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SERIES

International Education Series

EDITED BY

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, A. M., LL. D.

Volume XV.

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EDITED BY W. T. HARRIS.

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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SERIES

SCHOOL SUPERVISION

BY

J. L. PICKARD, LL.D.

NEW YORK
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY
1890

TO THE FRIENDS OF THE

"ROUND TABLE"

THIS LITTLE BOOK IS GRATEFULLY DEDICATED.

EDITOR'S PREFACE.

THERE is no other device in our school system that has done so much for the improvement of our schools in organization, and in methods of instruction and discipline, as the superintendency. As early as 1839 the city of Providence, Rhode Island, appointed a city superintendent. His duties were similar to those that are now devolved upon this class of officers. Boston, twelve years later, established a similar office, and elected the person then supervising the schools of Providence (Nathan Bishop) to fill the place.

The Jesuits long before others—early in the seventeenth century—had demonstrated the value of graded supervision to secure efficiency in schools. One may study profitably the history of their education on this point as well as on another important matter—that of emulation as a device for arousing and stimulating the pupil to activity. Educational history shows us the spectacle of ideas put in practice and tested in their entire compass of possibilities. Their limits can not be found except by pushing them to extremes, so as to cause reaction from the side of other principles and devices of acknowledged equal validity. The history of

supervision in the Jesuit schools has these lessons. But the supervision of American common schools has for the most part grown up without profiting by the study of experiments made elsewhere. Its fifty years of history have sufficed to develop, however, nearly all the extremes and reveal the limits within which it is most efficient.

While the first noteworthy attempt to establish supervision in a city dates from 1839 in Rhode Island, the first establishment of a State superintendency worthy of the name was made by Massachusetts two years earlier (1837). The ever-renowned Horace Mann entered then on his career. His work is a perennial example of the value of good supervision. Perhaps it is not too much to say that the schools of his State quadrupled in efficiency within ten years after his inauguration. A comparison of this agency with that of a school fund in promoting the cause of education shows its superiority.

The State of Connecticut had obtained in 1795 a school fund of one million dollars from the sale of its "Western Reserve." Connecticut was thus enabled to provide and did provide from the beginning of this century an elementary common-school education for all classes free of expense. Its backwoods districts held their three months schools and its more populous districts held schools of six or eight months' duration and supplemented the proceeds of the school fund by rate-bills. Had the law disbursing this fund provided that each district receiving it should raise an equal amount by taxation, there is no question that Connecticut would have retained its supremacy in popular education, for it would have been the first State to invent or adopt

new devices for the perfection of its system. But its reliance on the school fund for the entire support of its schools proved a bane in the end.

Before 1837 Connecticut surpassed the other States in the education of its people. But the mighty engine of supervision wielded by a Horace Mann immediately turned the scale in favor of Massachusetts. Municipal taxation proved a far more powerful instrument than a school fund, although the latter had done good service in its day.*

For the support of schools in sparsely settled rural districts, the State school fund and the quota assigned them from the State school-tax are still the most important item. For cities and wealthy communities the local municipal tax is the chief and indeed a sufficient resource, except in those States that have limited the rate of taxation by constitutional provision.

The editor of this volume remembers many visits of inspection made by him to the principal cities of the country in the decade 1867 to 1876. While many school systems excited admiration for general excellence or for special features, he found no system to compare with that of Chicago while under the supervision of Mr. Pickard, the author of the present volume. To procure for this Education Series a volume embodying the results of an experience so successful has therefore seemed very desirable. Before assuming the charge of

* The editor of this series may be pardoned for mentioning the circumstance that his early schooling took place first in a backwoods school district in Connecticut entirely supported by the school fund; and, secondly, in the city schools of Providence, then under the supervision of Mr. Bishop.

the Chicago schools, Mr. Pickard had done important service as State Superintendent of Wisconsin, and since that time he has for nine years presided over the State University of Iowa.

Inasmuch as the city superintendent is valuable chiefly for what he accomplishes through his influence on his corps of teachers, with a view to a discovery of the means by which this influence is secured and its results made efficient, I call attention especially to the chapters in the following work that reveal the method and policy of the superintendent's action.

The discussion of the subject of examinations and promotions in Chapter XI will prove instructive to all who have been disposed to make the graded system a sort of Procrustean bed, which held back talented pupils and unduly forced the dull ones. In this chapter also the legitimate uses of written examinations are admirably presented.

Chapters XIV and XV, together with Appendix A, are devoted to the ever-important theme of moral education—a question that is now exciting more attention than ever, owing to the active movements in progress tending to secularize the instruction given in the common schools.

W. T. Harris.

Washington, D. C., *May, 1890.*

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

When leaving the work of supervision of schools, which had occupied my thought for more than twenty years in town, State, and city, partial friends expressed the wish that some of the fruits of my experience might be put in permanent form.

Twelve years have passed—years of careful review, years of discovery of error in some directions.

The author deems it his privilege to acknowledge the errors discovered, and to present the truth as revealed to him by means of the clearer light of the twelve years of retrospect. It will not be difficult, for those who have followed the practice of his active supervision, to detect the changes in theory. The chapter on examination and promotion of pupils will reveal a greater change than any other part of the work.

It has been impossible to treat of supervision without constant thought of those whose work is supervised. Teachers may find in this volume help, if they are led to view their work from the standpoint of the superintendent.

Those who are in process of training in the Normal

School may be helped in some directions by study of these pages.

One part of the Appendix has a special application to the work of the teacher, while it also furnishes hints to superintendents who are often called on for advice in matters of discipline of troublesome boys.

The author acknowledges his indebtedness to those from whom he has taken the liberty to make quotations, to an extent far beyond the extracts he has made. Their writings and their personal counsels have helped him in his search for the truth.

No claim to originality is asserted. Readers of the book as well as the author will be indebted to kind and helpful friends who have labored in similar fields, and who kindly permit the binding up of some of the sheaves after their reaping.

J. L. PICKARD.

IOWA CITY, IOWA, *February, 1890.*

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SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

In every branch of human industry the importance of supervision grows with the specialization of labor. The more minute the subdivision of labor, the greater the need of supervision. Each laborer is by practice perfected in the work to which he is assigned, and is confined to a narrow field. He knows that his employer expects of him the best results possible for him to attain. His mind is bent upon the special work assigned him. No thought is bestowed upon the relation his work bears to that of his fellow-workman. To him, what he does is complete in itself. He has accepted his place in the plan about which he gives himself no anxiety. But his work is only a part, a small part, in the great plan. In time and in amount of work he stands in close relation to others, but he knows not how to determine either. He might acquire the knowledge, but at the expense of his efficiency in the special work he is expected to perform. Over him and his neighbors in other parts of the divided work stands one whose special work it is to adjust the parts, himself familiar with each, but freed from active work in any part. He is the overseer, the superintendent. Time saved, and efficiency of special workmen increased, justify

his employment. This is a fact so well established in the industrial world that the omission of a superintendent in any industry of considerable magnitude would be regarded as sheer folly, provoking and deserving failure.

School-work furnishes no exception to this general rule. It may be said to demand closer supervision than industries more material in their character. For much manual labor there is a rapidly growing substitution of machinery. The more complex machines do the work of many hands. In some instances a single machine brings out the finished product, all its parts properly adjusted. Less supervision and more invention are needed.

But for the teacher's work there is no possible substitution of machinery. With increase of population there is an increased call for divided work. The material wrought upon is not of such character as to insure like results from the treatment proper for wood or iron. Were it so, even then supervision would be essential in order that parts of the work may be properly adjusted. But in school-work the superintendent becomes an adviser as well as a supervisor. He must not content himself with *seeing* that work is properly done, but he must be prepared to *guide* the doer.

It is not to be denied that in special instances as good results are observable in schools without supervision as in those most thoroughly supervised. These are individual cases, however, where the tact and knowledge of the successful teacher are of a high order. Such a teacher has the elements of a good supervisor, and becomes such to his own work. Such a teacher, combining the qualities of supervisor and teacher, may succeed far better than the average teacher, however thoroughly supervised by a professional superintendent.

But special cases can not determine the course best

adapted to general work. Nor will the limiting of an exceptional teacher to the walls of a single room be the part of wisdom. Let such a one be placed where his power will be felt and his influence multiplied a hundred-fold, and the uplift of a hundred schools will more than atone for the loss of his service to one.

It may be argued that the influence of a successful teacher will be felt by other teachers more sensibly than would be the case were he transferred to supervision; for in his school-room the practical application of his theories can be studied. This would be true were his school-room accessible to all his fellow-teachers, and were they at liberty to visit it whenever their needs of counsel were strongest. These conditions do not and can not obtain in any large system of schools. If the contrary were true, there would result a large number of imitators who would make themselves ridiculous in the attempt. The practical application of a theory depends upon the individual's conception of the theory, and upon the individual's tact in its application. Efforts to copy shut out the inspiration of theorizing, and kill the tact which a personal attempt to make theory into practice would develop. It is more than likely that a majority of teachers would become disheartened in witnessing marked success, or at least, feeling their own inability to attain it, would cease from effort and plod on in the old way. Such teachers may be stimulated more by hearing than by seeing, and, by being told of a better way, they will make some progress in the right direction.

For the reason that it is impossible for all teachers to become personally acquainted with the work of any one, however excellent—and for the still further reason that many would become disheartened were they to attempt imitation—it is best that special excellence should be

placed where it can be made more generally available than within the walls of a single school-room.

The results of such special excellence in a teacher's instruction are limited to a few pupils, and to these only for a brief period under present forms of gradation and promotion. Transfer of signal ability to the work of supervision will widen its influence and will extend the time of its application.

It is not the province of this book to argue the need of supervision, but rather to give such hints as may prove helpful to those who undertake the work of supervision.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

THE American colonies early recognized the importance of education, but, aside from the founding of colleges, seminaries, and universities, little was done in a general way toward fostering the interests of popular education. The Church organized a school, built a schoolhouse upon the same lot with the church edifice, collected rate-bills, and provided a course of study preparatory to the college. The Church was dominant in civil affairs. The duty of maintaining schools of a popular character was in some instances urged upon the towns with more or less success. By authority of law, schools of different grades were established as population increased. The courts sometimes took cognizance of neglect of duty on the part of the towns. No system appeared. The schools

were what the public sentiment of the localities made them. They were good, bad, or indifferent.

No special effort was made to arouse interest outside the town most awake and best provided with school facilities. No transfer of excellence apparent in the favored town was secured to other towns, for want of a proper channel of such transfer. Clergymen were the "school committees," and in many cases also the teachers. With such multiplicity of duties falling into their hands, it is plain that time would fail them for any other service than that of their immediate parishes. They were efficient so far as they undertook the work. Their training had been in the college, and the elements of collegiate studies were foremost in their thoughts. Their occupation colored their instruction, or their control of that given by others. "To read, to write, to cipher," were preparatory to the inevitable Latin, Greek, and mathematics of the college course. The Bible was in large measure the reading-book. The catechism was more important than the arithmetic. The shades of religious instruction were as varied as the tenets of the dominant churchmen. In some of the colonies there was a strong element of opposition to religious domination, but it was for a long time futile in its opposition. More than a century passed before anything was accomplished in severance of Church and State in school affairs. More than two centuries rolled by before, by State action, public schools became entirely free schools. During these centuries a gradual process of evolution in matters of control had gone forward. Prominent in this evolution has been the work of school support and of school supervision. As civil authorities have given more thought to the general support of schools, so have they seen the need of efficient supervision.

As the colonies were about to enter into the conditions

of Statehood, the Congress of the Confederation in 1785 laid the foundation for State support of schools. From the territory of the new States to be organized out of the public domain there was set apart one thirty-sixth part of the area (one section out of each township, according to congressional survey) as a fund whose sale was to be effected by State authority, and the proceeds permanently invested so that the income might be available for the maintenance of public schools. Another portion of public lands, two townships in each State, was devoted in 1787 to the support of higher institutions of learning. The first donation was wisely made in small parcels uniformly distributed, so that every township of six miles square contained within itself one square mile of territory devoted to school purposes. Nor was this small "school section" left to the whim or caprice of the township authorities as to its location. It was definitely located by the act which granted it.* The two townships given for "seminary purposes" were left for State authorities to locate wherever public lands were found unsold in the State. The methods of disposal of the common-school grants were left to the control of the several States. This involved, of course, supervision of this fund. State officers were made in many cases *ex officio* "School Land Commissioners." Conditions were attached to the distribution of the proceeds of the fund thus created which involved supervision by county and by township officers, and still further by school-district officers where the district was the unit of organization. Thus far does the establishment of a fund for support of schools involve the work of supervision of the material appliances in the matter of public education.

* The sixteenth section; since 1848 the thirty-sixth section also is granted.

