontario—

Belleville—, Inspector.
Brantford—W. E. Foster, Principal P.S.
Chatham—J. W. Plewes, Principal.
Fort William—J. A. Underhill, Principal.
Guelph—W. Tytler, P.S. Inspector.
Hamilton—W. H. Ballard, Senior Inspector.
Kingston—J. Russell Stuart, P.S. Inspector.
Kitchener—Edmond Pequeguat, Secretary-Treasurer.
London—C. B. Edwards, P.S. Inspector.
Ottawa—J. H. Putman, Senior Inspector.
Peterborough—L. J. Colling, Inspector.
St. Thomas—J. A. Taylor, Inspector.
Sarnia—Henry Conn, P.S. Inspector.
Sault Ste. Marie—Nathan C. Mansell, Supervising Principal.
Stratford—G. W. Slaughter, Principal, Model School.
Toronto—R. H. Cowley, Chief Inspector.
Windsor—Donald Ross, Principal.
Woodstock—S. Nethercott, Principal.

Manitoba—

- Brandon—Alfred White, Superintendent.
- Portage la Prairie—A. E. Ireland.
- St. Boniface—Gustave A. Rocan, Secretary-Treasurer.
- Winnipeg—D. McIntyre, Superintendent.

Saskatchewan—

- Moose Jaw—E. B. R. Pragnell, Secretary-Treasurer.
- North Battleford—J. G. Cookson, Secretary-Treasurer.
- Prince Albert—C. G. Simpson, Secretary-Treasurer.
- Regina—J. H. Cunningham, Secretary-Treasurer.
- Saskatoon—William P. Bate, Secretary-Treasurer.
- Swift Current—J. E. Hemenway, Secretary.
- Weyburn—R. W. Clarke, Secretary-Treasurer.

Alberta—

- Calgary—A. M. Scott, Superintendent.
- Edmonton—W. G. Carpenter, Superintendent.
- Lethbridge—R. H. Dobson, Principal of High School.
- Medicine Hat—William E. Hay, Superintendent.

British Columbia—

- Nelson—Fred L. Irwin.
- New Westminster—Robert H. Gray, Secretary.
- Revelstoke—C. B. Hume, Secretary.
- Vancouver—J. S. Gordon, Municipal Inspector.
Gerald Upton, Secretary.
- Victoria—W. F. C. Pope, Secretary.

APPENDIX "G."
INDIANAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS
TEACHER'S EFFICIENCY RECORD.

Name..... Kind of School..... Date Employed.....

Date of Rating	Kind of Work	TRAINING—YEARS.			EXPERIENCE		RATING				Grade of License	Com-bined Rating	Salary	Rated by	File No.	
		High School	Normal	College	Special	Indianapolis	Total	Person-ality	Com-munity Interest	Pro-fessional Interest						Teaching Ability

EDUCATION AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING DETAILED

Date of Completion.	Name of Institution with Degrees, if any	Months of Credits.	Major Courses.

SAMPLE OF CARD USED TO RECORD THE RATING OF TEACHERS ALREADY EMPLOYED. FOR DISCUSSION OF "SCORE CARDS" FOR USE IN ANTICIPATION OF ENGAGEMENT OF TEACHERS See pp. 167, 168.

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