The machinery of organization and of supply of means has in it little of importance when compared with the application of means to the education of children. By the Ordinance of 1787 the cause of popular education was specially commended to the watchful care of the States. The stability of free institutions was recognized as resting in the intelligence and virtue of the citizens. These important foundation-stones require careful shaping under the direction of skilled labor. Unlike the stones quarried for material structures, the substance employed by the intellectual and the moral builder is plastic, easily molded if taken at the proper time. That time is childhood. For the children of the community schools were established.

The towns, especially in the New England colonies, maintained good schools. In other colonies parishes undertook school support. Teachers were well qualified. They came from the well-educated classes, often from the ranks of the clergy. School committees were charged with the duty of inspecting the schools. These committees were from the learned men of the towns or the parishes. They took commendable pride in seeing that the "master" did his duty and earned his salary. A few days at most sufficed for this purpose. Then the State stepped into direction of school affairs, and made that direction felt through county and town and district officers. The old school committee served as a model for the town superintendency in the newer States, which were not held to the customs of the older States. The "school committee" still maintained its hold in the older States, and has not yet disappeared there. In the cities the theory of the "school committee" finds its expression in the "Board of Education."

With the growth of population, and the increased demand upon the time their chief duties required of those

who had acted in an *ex officio* capacity as supervisors of school funds and of school instruction, and with the specialization of labor which has grown out of the pressure of this demand, and following the custom which all industries, manual and intellectual, have found essential to their most effective prosecution, a special officer for supervision of schools—town, county, or State—has become a matter of history, and has also within itself become subject to the operation of the principle of division of labor.

Modifications have resulted from experience. The original supervision by town authority has given place to county supervision. State supervision has had two or three periods of trial, and has found permanence within the last fifty years.

The original unit of school organization—the school district—has in large measure disappeared except in matters of finance and of school-buildings. Supervision of the work of instruction has been assumed under State direction by town officers where the town is made the unit of organization, or in the newer States and in some of the older States (since the changes after the civil war), by county officers. County superintendents, or county boards for examination of teachers, or secretaries of county boards, *ex officio* superintendents, are found in thirty-two of the forty-two States of the Union. In Louisiana, "parish superintendents" take the same place as county superintendents elsewhere. In New York, superintendents of districts composed of parts of counties, or in a few instances of an entire county, have duties similar to those of county superintendents in other States. Mississippi and Nevada, after adopting the county system of supervision, have left it practically void of effect in recent years. Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Delaware retain town supervision.

Of the last-named States, Connecticut and Delaware provide for examination of teachers in part by "State Boards of Examiners." There remain but four States holding exclusively to town supervision.*

It must not be inferred, from what has been stated, that the States admitted to the Union since the establishment of our national Government are to be credited with State organization of school systems.

From Kiddle and Schem's Cyclopædia of Education, and from various reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, the following facts are compiled:

Massachusetts enacted in 1642 a school law, which in its essential features continues in force to this date.

Connecticut in like manner in 1650.

Pennsylvania followed in 1682.

New Jersey, having provided the basis of a school fund in 1683, passed a school law in 1693.

New Hampshire followed (till 1680 a part of Massachusetts) in 1693.

Maryland in 1723.

Georgia in 1783.

New York enacted a State law, the first after the organization of the United States Government (an act had been passed in 1732 to aid a public school in the city of New York), in 1795.

Virginia in 1796.

Rhode Island in 1800.

South Carolina (a school fund for the poor) in 1811.

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* Michigan, after nine years' trial of county superintendency (1867–1875), abolished it in name, but retains it in fact as to examination of teachers through a county board whose secretary may be superintendent *ex officio*.

North Carolina (by legislative committee, not perfected till 1825) in 1816.

Delaware in 1829.

The thirteen colonies thus recognized the obligations resting upon them, but they were not alone in this recognition. The States that were admitted to the Union without the favorable provisions by congressional grants, which all the later States have realized, organized State school systems in order and date as follows:

Vermont in 1782.

Kentucky in 1805.

Maine (first organized with Massachusetts) in 1821.

Tennessee (aided by special grant of six hundred and forty acres in each area of six miles square, made in 1806) in 1823.

Legislative requirements met with scanty compliance in many of the States above named. In some instances, except in case of higher institutions of learning, the law remained a dead letter upon the statute-book.

Each of the remaining twenty-five States, except West Virginia and Texas, has felt the moral obligation imposed by congressional land grants, and has organized a State system of schools, with the Constitution of the State as its basis. West Virginia, at first organized with Virginia, found the education of her people essential to freedom, on account of which she sought separation from the parent State. Texas, by virtue of special terms of admission, retains control of her public lands; but she has followed the requirements made of other newer States, and has set apart for school purposes the same territory as provided for in congressional land grants to States organized out of the public domain.

It by no means follows that State action extended to the supervision of schools as now obtaining. The influ-

ence of Massachusetts and Connecticut has been sensibly felt in all the States of the Northwest in their school supervision, and the influence of these newer States has reacted upon many of the original States, notably in the matter of State supervision. At first it was incidental, an added duty demanded of some State officer whose chief service lay in another direction. By degrees the entire time of a State officer was required, and now the distinct department of education is presided over by a "State Superintendent," "State Commissioner," or "State Secretary," who devotes his entire time to the administration of school affairs, to the study of school systems of other States and of foreign nations, to advise regarding legislation, to the collection of statistics, to the improvement of both matter and method of instruction, to the awakening of public interest, to the economical use of public funds, to the advice of county and township officers, to the unification of the school-work of his State, to the correction of manifest errors and to the transfer of special excellences, to hearing and deciding questions on appeal from decisions of inferior officers.

As these and other duties press upon him, assistance is provided in deputies, agents, or clerks. Much that originally belonged to the State superintendency of schools is shared with other State officers—notably that part of the work pertaining to management of school funds. Much has been added to his duties as schools have partaken of that spirit of progress which has characterized all departments of our national life.

The following table will show the title of the State officer, the mode of election or appointment, the length of term of service where a limit is given, and the year in which the present system of State supervision was crystallized into some degree of permanence:

State.	TITLE.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Origin.
Michigan	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1836
Massachusetts.	Secretary.	By State Board.		1837
Kentucky	Superintendent	By people.	4 yrs.	1837
Rhode Island	Commissioner	By State Board.	1 yr.	1845
	Agent, 1843–1845.			
New Jersey	Superintendent	By State Board.	3 yrs.	1845
Vermont	Superintendent	By Legislature.	2 yrs.	1845
	Secretary of Board, 1856–1874.			
Iowa	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1846
	Territorial Superintendent, 1841–1843; Secretary of Board, 1848–1864.			
Wisconsin	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1849
California	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1851
Indiana	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1852
Ohio	Commissioner	By people	3 yrs.	1853
	Superintendent, 1837–1840; Secretary of State, *ex officio*, 1840–1853.			
New York	Superintendent	By Legislature.	3 yrs.	1854
	Superintendent, 1813–1821; Secretary of State, *ex officio*, 1821–1854.			
Maine	Superintendent	By Governor	3 yrs.	1854
	Secretary of Board, 1846–1852.			
Illinois	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1854
Minnesota	Superintendent	By Governor	2 yrs.	1856
Pennsylvania	Superintendent	By Governor	4 yrs.	1857
	Secretary of Commonwealth, *ex officio*, 1835–1857.			
Kansas	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1861
Connecticut	Secretary	By Board		1865
	Secretary of Commissioners, 1839–1842; School Fund Commissioner, *ex officio*, 1845–1849; Principal of State Normal School, *ex officio*, 1849–1865.			
Missouri	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1865
	State officers, *ex officio*, 1835–1839; Secretary of State, *ex officio*, 1841–1851; Superintendent, 1853–1861; Secretary of State, *ex officio*, 1861–1865.			
West Virginia	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1865
Nevada	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1866
N'w Hampshire	Superintendent	By Governor	2 yrs.	1867
	Commissioner, 1846–1850; Secretary of County Commissioners, *ex officio*, 1850–1867.			
Maryland	Principal State Normal School, *ex officio*.			1868
	Superintendent, 1864–1868.			
Alabama	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1868
	Superintendent, 1854–1867; State Comptroller, *ex officio*, 1867–1868			
Arkansas	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1868
	State Auditor, *ex officio*, 1836–1861.			
South Carolina.	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1868
Florida	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1868
Nebraska	Superintendent	By people	3 yrs.	1869

State.	TITLE.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Origin.
Virginia	Superintendent	By Legislature.	4 yrs.	1870
North Carolina.	Superintendent	By people	3 yrs.	1870
	Superintendent, 1852–1865.			
Mississippi	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1870
Georgia	Commissioner	By Governor	4 yrs.	1870
Louisiana	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1870
	Secretary of State, *ex officio*, 1833–1846; Superintendent, 1847–1869.			
Oregon	Superintendent	By people	4 yrs.	1873
	Governor, *ex officio*, 1859–1872.			
Tennessee	Superintendent	By Governor	2 yrs.	1873
	State Treasurer, *ex officio*, 1869–1872.			
Texas	Secretary	By Board	4 yrs.	1875
	Superintendent, 1870–1875.			
Delaware	Superintendent	By Governor	1 yr.	1875
Colorado	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1876
	Territorial Secretary, *ex officio*, to 1870; Territorial Superintendent, 1870–1876.			
North Dakota	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1889
South Dakota	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1889
	Territorial Superintendent, 1869–1889, for both States as one Territory.			
Montana	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1889
	Territorial Superintendent, 1872–1889.			
Washington	Superintendent	By people	2 yrs.	1889
	Territorial Superintendent, 1872–1889.			

Each of the Territories, except New Mexico and Alaska, has a Territorial Superintendent of Schools.

The evolution of the present system of supervision of schools has left town supervision of less relative importance, while it has increased the amount and improved the character of county supervision. State supervision has become universal, and, except in Maryland and Texas, it holds an independent place in the State government. In Texas it may become such by the will of the State Board of Education.

The popular character of State supervision is shown in the fact that in twenty-seven States the office is an elective office; in five States it is within the province of the Board of Education to appoint; in six States the Gov-

ernor appoints; in three States the Legislature elects; and in the remaining State the President of the State Normal School acts *ex officio.*

Popular election also prevails in twenty of the thirty States having a system of county supervision.

County superintendents are appointed in Florida by the Governor; in Alabama, by the State Superintendent; in New Jersey, by the freeholders; in Arkansas and Georgia, by the County Board of Examiners; in Indiana, by town trustees; in Maryland, Tennessee, and Texas, by courts or judges; in Pennsylvania, by school directors.

Of the twelve States having no county superintendent in name, Arkansas has a County Board of Examiners; Louisiana has a "Parish Board"; New York a "District Commissioner," the district embracing part of a county or an entire county in some instances; Ohio has a "Board of Examiners"; Vermont has a "Board of Examiners."

Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, are without county supervision in any form. Mississippi and Nevada have it in name only. An important step has been taken in a few States, in requiring certain literary and moral qualifications on the part of candidates for office to be passed upon by competent authority.

Popular election has in some instances brought county supervision into disfavor, as by political manœuvring unworthy men or incompetent men have been chosen to the position. There has been, however, a gradual improvement, popular election proving a good educative agency, to which failures have given a stimulus. Women have proved excellent county superintendents in some States.

State supervision has done more for the elevation of the county superintendency than any other agency.

The wider and more generally intelligent constituency

of a State has secured worthy representation of the educational interests in the State superintendency.

Examination of teachers has assumed an important phase in the work of supervision. Twenty-one States * have State Boards for the examination of teachers. Five others † authorize the State Superintendent to issue certificates upon examination. All States having county supervision authorize the issue of certificates, limited as to time. In some cases the examination of candidates is in the hands of the county superintendent alone—in others he must call to his aid assistance of teachers holding the highest grade of certificate within the county. Some State Boards also call to their aid teachers holding State certificates or life diplomas. The tendency is toward better qualifications of teachers, through a more thorough examination of a professional character.

Normal schools, and colleges introducing into their curricula a course in "pedagogics," are in many cases favored with the acceptance of their diplomas as a sufficient warrant for the issue of certificates without examination. This provision has done much to induce better preparation on the part of teachers.

Another element in the evolution of an efficient supervision is found in the influence of specialization of labor in all industrial enterprises and in other departments of professional work. Men in control of educational affairs have been exceedingly conservative. They have followed rather than led public opinion. Efficient State supervision has done much to create leaders. State Superintendents

* California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Nevada, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Washington.

† Florida, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, and New York.

have done much toward organizing educational forces in "State Associations." County and town associations have followed. Associations of State Superintendents have within the past twenty-five years awakened a general interest in the cause of popular education, which needs only national recognition in the form of a "Department of Education" to secure the highest degree of efficiency. National recognition does not imply national control, but the unifying of systems and of the standards set in public education.

CHAPTER III.

CHARACTER OF SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

THE preceding chapter has presented school supervision in three distinct forms—*Incidental*, *Partial*, and *Professional.*

1. INCIDENTAL SUPERVISION.—Where boards of education, or school committees, or school trustees assume the work of supervision, it becomes to them a matter incident to their principal duties. The same is true of all State or county officers who by reason of their office are charged with the oversight of school funds, school management, or even of school instruction. An *ex officio* duty bears very lightly upon the thought of such officers. Supervision is extremely incidental. In a majority of cases it is purely accidental if any good results. Such officers are generally selected from the busy men of a State or municipality. Their province is legislative or judicial rather than executive.

They are concerned with the machinery, and pay little

heed to the qualifications of those who manage the machines. They determine salaries, but know very little about the worth of the service which the salaries secure. They listen to complaints and decide upon questions submitted to them. If the study of matters adjudicated gives them any insight into the fitness of one of the parties against whom complaint is most generally lodged—the teacher—the decision may prove extremely unjust, since the facts upon which judgment is rendered may be exceptional. Of the general character of the teacher, or of the peculiar circumstances of the case in question, they can have little knowledge. Except in very rare instances members of the board know nothing of the every-day work of the schools under their charge. An occasional visit upon parade days gives but slight indication of the value of service rendered. Some good results from incidental supervision are possible rather than probable. A step in the right direction is taken when some school is assigned to an individual committeeman, or when the secretary of the board is made superintendent of schools by virtue of his office. He gives his time to school supervision when not otherwise employed. His supervision is partial.

2. Partial Supervision.—A more common form of partial supervision is found as the gradation of schools progresses, in requiring of the principal some oversight in the work of his assistants. To this end he is allowed a little respite from teaching, if he can find the opportunity. As an executive officer he is clothed with authority for a small portion of his time, and for the remainder he is but an ordinary teacher of like position and responsibility with each of his assistants. He is selected rather on account of his ability in the class-room. His teaching is within a narrow range of studies. His preparation for that work is more intensive than extensive, and by so

much unfits him for the work of general supervision. The only hope of favorable results rests upon the selection of a principal who has come up through the various grades of school-work and whose experience fits him to supervise all grades of work. Progress in gradation, and the increasing tendency toward specialized labor, stand in the way of such a selection. A faint hope arises that the principal will make a study of the general work, and become theoretically if not practically fitted for oversight. The hope must be faint indeed unless his special work be neglected. Such neglect would soon cost him his place as teacher. No faithful teacher will find time for proper study of the entire range of school-work if the demands of his special work be fully met. So long as supervision is *mainly* incidental, it can be of little value. It is better than that which is *purely* incidental, and improves as less is required of the teacher and more of the superintendent in this dual relation. When the teaching becomes incidental, supervision is improved. Gradually in schools * of sufficient size the principal or master is released from teaching and becomes to his school a superintendent, devoting his entire time to the supervision of the work of his teachers; to the admission and assignment of pupils; to the general discipline of all pupils; to investigation of complaints against teachers by parents; to the oiling of bearings that friction may be reduced to its minimum; to the oversight of the sanitary conditions of his building as a whole or of separate rooms in the same; to the thorough comprehension of the parts of a school system with special

* The word "school," throughout this work is to be understood to mean the entire collection of teachers and pupils representing such grades in a school system as are within the walls of a single building or of several buildings upon the same lot, with one responsible head called "Principal" or "Master."

reference to their adaptation to the environment of his school; in short, to all the details of management and instruction, whereby the strictest economy and the highest degree of efficiency may be secured. Such a principal or master is virtually a superintendent under certain limitations essential to the unity of the schools of a municipality. With him partial supervision passes into "professional supervision."

3. PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION. — This is possible only in States, counties, and the more populous municipalities, since it implies the devotion of one's entire time to the work. It implies also special fitness in the superintendent, to be obtained only by the closest study and persistent devotion.

This subject of professional supervision is worthy a more exhaustive treatment than the limits of a single book will allow. One or two general statements, applicable alike to all kinds of professional supervision, may be made before considering the natural divisions of the subject. One very important feature in the office of the superintendent is that of gathering up excellent methods as he observes them, and of transferring them to soil in which they are quite sure to grow. He must know the seed and the soil. Here, one seed may be dropped to the germination of which the soil is specially adapted; there, another. By a slower process the soil may be changed, new methods of cultivation, more thorough working of the soil, new processes of fertilization are to be studied and applied, by one whose professional attainments insure success.

CHAPTER IV.

STATE SUPERVISION.

In the State, the more general interests of education, of school funds, of school laws, of school statistics, are considered.

The work of the State Superintendent, or Commissioner, or Secretary of the Board of Education (or by whatever other name he may be called), is largely advisory. He must be prepared to advise legislators and school officers of inferior grade as to best methods of administration. His knowledge of these methods is to be obtained from the comparative study of the school systems of other States and of other countries. The best for his own State is that which is most readily adaptable to the peculiar conditions obtaining in his own State. In no case can he transfer bodily what has proved eminently successful in another State, unless similar conditions prevail. Even then his personal fitness to administer the system transferred is an important factor. By frequent personal interviews with men interested in school management and school instruction he can best acquaint himself with conditions.

During sessions of the Legislature his place is in his office, where, by counsel, he can promote favorable legislation, and, by watchfulness, he can prevent the passage of acts born of personal caprice, and generally harmful even if locally advantageous. Through State associations of teachers and county organizations he can make his influence felt upon the public. The greatest bar to successful State supervision in the United States is found in the political character of the office, where the superintendent or commissioner is elected by the people. It involves

party nomination and party support. Availability as a candidate is considered as more important than ability as an officer. The nomination is generally the last upon the list, and will quite naturally go to appease some disappointed locality, or to heal some wound inflicted in previous nominations. The office is made the foot-ball between contending factions, and is at last permitted to go over the goal where the larger debts have accumulated. This view may, after all, be too highly colored to suit the actual condition of things where popular election prevails. The sober common sense of the people of all parties does appear to soften the tint. Well-fitted men are generally nominated; but availability has still much to do with the nomination. The success of the officer during his first term may secure his renomination, but it is often because such an act is supposed to "strengthen the ticket"—at all events, the term is limited. In a few years, after a faithful officer who has acquired a knowledge of his duties, and who is thereby better fitted to continue them, finds it necessary to yield to popular clamor for a change, a new man steps in to experiment after a new plan. Permanence in good plans is sacrificed; but the plan of the new officer may be an improvement upon that of his predecessor. This is the bright side of the election system. The dark side may be relieved, too, by considering that a change for the worse makes the responsibility for that change press home upon those who have wrought it, and the evil will correct itself. Popular election certainly educates the people up to a better understanding of what the office is; and if the officer has the good sense to divest himself of partisanship in the administration of the office, good service will result. The officer who feels himself called upon to account to the people and not to the party for the trust reposed in him will do better work

under popular election than under appointment, either *mediate*, as in the case of a secretary of a board of education, or *immediate*, when appointed by the Governor or Legislature of the State. Men fitted for the great work will do equally well under either system—election or appointment. The length of time their service is to continue will have little to do with the character of the work attempted. A limited term will stand in the way of success when work attempted requires long time for its development. The officer has it in his power to remove all suspicion of partisanship. It is certain that the superintendent of public instruction acts unwisely when he enters upon a political canvass for partisan ends. He should never appear "upon the stump." As a citizen, it is his duty to express his preference by his ballot, but there his privilege ends.

This by no means forbids his active efforts for the educational and moral elevation of the community in which he resides; nor does it prevent his participation in discussion of all topics upon which the intelligent and virtuous elements in a community are agreed without reference to party affiliations. Indifference upon such topics would mark him as unfit for the office he seeks. He should be known by his acts and his words as a man of probity of character, of sincere convictions upon great moral questions which concern the welfare of the State. To the people whose interests he serves he must be known as an exemplar in "whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report." If the fountain be corrupt, what assurance can there be that the stream will escape pollution?

The chief danger in our State superintendency of

schools lies in a lack of competent counsel from above itself. The "Bureau of Education" for the United States presents in embryo an opportunity of grand possibilities. It may become a power for unifying and inspiring State systems, as the State system, when properly administered, finds its best work done through the county or city or town officers, whereby it reaches the people and the teachers. The Bureau of Education for the United States has not had such full recognition of its possibilities as it deserves. It has collected many valuable statistics; but it has confined its commissioner to clerical work instead of placing him in the field where, by personal conference with State officers, by public addresses at State associations, the life-blood which digested statistics furnish shall be set to flowing through all parts of our national body. By reason of financial disabilities our educational food, both of foreign and of home production, has been supplied in crude form—not fresh from the fields—and too often cast aside as unpalatable. A people professedly relying upon popular education for its perpetuity should not longer be without a fountain from which wisdom may be drawn for the guidance of State officers. It is not too much to expect a liberal recognition of an office which may be made of such great value to the States.

The control of educational affairs has been very wisely left to the States; but national life has been endangered through lack of unity in the acceptance of the trust. There is needed a moral influence which shall bring to the execution of the trust the best thought and the purest devotion of the several States. Such a moral influence lies within the Bureau of Education, and, if its channels be opened, it will be felt.

What are the elements prominent in a successful State Superintendent?

1. A thorough comprehension of what is embraced in the term "popular education." This can be obtained only from the study of popular movements in the direction of public education, and of their practical results in the quickening of intellectual life, in the development of industries, in the improvement of social manners, and in the elevation of the moral tone of the community.

2. The ability to convert his knowledge into force. What he has learned by study he must be able to sift—casting aside all that is not available under the conditions surrounding his work. He must know his environment and what it will bear. He must comprehend clearly the fact that even the best for his State may not be immediately applicable, and can only be secured through a slow process of change in public sentiment. Seeing the end from the beginning, he will make no false step, nor any step which is not toward the end sought. If he can not go as far as he would in a day, he will go toward the end of his journey. Hence—

3. He must possess tact in the control of men, through whom he can secure the passage of desired measures. To this end he should be a natural leader whose ability to lead shall be recognized, while his method of leadership is concealed, and he seems to be doing the will of others, though that will is in fact the reflex of his own will fashioned after frequent conferences. He will give advice in no dogmatic style, but in such simplicity as to carry conviction. No legislator likes to be directed as to his course, but there are few whom the superintendent may not win by a straightforward presentation of his views, sustained by arguments which he leaves the legislator time to consider, without apparent anxiety as to the time he may take for such consideration.

This exercise of tact in no wise conflicts with organ-

izing victory through those who are already in accord with the superintendent's views. With a well-organized force in hand he displays tact in winning recruits. The superintendent should not appear too prominent in legislative halls, but may be constant in his attendance upon committee meetings, when he will further his purposes by letting alone small matters which can have no effect upon the general cause. Too much intermeddling in indifferent matters will weaken his influence upon essentials.

With a clear view of what he wishes to accomplish, he will support all measures bearing favorably upon it, and he will oppose all measures directly antagonistic to it. Such measures he may be sure will be presented for legislative action, for upon no other subject does the average legislator feel so competent to act as upon his local school interests. It must be admitted that in such matters his opinions are entitled to weight, but local interests are often prejudicial to general interests, and the wise superintendent will know what to oppose as well as what to favor. His knowledge and his tact will be needed in fullest exercise during the sessions of the Legislature, and at other times in so informing the people through public addresses or through the mouths of county or town school officers as to prevent the presentation of improper bills for legislative action. Through the press, also, he should often be heard upon the proper administration of the law as it exists, as well as upon needed modifications. To this end—

4. He should be a man capable of presenting clearly and convincingly his views both by voice and by pen. Learned addresses are not needed so much as plain talks face to face with the people. Such opportunities are given in most States through county or district conventions.

5. He should possess a judicial mind. Much of his work is judicial in character. He comes in contact with the litigious elements of the population, which find free field for their exercise in the school district. Questions of taxation—of school-house location—arouse strong controversy. Division of districts or union of districts is not always settled without bitter contests. In many States causes are tried before county superintendents, and in all these States appeal may be taken to the State Superintendent. Much of his time is taken up in hearing and weighing evidence. In matters affecting the rights of teachers, who have been denied certificates of qualification, or whose certificates, once given, have been canceled, the State Superintendent becomes the court of last resort.

All other conditions being favorable, one who has sat upon the bench will make a good State officer. The chances are that, in preparation for the legal profession, he has had experience as a teacher, so that he is sufficiently familiar with the practical operations of the school law; and his knowledge of law in general, and of methods of interpretation, as well as his familiarity with decisions upon matters presented to him for adjudication, will make him a ready and a safe judge in school contests. Such an officer comprehends readily the status of the school law, which is often amended, and with its contradictory provisions puzzles the best of school officers. Such an officer is the best adviser to the legislative authority.

6. He should be a thorough student of all social problems, especially those that pertain to the industrial life which embraces the great majority of those for whose benefit schools are organized.

Sitting at the fountain, he is expected to direct the channels to "the greatest good of the greatest number." He has a clearer insight into general needs, can detect

shams, provide against excess of conservatism, and check excessive radicalism.

7. He must be patriotic but not partisan. Schools exist because the country demands intelligent and virtuous citizens. The development of such citizens begins with the child. The child looks to the teacher; the teacher to the superintendent, by favor of whose judgment he holds a teacher's place; the superintendent to his superior officer. Place-seeking may prevail through the chain of influences until the child seeks favor rather than reward of merit. A partisan State officer may disgust his subordinates, but he is more likely to lead them into crooked ways and obtain their too zealous support of his measures, or, on the other hand, their firm opposition upon mere partisan grounds. Teachers adopt the methods of their superiors in place-hunting. The subtle virus finds a lodgment, and the whole school system is corrupt to the core. These last conditions may obtain in cities and counties, even where the State officer is as pure and patriotic and as non-partisan as it is possible for him to be. But if the head be right, well-balanced, and strong, the members are less liable to go astray.

8. He must be a man of high moral worth, of incorruptible integrity. The Christian Church has much to do with shaping the school policy of this country. It has ever been its fast friend, even after losing control. The clergy have had many representatives in school superintendencies. They have maintained the necessity of moral and religious instruction in schools, but sectarianism has no more place than partisanship in their administration. Any State Superintendent is recreant to his trust who does not encourage the inculcation of religious precepts, such as reverence for God, filial piety, respect for law and for the rights of others, personal chastity in word and act,

justice, temperance, and all kindred virtues. Personal example wanting will make him worse than recreant to trust—a positive evil force which can not be too deeply deprecated nor too speedily removed.

Danger of too great church influence in school matters is not so much to be feared as too little positive religious influence.

In closing this chapter, no fitter words can be uttered than the following:

"For the wisdom and strength which shall combine permanence with progress, guard our school organizations from crude conceits, infuse heart and vitality into mechanical methods of teaching, and secure a steady unfolding of well-matured plans, we must look principally to the superintendent. If he is himself weak in character and variable in judgment, no constituted power or authority can protect the schools from the inundation of shams which threaten them."*

CHAPTER V.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY.

COUNTY superintendents are quite generally elected by the people. They are more susceptible to the bad effect of political management than are State officers. The quality of those selected to fill the office of county superintendent is often inferior to that of those selected for State office. Two prominent causes for a less careful selection

* City Superintendent John E. Bradley, Minneapolis.

may be cited: 1. In many counties the duties of the office employ only part of the time of the officer. 2. The control of the salary is in the hands of county boards anxious to make a good financial record for themselves, and who have less knowledge of what is essential to good schools than to good roads and bridges. Partisan methods of selection are more likely to prevail, because of the low estimate put upon the office. Through political intrigue unworthy men are sometimes foisted into the office. For many years after the introduction of the system, it was on trial, often by men who had known only the town system of the older States, and many of whom looked with disfavor upon the innovation. But in the newer States the county assumed more of political importance, became the unit of legislative, judicial, and congressional districts. Roads and bridges came under county supervision. Taxes were levied and collected by county officers. Towns became but subdivisions of counties. Though at first the control and supervision of schools was retained by the towns or districts after the older pattern, the tendency toward county management of other affairs had its influence upon school matters as well. A large and intelligent minority were quite unwilling to surrender their cherished methods of school control. County supervision had therefore to win its way into favor against strong opposition. It has been attacked in many States, but successfully only in three States. Michigan tried the system for eight years and then changed its policy, but has virtually returned to it in the establishment of a County Board of Examiners, made up from township boards. Mississippi has permitted the county superintendency to become a nullity. So also has Nevada.

Of the twenty-four States formed from the public domain, eighteen now maintain the county superintendency.

Three, as above, have allowed it to pass into disuse. Of the three remaining States, Arkansas and Ohio have county examiners and Louisiana a parish organization. It may, therefore, be said that the county system in the newer States is practically universal. Of the thirteen original States—Georgia, Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Virginia maintain a county system in some form; New York has a district system (each district embracing part of a county or an entire county).

Of the five States admitted to the Union without a period of territorial tutelage, Kentucky, Tennessee, Vermont, and West Virginia have the county superintendency or its equivalent.

Thus it appears that of the forty-two States, old and new, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Nevada, and Rhode Island rely upon the town system. Mississippi has neither county nor town organization, and Michigan a union of the two.

The county superintendency of schools may, therefore, be considered as a settled feature in the policy of school management in the United States. Since the period of trial is passed, measures have been taken for its improvement. Popular approval has led to a wiser selection and to better support of those elected. In no department of school administration has there been a more marked advance within the last twenty-five years. State Superintendents have found the county superintendency a most efficient channel in reaching the people of the States—especially in reaching minor officers who are charged with the detailed management of school affairs. A State convention of county superintendents gives the State Superintendent a fine opportunity for learning the needs of various parts of the State, and for timely counsel and personal aid

to those who struggle under embarrassment in their work. District conventions of the superintendents of several counties enable the State Superintendent to concentrate his thought and effort upon needs of a particular portion of the State affected by like conditions. To these district conventions school trustees and directors are welcomed. Following the larger plan, the county superintendent feeling the inspiration of State and district conventions, organizes a county convention for conference with teachers and school officers, and then comes nearer to the public in conventions for subdivisions of his county, larger or smaller, as his time and the convenience of the people may dictate.

Out of this feature of the work of the county superintendent has grown up in many States a system of "County Institutes" for teachers, developing into brief normal schools for instruction of teachers and for the dissemination of the latest and best educational thought. Through these "Normal Institutes" the State Superintendent is able to reach a majority of the teachers of the State in the course of a year.

The county superintendency is like the State superintendency in its advisory character. Much that has been said of the elements essential to a good State Superintendent is fully applicable to the county superintendent.

But a new feature appears in the work of the county superintendent which gives to him a most vital connection with the schools of the State. He passes upon the qualifications of teachers, and thus determines what influences shall prevail in the school-room. He has an indirect control of the influences which are to shape the intellectual, moral, and physical lives of thousands of children. Not only does he guard the entrance to the school-room, but by constant supervision he is enabled to correct his earlier judgments if they need correction.

It is very desirable, if not essential to his highest success, that the county superintendent shall have been a successful teacher. Some States require county superintendents to be possessors of high-grade teachers' certificates. Other States demand the organization of a County Board of Examiners, composed of one or more teachers of high grade who act with the superintendent. Some States authorize the State Superintendent to prepare questions to be submitted to candidates for examination.

But by none of these devices is the need of practical acquaintance with the details of school-work on the part of the county superintendent one whit abated.

Through close observation and careful study, one who has never been a teacher may become an excellent superintendent; but how much greater would have been his efficiency if, from the beginning of his work, he had possessed the knowledge which he has acquired in the service! A second term of service shows the benefit of practical knowledge.

The county superintendent collects and transmits statistics to the State officer. He also acts in a judicial capacity when disputes arise within his jurisdiction as to organization of districts, to location of school-houses, to refusal of certificates to unqualified or unworthy candidates for the teacher's office, and to the annulment of certificates already granted. His decisions are subject to appeal to the State Superintendent.

In some of the more populous counties the supervision of schools by the county superintendent is purely professional, the entire time of the officer being required in the performance of his duties. In many counties it loses its professional character so far as the work of instruction is concerned, and becomes largely a clerical office, all that remains of a professional character being the examination

of teachers. In this duty, however, if well performed, the cause of popular education finds advancement.

In some States, the work of examination of teachers, who are candidates for a higher grade of certificate than the ordinary county or town certificate, is committed to a State Board of Examiners, of which board the State Superintendent of Public Instruction is, *ex officio*, a member. As this higher certificate is considered to be more nearly professional in its character and weight, it is inferred that the certificates granted by county officers are not evidence of professioual standing of the teachers who hold them.

While in populous counties there is sometimes more than one superintendent, the need of such a division will lessen as the office becomes of such importance as to employ the entire time of the officer.

At the same time it will appear to sparsely settled counties impossible to employ the full time of a superintendent. Such counties might be united, and thus secure better service; or a thinly populated county may, for a time, be attached to a more populous neighbor. But either of these devices should be only temporary in character, awaiting such a population as will be able to secure the service of a man competent to act in a professional capacity.

As a county superintendent comes nearer to the people than the State Superintendent, so is he better able to consider the details of school management, and in conference with school officers to bring about such changes as will make schools more effective.

In one direction there is a decidedly advanced movement. It is toward a change in the unit of school organization in States where the district system obtains. This movement is most pronounced in States having the county superintendency. The best county superintendents rec-

ognize the need of some system of gradation of schools as essential to their economical administration. Under the district system this gradation is difficult of attainment through lack of numbers. Under a township system the possibility of gradation is well-nigh universal. For the younger pupils more convenient and suitable buildings may be constructed, to a portion of which may be assigned the older pupils in numbers sufficient to form classes of respectable size. For "high school" purposes a building centrally located may contain additional rooms. Failing enough pupils to make a high-school department effective for a town, a "county high school" may be organized which shall serve also the additional purpose of normal instruction to those preparing for the work of teaching.

In the county high school the county superintendent will find an excellent opportunity for giving instruction during part of his time. His knowledge of the needs of his county schools will render his instruction most effective. A brief term, in which "didactics" shall occupy the chief place, will take the place of the county institute.

Through examination of teachers the county superintendent will do his best work. "Graded certificates" are provided for by law. The desire for the lowest grade which will open the way to appointment will prevail in the minds of the majority of applicants. This desire should be curbed by affixing to the number of such certificates a limit agreeing with the necessities of the schools. If there are teachers enough holding the highest grade of certificate to supply the schools of the county, wisdom would dictate either the withholding of lower-grade certificates or the raising of the standard of qualifications. No two counties are precisely alike in conditions. A high-grade certificate in one county may be equivalent to a low-grade certificate in another, under circumstances which time

and careful supervision alone can change. There can be nothing like absolute uniformity throughout any State in grades of certificates; but there may be a uniform purpose to raise the standard of qualifications in every county. Conferences of county superintendents may lead to agreement as to the minimum requirements, with a wide-open path for advance as circumstances warrant. The advance will depend very largely upon the tact and the spirit of the county superintendent. The question of indorsing each other's certificates in lieu of an examination must meet with a decided negative except in rare instances of exactly similar conditions, and in cases of perfect mutual understanding between officers. Even in these latter cases it is better for the candidate to present papers written for another county for the inspection of the superintendent of the county, in which application for indorsement of certificate is made.

As schools improve under efficient supervision, the majority of schools will be able to secure teachers holding "first-grade certificates." For character of examination in this class of applicants the suggestions made under the head of examination of teachers in the chapters upon city supervision are applicable.

"There is, as has been suggested, a profession of teaching, but it contains very few members relatively to the great body of those who teach. What shall be the plan of examination by which these members receive their final papers admitting them to membership is of small consequence. They have earned their membership, and are probably recognized as members without regard to State examinations. But there is an immensely large class who are in different stages of preparation for the teaching profession. What can the superintendents and examiners do through their examinations to urge this

class to a better preparation for their work? I think there is a slowly increasing recognition from year to year that something important can be done. The superintendent first employs the examination to elevate the scholarship of the teacher. A majority of those who begin to teach are disgracefully ignorant of the subjects in which they are employed to give instruction. And yet every community, within certain limits, must furnish its own teachers of its schools. No other arrangement would satisfy the people. After the teacher has reached a certain grade of scholarship, then the superintendent can cease to urge this point, and can place a series of inducements before these teachers to make a more thorough study of professional subjects. The plan usually adopted is to excuse the teacher from further scholastic tests, provided he passes satisfactory examinations in certain lines of professional reading. By some such mode as this the examination may become the means of elevating the standard of acquirements of those teachers who stay in the work long enough to be influenced by it." *

In visiting the schools of a county the superintendent should be guided more by the needs of the schools than by his own pleasure. To this end he will visit most frequently those schools whose teachers need the most advice, and, if time fails, neglect those which are most efficiently managed and taught.

The inefficient school sometimes needs less supervision than do the officers of the district. Conference with officers, and securing the company of one or more as he visits the school, will open the way for improvement where the teacher is not so much at fault as the officers.

* George P. Brown, National Council of Education, Proceedings, 1889, p. 27.

Frequent evening meetings, to which parents are invited, will furnish an excellent channel through which the influence of the superintendent may flow.

The most efficient aid will be found in the weekly press of the county. It reaches many homes and has a healthful influence. By a judicious use of the superintendent's column, officers may become acquainted with their duties and responsibilities under the school law; they may learn what is done elsewhere under conditions even less favorable than their own; better school-houses will be planned, better seating furnished, better lighting, heating, and ventilation secured, and all without increased expense to the people; the needed qualifications of teachers will be better understood; their own excellences may properly be known to others, and a laudable ambition be stimulated; their own failings may be portrayed in the better state of things existing in some neighboring district, and their pride be touched without offense, as their own short-comings are not published abroad; the merits of special illustrative apparatus or of text-books may be judiciously presented. This last item needs very wise handling, but the duty of purchase rests upon school officers, and should never be delegated to teachers. The duty presses with greater force when free text-books are furnished pupils at public cost. In all these channels the superintendent should be a wise pilot. Accepting his responsibility, and using the press and public address and private conference, as the means of discharging his duty, he will find a rich reward in the progress of the schools supervised.

CHAPTER VI.

CITY SUPERVISION.

In a few States without county supervision methods of supervision are so closely allied to those of city supervision that no separate treatment is deemed necessary.

This form of professional supervision is of a different character from that of either of the forms already considered. Its field of operation is narrower. Its chief province lies in supervision of the work of instruction. The organization of school boards in cities makes it unnecessary as well as undesirable that the city superintendent should have anything to do with matters pertaining to financial management. He considers the qualification of teachers, examines critically the work they perform; attempts to secure the most efficient service; and leaves much of the machinery of school support, and school equipment with material appliances, to the Board of Education or school directors or trustees. For the instruction and discipline of pupils he assumes responsibility, since in an important sense teachers are his agents acting under his direction and constant supervision. Here is the vital organism. Financial support, buildings, apparatus, and all material appliances are essential as air and light are to the body. "Courses of study" are the necessary food. Methods of instruction are the preparation of that food for proper digestion and assimilation.

It is important that a city superintendent of schools be well versed in school appliances. As an adviser he can be greatly helpful. His familiarity with the most approved plans in school-house architecture; with the best style of school seats and desks; with the most effective methods of warming and ventilating school buildings;

with the most suitable apparatus for illustration of subjects taught; with the best text-books for the schools he supervises, will make him the better officer, even though he be free from the necessity of attending to details of construction, of selection, and of purchase. All these items have a direct connection with his chief work, since teachers are more efficient under favorable external conditions, and pupils advance more rapidly when their comfort in the school-room is promotive of good health and of consequent vigorous mental activity.

But more and more is he narrowed in his work to the department of school instruction.

In pursuance of the main purpose of this work, the qualifications of a city superintendent; the various relations he sustains to pupils, teachers, parents, and the school board; his responsibilities in physical and moral training of pupils; his connection with the government and discipline of pupils, and his duty of securing the greatest efficiency and economy in processes of instruction through proper gradation and promotion of pupils, will be treated in separate chapters.

CHAPTER VII.

CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS—HIS QUALIFICATIONS.

City superintendency of schools may be considered as a prism with polygonal bases. One face is turned toward the material appliances used in school-work; one toward school authorities; another toward the people at large;

another toward the patrons of the schools; still another toward the teachers; the last and most important of all toward the pupils.

Each superintendent will be known by the character of the polygonal base of the prism which he constructs. It may be extremely irregular, and the longer side the one of least vital importance. One superintendent may plume himself upon the architectural beauty of the school buildings and upon the interior finish, the furniture, the lighting, warming, and ventilation; upon the apparatus-cases and library-shelves; upon well-graded and pleasantly shaded grounds. These are important, but it is possible to lengthen this side of the base to such a degree as to make the prism unsightly and unstable.

Another may devote his time to securing the favor of the men to whom he owes his position. Much time is spent socially, under the pretense of consulting his superiors upon matters of minor importance. He becomes an echo of "leading members" of the board, looking more to their favor than to the interests of the schools. As an adviser to the board he but does his duty. As an executive officer of the board it is right that he receive their directions and carry out faithfully their commands. If his advice is not followed, loyalty to the board demands acquiescence, as the responsibility is not his if plans miscarry. But this acquiescence and obedience are very different from a slavish submission to their opinions in the attempt to gain favor.

Another enlarges the face turned toward the people, and parades the cheapness of his administration as a pleasant contemplation for tax-payers. It is much to be regretted that the popular pulse, which lies in the pocket, must be under the finger of the superintendent, especially where efficiency is measured by expense. Extravagance

in expenditure must be avoided; but the superintendent whose chief merit lies in bringing expenditure below that of other municipalities proclaims his failure to secure the best results from the means at his disposal, though his economy may be loudly praised by the people he has served.

Another studies the whims of parents, listens to complaints against teachers, hears *ex parte* testimony, and too readily seeks to lengthen this line of his base.

To the opposite extreme moves the man whose sympathies are in advance pledged to teachers; who acts as if he considered schools established for the benefit of teachers.

If the lengthening of any line of the base is admissible, it is that upon which pupils are arranged. The superintendent who manages his schools for the benefit of pupils can not go far astray.

But material appliances—money, financial management, parental co-operation, the best course of study most faithfully pursued by well-qualified teachers—are all essential to the success of the schools as measured by the benefits which pupils receive. For none of these elements is the superintendent solely responsible. For them all is he in a measure responsible. The measure of responsibility culminates in the work of instruction and discipline, teachers and pupils being respectively the subjective and objective aids to his success.

The superintendent, who has the right views of his duties as they are pressed upon him from all sides of his work, will obliterate lateral edges and make of his prism a cylinder. It is desirable that it be a hollow cylinder, into which his own life is poured all aglow as into a mold. All lines of separation in the parts of his work will disappear. The true superintendent will care less to be seen than to

be felt. He will give the attention due to each of the relations he sustains—to the board, the people, the patrons, the teachers, the pupils—in self-forgetfulness.

Filling his office, he will respond in his life to every part with absolute fidelity. He will display minute acquaintance with the best material appliances; wisdom in guiding authorities by intelligent counsel and in following faithfully the results of their deliberations, even when not in exact accord with counsel given; an intelligent regard for public opinion and for the public purse; a thoughtful consideration for the wishes of patrons—not compliant always, but ever complaisant; a just but kindly criticism of teachers, upon whose qualifications he has passed an impartial judgment, sympathetic and helpful; a love of child-life, a clear insight into child-nature, a memory of child-experience, a devotion to child-interest, and a determination to make all work center in the good of the pupil.

"A school superintendent by virtue of his position has the oversight and general management of several schools with the power of direction. He is an *examiner*, that he may inquire into and determine all matters pertaining to qualifications of teachers and pupils. He is an *inspector*, to ascertain the quality of the teaching, the character of the management, to detect whatever may be wrong in matter or method, and to point out the means for correction. He is a *supervisor*, that he may oversee carefully, advise wisely, and organize and direct intelligently. A real superintendent must be more than a teacher—more even than a merely skilled teacher."*

The brief summary of a superintendent's duties, as given in this chapter, needs elaboration.

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* N. A. Calkins, New York, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Education, vol. ii, p. 500.

In the evolution of the city superintendency of schools as population has increased, much, that in smaller cities and towns falls under the oversight and direction of the superintendent, is passed over to other officers. In the largest cities there are now superintendents of buildings and repairs; superintendents of engineers and janitors; architects and supply agents; clerks and paymasters, who attend to the salaries of teachers; and, where compulsory laws prevail, truant officers or school police. The superintendent of schools is thus free to devote his time to matters of instruction.

CHAPTER VIII.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO PUPILS.

For the child the school exists. The need of the child enforces its right to exist.

The little factors in this problem of education are too often eliminated by substitution, and the values of other factors are first determined. The conditions of the problem ought to be stated so that a single unknown quantity will suffice for its solution.

The quantities that are known, or that at least may be readily determined, such as buildings, furniture, and other material appliances; books, systems, methods of instruction, of administration, and other agencies; intelligence, tact, character, and other spiritual forces of parents and teachers—all should be gathered into one member of the equation, that the value of the school to the child may be determined.

Blind guessing at this value has been too much the practice in the past. Within a few years a very thorough study of child-life has occupied the thought of some of the leading minds in the world of philosophy. Psychology is no longer limited to the phenomena of adult life. The child's mind is recognized as worthy of philosophic study. Into this realm, as yet but little explored, the superintendent of schools should be prepared to lead his teachers. The superintendent fails signally in his work unless his clear insight into the nature of the child is daily quickened by close observation; and still greater is his failure unless his observations properly digested are communicated to those who come into more immediate relation to the pupils. From his less intimate personal relation to the child, the superintendent is presumed to have better opportunities for judging of means and of the method of their use.

The value of the school to the child depends much upon the efficiency of outer forces in calling into exercise the inner forces of the child. One of these inner forces is commonly called *curiosity*. It is an instinctive desire to know. This is too often smothered or entirely crushed out, whereas it should be fostered and wisely curbed. To this end the course of study and the methods of instruction should contribute. Through both these the superintendent guards the interests of the pupil, in counseling the authorities who determine the former and in leading the teachers who pursue the latter.

The end sought should be the nourishment and building up of the inner life of the child. To this the outer life as apparent in bodily posture and movement will conform, and in some degree will also render important service. But that supervision which looks more to outward form than to inward activity makes an *end* of that which

should be a *means*. Earnestness, the result of mental activity, may sometimes overleap all rules of propriety, and the child may forget for the time that he has a foot which should keep the line, or a hand that bears a certain proper relation to his book or to his side. The same neglect of proper position may be the result of mental sluggishness or of physical exuberance. The difference should be recognized instantly before the process of correction begins. The cause of restlessness or of unusual activity being known, the cure is more properly applied. No attempt at cure should be made until a thorough diagnosis has opened the way for an intelligent application of remedies.

Eager to know, the child will at first naturally be quiescent. His eagerness is in complete possession of his powers, and holds them in control as best adapted to the receptive stage. A good story-teller can illustrate the truth of this statement.

Soon after another element in child-life, essential to his inner growth, asserts itself and breaks the spell of silence: it is the *desire to tell what he knows*. Under the sway of this force he is overpowered, his mind is all aglow, and the fire should not be quenched by the cold water from the well of Turveydrop. Little confidences misdirected, or unduly encouraged, grow into larger gossip. Properly directed they strengthen mental grasp. A good thought well and clearly expressed is fixed by expression. It is thus securely built into the mental structure. Frequent opportunity must be given the child to use his material as soon as he becomes possessed of it. His knowledge is fragmentary: expression helps to connect the parts. It is crude: expression gives it form. It is in its entirety of little value: expression retains the wheat and winnows out the chaff. Knowledge is in the beginning

the result of sense-perception: expression develops internal perception—both are essential to mental growth.

The child's desire to tell should have as frequent opportunity for gratification as his desire to know.

Closely allied to the child's desire to tell what he has learned is his *desire to do what others have done.* Imitation is a prominent faculty in the child. He "learns to do by doing," as in giving utterance to ideas he learns to think by thinking aloud. In the past there has been too much suppression of curiosity, of conversation, of activity. Direction rather than suppression is the rule of to-day. The injunction "Little children should be seen, not heard," has done much harm. Wise supervision will see that a time for hearing the child finds a place in the programme of school exercises. The child, too, may be seen at his work in proper time. Curiosity keeps sense-perception awake. Opportunity for communicating the results of observation will quicken mental perception. Success in imitation encourages the child and strengthens his habit of observation. The senses are trained; the tongue is active, but under control; the hand acquires deftness and skill. Kindergarten exercises are the incipient steps in right education, which converts seeing into knowing, makes telling a reflex influence upon thinking, and changes imitation by degrees into invention.

The superintendent must acquaint himself with these incipient steps, and know clearly those that follow. When he enters a school-room of little children, he must observe what may be called the business attitude of teacher and pupils; converse familiarly with the pupils, and thus learn their habits of expression; inspect their work at their desks or upon the blackboard, correcting faults by passing them by, that he may have time to commend their good work; call the attention of all to the special excellence of

the work of one, thus stimulating imitation. The most important work of the superintendent is done in the lowest grades of school-work, for there is given direction to the entire student-life. In these grades there must be the best teaching possible. In the interest of the little folks the superintendent will do his best work. His broadest culture, through which he may impress himself upon his teachers, must not suppress in him a sweet, child-like spirit when in the presence of children. Though a man, long since having put away childish things, he must still think as a child, speak as a child, seeing the little ones before him not "as in a glass, darkly, but face to face."

The fact that he seldom comes into direct communication with the same children gives to his visit a peculiar significance. It is remembered as an inspiration if he reaches their affections; as an unmitigated wrong if he has awakened their fears; as a simple waste of time if no impression is left.

Little children are intensely partisan. They love warmly; they hate bitterly. Rarely are they indifferent to their teachers. Hearty approval of the teacher by the superintendent, where it can be given, will quicken the little ones' confidence and will make the teacher's influence over them a molding power for good. On the other hand, he should not betray by look or word any dissatisfaction with the teacher in the presence of the children, lest through their keen eyes and acute hearing they come to distrust one whose life and work are so large factors in the building of their character. The formative period in the school-life of the embryo citizen is the important period. If time fails the superintendent to make a complete examination of all the work he is to supervise, he will consult best the interests of pupils in neglecting the higher grades. He can not afford to neglect the lowest.

As he finds need of and obtains assistance, his selection and assignment of such assistants should have chief reference to the needs of the little ones. If personally competent for the supervision of primary work, he should by all means retain that as his share.

The special relation of the superintendent to the pupils of the lowest grades is that of intelligent sympathy, of providing skillful gardeners, who shall guard the tender shoots against the chill of neglect, the heat of forceful processes, the flood of theories, and the smothering of noxious weeds. He must be strong enough to resist the prevalent theory that an inexperienced teacher will find primary work the best field in which to gain experience; and that one who knows comparatively little is best prepared to teach little children. Nurserymen are skilled horticulturists. When seeds have developed into plants of sufficient strength to bear transplanting, then less knowledge may suffice for the care of the shrubs or the trees. No nurseryman finds time for the plucking of fruit. As pupils advance in grade, if well rooted and pruned, they may be expected to bear fruit. By examinations, the fruit will appear. Upon the supervision of older pupils, reference must be made to chapters upon "Examination and Promotion" of pupils.

This note is suggested in what has been said. That superintendent is best fitted for the oversight of other people's children who can make a home study of children; next him, one who has been a teacher of children.

CHAPTER IX.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO TEACHERS.

1. LEADERSHIP.—That the superintendent may be an efficient leader, he must be conscious of ability to lead. His fitness to lead must be recognized. These two principles coexistent will insure a solid foundation for the first and a sound reason for the second. In conscious ability is strength. In recognized ability there is an opportunity for the exercise of strength. Leadership implies better acquaintance with the work required of teachers than they themselves possess. This better acquaintance must be everywhere apparent; it should be the outcome of experience. Hence it is better that the superintendent be chosen from the ranks of professional teachers. Theorizing the most attractive, the most plausible, even, will not satisfy the demand. Nor will practice in a narrow field prepare the superintendent for his wider duties. A wide and varied experience gives vigor to consciousness of power—a prime element in successful leadership. Experience in all grades of school-work is desirable—most of all desirable in the instruction of young children. But past experience will avail little unless the results of more recent experience are fully understood—accepted, so far as they are improvements, and used as modifications of theories founded upon what has proved best in the past. His ability grows only as it roots itself anew in soil freshly prepared by the best thinkers of the present. Each year's service will show change in methods of work. Mental faculties are essentially the same, but environment changes. New avenues are opened for the mind to traverse. New methods of approach must be learned. New motives to

activity take the place of the old, or are superinduced, and thus the old are more effective. A superintendent who would lead his teachers in a path the best known a generation ago will be a blind leader of the blind. A child's environment of to-day demands for him a greater variety of mental food. The style of cookery of the staple food is constantly changing. He who leads his teachers year after year over the well-worn paths without deviation proves his unfitness for leadership. Every progressive railway corporation changes its line or grade of track, improves its rolling-stock, to meet the demands of greater traffic and increased travel. Its chief engineer constantly studies methods of improvement in road-bed; its master-builder plans for better structures suited to changed conditions. Less wisdom should not characterize school management. Caution may be needed lest change be made for no other reason than desire for change. Experimenting is proper if there is a reasonable prospect of a good result. A dreamer is not a safe leader. A wide-awake leader will be progressive.

But a leader, though familiar with details, can not afford to be burdened with them. He must generalize—grasp principles which underlie the detailed work assigned to his teachers. It is his province to plan the campaign, to assign to each division of his forces its respective position and duty, indicating the results desired, and leaving the minutiæ to the discretion and loyalty of his subordinates.

2. CONFIDENCE.—Confidence is a plant of slow growth; it springs from knowledge of character and ability in the person to whom confidence is extended. This knowledge is derived, first, from examination; second, from trial; third, from continued inspection of work done.

(*a.*) *Examination.* — A keen-sighted superintendent

will read much of character and of special fitness for the work of teaching in the personal presence and address of the candidate. Manners and dress, language and address, will not escape his attention, and will have their influence upon his final judgment. Letters of commendation will be accorded their due weight—greater or less, as the writers are known and their relations to the candidate are understood. As a rule, such letters are of little value, except as letters of formal introduction. References are much to be preferred.

Letters from superintendents should have professional weight. For this reason, superintendents should be extremely careful, in giving such letters, to state frankly what they know from personal acquaintance of the qualifications of those to whom such letters are given. Yielding to temptation to equivocate, or to leave the impression that something may be read between the lines, is unworthy the true superintendent. Fear of giving offense may make the temptation irresistible. It is better to deny the favor than to resort to duplicity. Circumstances of an unfavorable character may stand in the way of success in one place, and may be avoided in another. The statement of facts, with modifying circumstances also fairly stated, can do no harm either to the person carrying or to the person receiving such a letter. No recommendation will take the place of a personal examination.

Examinations, however, convey to most minds the idea of a test of intellectual acquirements by a process of question and answer. There are two forms of such examinations—the oral and the written. The oral may be used in single instances; but, as applicants are quite generally numerous, economy of time favors the written form. Another reason for written examinations lies in the fact that the candidate leaves a permanent record, to which appeal

may be made in case of dispute as to the fairness of judgment rendered by the superintendent. Still another reason appears in the fact that more time is given to the preparation of questions, and a better opportunity is furnished for the revision of answers. The stronger reason for adopting the written form is in the interest of the candidate. More time is allowed for the study of a question and for deliberating upon the proper answer.

A self-possessed candidate of natural quickness of thought may show to better advantage under an oral examination. But candidates are generally strangers to each other and to the examiner; their position causes some embarrassment, and a written examination is more favorable under such conditions.

A combination of the two forms is better than the pursuit of either alone. They supplement each other. One who knows and can not tell, may write; one who finds the pen a bar to thought, may find relief in speech. Both classes have the favorable opportunity. The trying conditions under which candidates are placed in times of examination will suggest to the superintendent such helps as the following: A familiar conversation, at first, upon school management; upon different methods of instruction in some one subject; approval of methods suggested, so far as they merit approval, with silence upon crude suggestions, will put candidates at their ease in a measure. The papers placed before them first will be blanks for registration. They should be as simple as possible, requiring only a brief record, personal and professional. Care should then be taken to place before candidates the list of questions most easily answered. It gives courage at the outset of a contest to provide for a victory. Other papers may then be presented with reference to the time allotted. There may be throughout an

understanding that the questions need not be considered *seriatim* if the answers be plainly marked to correspond with the numbering of the questions. Any list of questions that can be proposed will be found to vary widely in difficulty. The variation will be by no means uniform when tested by an entire class of candidates. What may prove simple to one will be found difficult by another. If each question is made of equal importance to every other, as determined by the mark affixed to the answer, the right of selection of those most easily answered by the candidate will prove helpful in the result.

The better plan is to give different weight to the several questions answered, so that the result may rest less upon the number of questions answered, than upon the values of those attempted. If correct answer to one question be valued at five upon a scale of one hundred, another at ten or fifteen or twenty, and all be so arranged that the totals of values of all answers shall not exceed one hundred, the least important questions may be omitted, and time be gained thereby for the consideration of those to whose answers the greater values are attached. This assumes a time limit upon each set of questions.

This limit should be generous even to a fault. Here the question arises, What shall be done with the rapid workers, who need not the full time allotted to the subject? If an assistant can be trusted with the oversight of the room, the superintendent may properly take such persons into another room for oral examination. When this plan is not feasible, a list of questions upon theory and practice may be handed to all candidates at the outset of the examination. To these the quick workers may address themselves in the time remaining for allotted work. To some a few minutes only remain, but some important thought may arise upon inspection of the questions, even

if nothing be written. No papers should be left in the hands of candidates during intermission except the one upon theory and practice. Conversation upon topics suggested therein can do no harm, and it may be very helpful to those who can write only upon the theory side.

It is desirable that some blackboard work be required of all candidates. It will show clearly the habits of presentation, a most important matter.

For those who have had experience in teaching, the teacher's methods of blackboard illustrations should be tested. This is an important feature in examination. An adequate test of facility in use of language, in capitalization, in punctuation, in orthography, may be applied in the assignment of some topic for impromptu discussion in a paper to which are allowed ten or fifteen minutes for writing and five minutes for revision.

Determination of final results will depend largely upon the style of questions proposed. They should be clearly stated, with no chance of misinterpretation. They should be distinct, each complete in itself. No question should be made to depend upon another for its conditions. If a question involves more than a single statement, it should be clearly divided, so that answers may not be involved. For convenience of examiners, the paper used should be uniform, with suitable margin indicated. All work should be in ink.

The only just method of marking the papers submitted is to complete the review of the work of the entire class, question by question, examining all the answers submitted upon one question before proceeding to another.

The habit of marking papers in arithmetic by answers alone is by no means just. Correct principles of solution should receive due credit, if in their application mistakes appear which lead to incorrect results. A slight error at

the beginning of a solution will magnify itself as the work progresses, though every subsequent step be absolutely correct. Correct answers may appear even when principles are violated. It is safe to assume that, in a large number of candidates, one may be found unable to resist the temptation to copy a neighbor's answers. Candidates should be so seated, when possible, as to reduce the power of temptation to its minimum. One other suggestion may not be amiss to the superintendent as he prepares his questions. Upon some subject the opinions of candidates should be called for rather than their recital of remembered facts. A mere memorizer seldom makes a successful teacher. History is as good a subject as any for such a test. The paper will be the most difficult of all to mark fairly, since the examiner's own opinions are so easily made the criterion.

Candidates have more at stake in examinations than has the examiner, and they should be given the benefit of any doubt. For this reason, too, the examiner should revise his own work before making a final decision upon cases just upon the border-line of failure.

The superintendent as examiner-in-chief will find the assistance of others valuable to him. This assistance is of greater value when rendered by professional teachers. The work of examinations is so entirely distinct from that of selection and appointment of teachers, with which the Board of Education is charged, that the wisdom of delegating the examination of teachers to a committee of teachers with the superintendent will be apparent.

This examination into literary qualifications is, after all, but preparing the way for a better and fuller knowledge of the candidate. The chief test of fitness is in the work done. Examinations but carry the forces across the moat. The walls are yet to be scaled. Happy those whose

strength avails them at this point! Unfortunate the city taken through bribery at the gates!

(*b.*) *Trial.*—This test is applied only in the school-room. It should be accepted by the candidate as part of an examination. As it is the most important part, the superintendent will make it thorough and impartial. He will not allow his judgment to be warped by personal considerations. He will yield to solicitation neither from within nor without, but will insist upon a fair trial under the most favorable conditions to success. These conditions he will make his study, and withhold hasty judgment. A first trial may prove a disastrous failure through no fault of the candidate: it may appear to be a marked success, and still furnish no sure criterion to the ability of the candidate; conditions may have been extremely favorable in the latter case and as unfavorable in the former. Subsequent trial in either case may change results. As the examination determines the possible candidates, so does the trial determine the possible appointees. Knowledge is not yet complete and confidence not yet firm.

A list of candidates for appointment, frequently rearranged as relative merit shall appear on trial, furnishes an excellent list from which recruits may be drawn to fill vacancies.

(*c.*) *Inspection of work* done after appointment will settle the basis of confidence. Promises brought out of trial may fail of realization. Desire to secure a place may have led to spasmodic effort, soon relaxed when the desired end is attained. The teacher on trial is sure of greater support because of the peculiar position in which he is placed. Every unfavorable indication is overlooked and the best is made of all that appears. The teacher takes the benefit of every doubt.

But after appointment the supports are taken away.

The teacher is thrown upon his own resources. He will sink if he can not swim. He is left to carve out his own future under conditions of the greatest possible freedom.

If a superintendent feels it incumbent upon himself to mark out the steps for individual teachers, two things, equally disastrous, are consequent—the frittering away of his own time, and the purely mechanical work of each part of a vast machine. If he finds in his corps of teachers manifest lack of self-reliance or want of discretion, the best remedy lies not in himself doing the work through a faulty agent, but in changing the agent. If the superintendent finds he can not rely upon his teachers who have passed successfully the two previous forms of testing, he should be able to secure relief through the appointing power.

At all events, he should so far presume upon the intelligence and ability of his teachers as to free them from the feeling that they are set to do another's work in a way marked out by another's will. There are matters of form, mechanical in their very nature, in attention to which teachers may safely follow explicit directions. But one way is the right way and no opportunity for choice can be given. These matters, however, are the least important of all. In the great work of the teacher—the building up of the character of the pupil and the fashioning of his style of thought—there is ample opportunity for the exercise of diverse gifts; occasion for the use of individual power; ample field for the cultivation of the freedom of the teacher.

No superintendent can afford to sacrifice the freedom of the individual teacher. He may counsel but not absolutely direct: he must lead, as suggested at the beginning of this chapter, but not control, except in that indirect way which is the outgrowth of a marked and recognized supe-

riority. He who has the broadest views of the work of supervision will most surely exercise trust in the discretion of his teachers. He recognizes the possibility of different routes to the same end. He knows that variety in means best suits varying ability, and that freedom in the line of earnest service secures the best result. Hampering teachers with minute details as to the method of work, frets and hinders rather than helps them. Manifest suspicion of indiscretion increases the possibility of its existence. Trust encourages effort, and helps to establish proof of its worthy bestowal.

It may prove a misplaced trust, but the remedy is simple. A teacher who fails in discretion, after full and fair opportunity for its free exercise, should not be left to trouble the superintendent, and to stand in the way of one capable of better service.

"By confiding to some extent the selection of teachers to his (superintendent's) judgment, he is made to feel a personal interest in their success, as a failure would be a direct reflection on his sagacity and general ability. Besides, where teachers know that their positions depend in some measure on his estimate of their fitness, they will apply themselves the more earnestly to the execution of his plans." *

The relation of the superintendent to teachers will develop itself on three lines: 1. Administration of work. 2. Discipline of pupils. 3. Advice.

Dependence is mutual. Lack of confidence on either side is harmful. In administration of work the superintendent may look *over* the work, seeing only its external conditions, giving attention to the machinery, its condition and smoothness of running, its need of repair. He

* W. H. Payne.

may also look *through* the work, his attention fixed upon the product. A brief call will suffice for the first, a visit is needed for the second. It may be well occasionally to attempt but one part of the work at a time, but there is danger that the first will absorb too much time, and the machinery be considered more important than its product. Teachers will soon follow the path traversed by the superintendent, and will keep the machine well cleaned and oiled at the expense of the product.

Having applied the three tests—of examination, of trial, and of inspection of work—the superintendent's relation to teachers changes somewhat. He is not considering possibilities nor probabilities, but is confronted with actualities. He is henceforth to deal with the corps of teachers upon whose fitness he has already passed judgment, and in whose work he is to find assurance that his judgment was correct. He now leaves them to the use of their own methods, holding them responsible for results only. They are practically free as to methods of work.

He will find them often disappointing his expectations. Some grow indifferent in the place secured. Some, unrestrained, run wildly after pet theories. Unwilling to become mechanical in their work, some will fain break the machine. Others left to themselves—a new experience—become burdened with a sense of their inability, and fail to put forth their best effort.

Wise supervision, recognizing the importance of the freedom of the teacher, will not fail to correct license on the one hand, and absolute dependence upon another's will on the other hand. The large mass of the rank and file can be trusted as imbued with the true spirit of freedom; but some will need restraint, others encouragement. To this end the superintendent will have frequent occasion to exercise the grace of patience. This will call him the

more frequently to the rooms of those who try his patience—partly for his own good, partly for their good. It is safe to neglect some teachers, for they have in them the grace of continuance in well-doing. When the superintendent finds his patience well-nigh exhausted, a call upon those who have organized victory will cheer him and lead him to persistence in the right course which he has marked out for himself with the few who, in spite of repeated failures, may, after all, reward his patience. It is not always possible for the superintendent, however thorough his knowledge of teachers, to know at the same time and with equal thoroughness, the conditions in which the teacher is placed. Failure may result from a mistake which can not be corrected as easily in the place where made as in some other place, similar to the first, but to which knowledge of the teacher's indiscretion has not extended, and in which the teacher's experience will prevent a repetition. There are those whose natural strength will carry them through all trials. Others need such assistance as favorable surroundings may furnish. Some have consciousness of power, and make it available under all circumstances. Others possess the power but lack the consciousness; such come slowly to the knowledge of the power within them; they need such assistance as favorable conditions will furnish; they need the encouragement which victory over slight difficulties gives them.

3. PATIENCE.—It is unwise to condemn after the first failure, which, after all, may have its cause less in the teacher than in his surroundings. The majority of teachers in any large system of schools will be found lacking in experience. Their power is a germ, and needs the sunshine of a smile, the rain of kind advice, for its development. Often the best teachers grow slowly into efficiency. Their superintendent will need a large stock of patience.

But patience may have her perfect work, and forbearance may cease to be a virtue. If his patience has not been simply enduring, but active in correcting faults with which he deals, consciousness of inability on the part of the teacher will honor the superintendent's decision, and the teacher will yield to his judgment. Its justice will be recognized, having been tempered with mercy.

4. JUSTICE.—The justice of the superintendent must appear in dealing with the faults of his teachers as well as in his estimate of their merits. Overpraise, misapplied praise, are as unjust as is unmerited censure. To withhold friendly criticism at proper times, and then to visit judgment for faults which might have been corrected, is the rankest injustice. Such a course assumes that the teacher is conscious of his fault, and willfully continues its practice. Proper time for the correction of a teacher's fault is when it can least weaken his influence. In this matter the discretion of the superintendent will show itself. As faults may appear more frequently in matters of discipline than of instruction, the superintendent who is discreet will not reprove in the presence of pupils.

If to the superintendent's human nature some favorites are essential, let them be selected from the list of those who have "organized victory" for themselves; who have "come up out of great tribulation." Such will have the good sense not to be harmed by favoritism. Better still if he can so far overcome human frailty as to be the fast friend to merit wherever found; the faithful friend to the faulty, whosoever they may be. Justice withholds not merited censure, confers not unmerited praise.

As, in the mind of the superintendent, the teacher can not be separated from his work, the pupils' interests will appeal often for defense against the unjust conduct of the teacher. Injustice may exist where the best of motives

prevail. Self-interest may sometimes underlie great devotion to the interests of pupils. The habit of grading teachers upon percentages obtained by their pupils in examination leads necessarily to great abuse. Any superintendent, who makes such examinations the basis of public award, encourages teachers in cultivating the arts of deception; in finding some means whereby to get rid of those pupils whose marks would lower the desired average, and to retain beyond proper time those whose marks will raise the average so much sought for personal ends.

There are many elements beyond the mathematician's determination which utterly destroy the value of his results.

No less unjust is the publication of comparative lists of promotions within a specified time, unless it be accompanied by a complete list of temporary or incidental influences, which have favored or retarded the moving forward of pupils in individual cases. Conscientious teachers suffer always in such tabulated estimates of work. Promotions and examinations will be treated more fully hereafter.

5. HELPFULNESS.—The larger experience can always be helpful in ways that will not abridge the freedom of the lesser. The work of instruction, specially, is shared by superintendent and teachers. He is the controlling spirit, they the active agents; he the general in command, they the rank and file; he plans, they execute. Under such conditions the superintendent's helpfulness will appear in manifold ways, as does that of a great military leader. His strength in leadership inspires confidence in the wisdom of his plans. His trust in his subordinates gives them confidence in themselves, and brings out the best that is in them. His patience with their inexperience awakens in them desire for improvement, and leads them to watch for suggestions which his riper experience enables

him to give. His justice in awarding praise or in condemning inefficiency and carelessness—even in punishing the willfully negligent or disobedient—will win the most loyal support.

Thus it will appear that the features prominent in a superintendent, who recognizes his relation to teachers, combine in the last. His recognized leadership, his confidence, his patience, his justice, together render him exceedingly helpful.

Whether helpful or not depends upon the co-operation of the would-be helper and the would-be helped. The receptive teacher must be free to act after his own will, strengthened or modified, it may be, upon advice received. His freedom, however, is within limits prescribed by higher authority. Tools which he has not fashioned are placed in his hands. Materials are furnished without his being consulted. It is his to make the best possible use of the tools, and to fashion the materials after their highest possibilities.

Smoothness in the running of machinery depends largely upon the intelligence of its maker. He must know the character of the work expected, and the fitness of the machine for its work. He must prepare for such changes in adjustment as will meet the need of variety in the material to be wrought. But he can not stand constantly beside the laborer in whose hands the machine is placed. He may spend time in explaining its parts and what is expected of each—its adjustments, and how they are to be made; he may also show varieties in material, how they can be readily detected, and the most economical method of classifying the material with reference to getting the most work out of the machine; he may occasionally illustrate his teachings. But the work in its details must be left to the mechanic employed. The superin-

tendent provides a course of study properly adjustable to the needs of a variety of pupils; he explains its general plan, shows where adjustments can be made and when they should be made, gives teachers a general insight into varieties of material which different localities will furnish, and changes which will at some time appear in the product of the same localities; he will be ready to advise whenever unforeseen difficulties appear. Here his responsibility ends. He must feel the assurance that the teacher whose freedom he recognizes is in his absence finishing a product as large as a skillfully handled machine can bring out, and as perfect as the material furnished is capable of, and within a time agreeing to conditions in which the teacher is placed.

The teacher, in accordance with advice as he interprets it, after his well-studied plans, knowing that results only are sought, without reference to the particular method employed, puts himself, just as he is, into his work; attempting only what he can do in his own way, with constant effort to improve as experience shall furnish light.

The superintendent feels responsibility, a part of which he transfers fully to the teacher. The teacher accepts the transferred responsibility as if original.

The superintendent must recognize the authority of the teacher within his province as being as sacred as his own.

His right to do certain things may be unquestioned; but, if he exercises that right without regard to the teacher's right to be consulted upon the matter, he does a wrong, and shows his own unfitness for the best work.

Neither may enter the peculiar domain of the other without conference and consent.

An important subject necessarily prominent in the discussion hitherto, especially if the figure of military service

be at all appropriate, is that of the superintendent's authority. What powers should he possess in the

APPOINTMENT, TRANSFER, AND DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS?—If his leadership be only in name; if his confidence or want of confidence be shorn of all value, since he can have no voice in the appointment or dismissal or change of teachers; if his patience perfected be barren of good to those who have improved under its exercise, or his patience, tried beyond measure, is only a continued source of suffering to himself; if his justice fail of execution; if his helpfulness be only in advice—the question is a very natural one, Why employ a superintendent at all?

Another question may be pertinent, also, if the exact opposite of the conditions stated above prevail, Why have a Board of Education at all?

These two questions are briefly answered. The superintendent should be neither a figure-head nor an autocrat. Between these extremes lies his province.

The power to appoint and to dismiss teachers resides primarily in the Board of Education. The exercise of this power should rest upon knowledge of a teacher's fitness. This knowledge may be obtained only through a thorough inspection of a teacher's work. Members of a Board of Education are usually men of affairs or professional men, whose business or whose professional duties occupy a great part of their time. Were the appointment and assignment of teachers their only duty, time would fail them. Their work is manifold, and when well organized it rests with committees chiefly. One of these committees is the "Committee on Teachers." The superintendent should be a member of this committee, and through it his power will be exercised. Under certain contingencies, notably the changes of teachers, the power of the committee may be delegated to the superintendent.

"The vesting of the selection and appointment of teachers in the superintendent is a wise provision in large cities, wherein the members of the board are elected by wards—a wise provision, not for the superintendent, but for the schools. It is believed that in no other way can teachers be so wisely selected; and a wise selection of teachers is certainly the most important duty in school administration. So far as the superintendent's tenure is concerned, it is undoubtedly better to vest the nomination of teachers in a standing committee of the board. When, however, this duty is imposed upon the superintendent, the law should in some way afford him needed protection." *

The effect upon the superintendent's position, as stated by Mr. White, is a valid objection to vesting the supreme power in him. If he be conscientious, the disappointed rain upon him their blows, and he stands without defense of those whom he serves. The least thoughtful clamor for his overthrow, and the schools suffer loss. Were his hand hidden in the committee over whose acts he might possess a controlling influence, his services would be retained until the wisdom of his counsel were fully approved.

The vesting of supreme power in a superintendent might chance to fall upon a time-serving officer whose personal interests outweighed all considerations of good to the schools, and thus incalculable injury be done.

If a place in the Board of Education may become attractive because of its possible patronage, what measure can be applied to the strength of temptation when the entire control of the teachers of a city is vested in a super-

* E. E. White, National Council of Education, Proceedings, 1889, p. 97.

intendent? The unworthy applicant would not scruple at any means whereby to secure such an opportunity for personal profit. The risk is too great to be assumed. No capable superintendent would wish to assume it.

In the conferences of a "Committee on Teachers," the merits of a candidate for appointment are stated by the superintendent. Between two or more candidates there may be in his mind a very slight choice. Members of the committee may know of reasons which would favor the selection of one rather than another in the place to be filled. In counsel of men, no one of whom has absolute power, who have no other purpose than to serve the interests of the schools, each may be the best judge in certain directions—one as to the fitness of candidates, another as to fitness of the place, still another as to the conditions which would favor one of several equally meritorious candidates. Such counsel can not be other than profitable. If appointments are thus carefully considered, dismissals will be rare. It is easier to keep out an inefficient applicant than to remove an unsuccessful appointee. In making appointments the best material is not always at hand. Mistaken views of ability may be entertained. If after trial the superintendent finds he can not rely upon acceptable service, he must have some opportunity for relief. This opportunity appears in one of two forms—change of place or removal. The first will be found a favorable opportunity for the best work of a competent superintendent. In his rounds of inspection he becomes thoroughly acquainted with the peculiarities of each situation as well as with the characteristic features of each teacher's work. In his study of means of improvement of the schools under his supervision, he will have in mind both persons and places. Misfits are remembered. They are ordinarily few in number, and may be reduced by changes. The

power to make such changes should reside in the superintendent, subject to appeal. Inasmuch as good will result to the place, and a better status to the person, there can be little opportunity for criticism of the superintendent's acts. On the contrary, he may be strengthened in his position by the exercise of such power. When a misfit proves a chronic condition of the person, removal is the only remedy. Then it is well for the superintendent that he have the support of a "Committee on Teachers."

The relation of a superintendent to his teachers can not be considered fully until the subject of school organization is treated. It will there appear incidentally.

In the management of the school machinery, superintendent and teachers are alike interested. Upon its smooth and efficient working depend the interests of pupils.

It can not be denied that in all quarters the machine itself has received an undue share of attention. Engineers have been pleased with its beauty, and have thought too little of its product. Organization has been treated too much as an end. Progress implies the turning of thought from the machine now well established to the result of its working—to the product of its manufacture.

CHAPTER X.

GRADATION AND COURSES OF STUDY.

As a leader of teachers, the superintendent needs a well-defined route with which he is perfectly familiar. It must be as direct as possible to the end sought. Its grades and its curves should be established at the outset. Mod-

ern processes in road-building are applicable to the royal highway to knowledge. There are milestones for the determination of the rate of progress. There are stations for the exchange of motive power, with intermediate stations for the convenience of patrons. There are schedule-cards for the minute guidance of conductors. There are blanks for reports to headquarters. Strict obedience to the orders of train-dispatchers is enjoined. Within limitations many things are left to the discretion of conductors. Some trains are run for the special accommodation of "through passengers and freight." These have special consideration in right of way. Other trains accommodate "way-passengers," whose routes are short or necessarily broken.

These modern features in the work of transportation have appeared in school machinery. The route of the pupil is marked off more or less minutely. At certain stations changes are made in teachers. "Through" pupils pass on under new conductors. A few pupils have left the train at way-stations where others have entered. The train-load continues about as it began, though passengers have changed. Classes live, even if their membership changes. The time-schedules are followed between the terminals, even though circumstances may interfere with a steady rate of progress. Movements are directed from headquarters, to which reports are made at regular times.

This railway model for school management has had an evil influence in many directions. First, it permits no pupil to move more rapidly than his particular train is scheduled for. While for the majority this rigid observance of time-cards may be suitable, it retards the progress of a minority until they become indifferent, or leave the train in disgust. Secondly, it pulls along some whose strength fails them because of the weariness of the way.

These become a burden to the conductors, and are left at some station till they recover ability to proceed on their journey.

To change the figure from a roadway to a water-way. Gradation here involves a series of locks, if it be an artificial channel. Freight is floated into a lock, the gates closed behind it, and with a steady letting in of water from above it is raised to a proper level for a forward movement when another process of gradual lifting ensues. This may be a better model than that of the railway, inasmuch as the time-schedule is not so rigidly followed.

Better still the figure of the natural water-way, over which boats may glide from point to point as favoring winds or tides, or their peculiar structure, may determine. All move in one direction. There is no danger of collisions, if the opportunity be given for the fleeter boat to move forward unobstructed. Attention will be given to this matter in the next chapter.

Gradation is often taken in its too literal signification, and there is presented to the thought a series of steps with broad treads and high risers. Upon each tread the class is kept for a specified time, and upon trial of strength the next riser is reached at a leap by the majority, and the few are allowed to fall back until at some succeeding trial their strength shall prove sufficient for the rise. The rise is too severe a task of strength in many cases.

If we substitute an inclined plane for the stairway, upon which every step forward is a step upward, and there comes no time when the entire weight of the body is to be lifted at a single effort, there will be less opposition to graded systems. The "course of study" will lie beside this inclined plane, with some divisions more or less natural, and over each division the child is led by a helpful teacher—the child's strength growing at each step, and

his courage brightening as he finds his range of vision enlarged at each forward movement. Under the head of promotions this thought will be more fully treated.

In arranging a course of study, one error is likely to arise. It is assumed that the initial point of the course of study is the beginning of a child's education. No more fatal error can be cherished. A child enters school at six years of age. The years of his life already past have been crowded full of lessons. It will be a strange thing indeed if he has not profited by these early lessons, and hence enters school with some measure of mental force. His home influences have determined the measure as well as the direction of this force to a large degree. Any course of study which assumes its entire absence makes a dear mistake.

The child's earlier months in school are too often frittered away upon matters with which he should have become conversant through proper home instruction. In well-regulated homes this work is well begun. But in many it is of necessity neglected; in many others ignorance or indifference prevails. Benevolent individuals, with time and means at their disposal, have stepped in at this point of need and have organized and conducted "free Kindergartens." The purpose is sketched admirably by a devotee: "Take the child into the Kindergarten and there begin the work of physical, mental, and moral training. Put the child in possession of his powers; develop his faculties; unfold his moral nature; cultivate mechanical skill in the use of his hands; give him a sense of symmetry and harmony; a quick judgment of numbers, measure, and size; stimulate his inventive faculties; make him familiar with the customs and usages of well-ordered lives; teach him to be kind, courteous, helpful, and unselfish; inspire him to love whatsoever things are true

and pure and right and kind and noble; and thus equipped physically, mentally, and morally, send him forth to a wider range of study, which should include some sort of industrial training, and still further give the boy or girl a completed trade. Thus will they be prepared to solve the rugged problem of existence by earning their own living through honest, faithful work." *

The importance of this preliminary work can not be overestimated. Nor should the State depend upon private contributions for so necessary a work.

If supervision can not be extended over this work as part of a school curriculum, it should recognize its existence, accept the work done, introduce its methods so far as they may be made applicable to the development of the child's powers in the years ordinarily devoted to common-school work. This will solve the question of manual training, so warmly discussed at the present day. It will secure for the child the habit of self-direction in the exercise of his physical, mental, and moral faculties. Eventually his self-direction will manifest its preferences. Whatever his ultimate choice may be, a sure foundation will have been laid for success.

The elementary school teaches neither trades nor professions, but lays the foundation for the acquisition of either as the future purpose of the child may develop itself.

The Kindergarten reveals to the child his possibilities. The higher institutions furnish to the youth opportunities for a fitting for life-work. The weakness of our school system is in its middle grades. The cultivation of possibilities is checked, so that the youth comes up to his opportunities with little self-directive power. His choice

* Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, San Francisco.

is made without knowledge of internal fitness, but under the stress of purely external conditions. The great work of the superintendent for the present is to lie in improving the worn track between the initial and the terminal point.

At the beginning of the course there should be the greatest possible mobility. Toward the end, greater rigidity may prevail; at the beginning, prescription; near the end, election. At first sight there may appear to be inconsistency between prescription and mobility, between election and rigidity. Experience in supervision will soon dispel all appearance of inconsistency. Mobility may be provided for in the arrangement of the programme, though studies be prescribed, and in more minute subdivision of the course, or, continuing the railway illustration, in more frequent stations. So rigidity may be increased in the later stages of the course by introducing more studies into the course than can be pursued by any one pupil, and permitting at some convenient point an opportunity for choice, which, once made, must be rigidly followed. In the railway illustration the point of election will be the place where the road divides and different terminals are sought.

The course of study is generally constructed upon the theory that pupils will complete it, and after a close calculation of average ability it is marked off by years, is called a "Graded Course," and serves a good purpose for the minority who compass it. But to the interests of the majority the superintendent must look. Shall he discard the course of study because, if pursued too rigidly, the majority suffer? To the greater part of this majority the course of study may be made serviceable through a discreet use thereof. It furnishes a natural order of studies; it presents an agreeable variety; it meets, step

by step, the capacity of the average pupil; it does not forbid the more rapid advance of the exceptional pupil; it insures regularity of movement in an economical and efficient manner; it analyzes the work and assigns portions to those who are best fitted by nature or acquired ability for the special work allotted to them; it provides through this division of labor for the use of the highest skill attainable. Its fault lies in its liability to abuse. The superintendent is set to the work of guarding against this liability to abuse. If the work under the course of study becomes mechanical, the fault lies in administration. For this fault the superintendent, left free in the work of instruction, is responsible. Leaving much to the discretion of teachers, he can the more properly criticise their acts. If he undertake to assign teachers at the beginning of each term or each month a task to be accomplished, as is sometimes unwisely done, he becomes responsible for purely mechanical work, and the abuse of the course of study lies at his door. If, bearing in his own mind the results which should in a given time follow a teacher's work, he passes judgment favorable or unfavorable simply by what he observes of results, without considering the circumstances which have affected that teacher's work, abuse of a good system lies at his door. Mechanical supervision has injured more pupils than mechanical teaching. Wise supervision cultivates freedom of the teacher, makes sure that this freedom is the fullest exercise of personal rights consistent with the rights of others in like manner and in like measure free. If freedom becomes license, the superintendent knows and dares to use the remedy.

After all care and the wisest possible supervision, there will appear exceptional pupils to whom the course of study is not adaptable. The time of these pupils is not

at their full command. Attendance upon school must be irregular. The early advantages of some may have been limited, and their classification in a course of study upon their lowest attainment or even upon their average attainment would be prejudical to their advancement. Others need a closer relation to the teacher than class-work will permit. To all these, individual instruction is best adapted until their irregularities are overcome, and they little by little find themselves able to enter classes suited to their age. For such pupils provision should be made that they may have the benefit of individual instruction without the restriction of a course of study, but with reference to the eventual bringing of all into line with it. In every system of schools provision should be made for such special work in ungraded rooms with fewer pupils and the best teachers. This will not be necessary in rural schools. There a course of study can hardly be adopted which will prove of value.

From stage to stage in the course of study advance is made as the result of some sort of inquiry as to the fitness of the pupil to take up new studies or advanced work in old studies. Such inquiry is called an examination, and the advance is a promotion. Modern gradation of schools furnishes an opportunity at longer or shorter intervals for such inquiry and subsequent advance.

Theories of gradation have varied widely upon the number of grades and upon the groupiug of grades. Primary group, Intermediate group, Grammar group, High School group, represent the nomenclature of one locality. Primary group, Grammar group, High School group, represent another locality. Still another presents Primary, Grammar, Intermediate and High School groups. There is no absolute uniformity as to the number of grades in each group. The cities of sev-

eral of the central States have adopted a plan of gradation agreed upon by city superintendents of the larger cities in these States. Three groups—Primary, Grammar, and High School—appear. Each group embraces four grades. Each grade is supposed to furnish work for one year. The division, though somewhat arbitrary, has this basis of reason: Primary work is quite largely oral in character; grammar work is largely text-book work; high-school work introduces a wider range of studies and election between courses which lead to college, or to practical life deprived of the advantages which liberal education confers. Work below the high school cultivates the possibilities of hand, head, and heart that lie within the child. Manual training, intellectual training, and moral training are carried forward together and harmoniously. As the child approaches the high-school stage, he understands better his possibilities: he sees the parting of the ways; he chooses a line of study which ends in the shop, the counting-house, the farm, or any of the ordinary industries, or the line which stretches on beyond the high school into the college or professional school. If the college be his choice, he sees there another parting of the ways almost at the beginning of his course. Leadership of men, and directive power in measures, are promised him in one line; leadership of men and directive power in large industrial enterprises are his opportunities in another line. During the high-school course his uplook is a constant inspiration, as to the grammar-school pupil is the high school and to the primary pupil the grammar grades. The influence from above is pervasive and healthful. There is danger that this healthful influence will be weakened by too great rigidity of administration, too arbitrary a severance of the parts of the system. From the primary school through the college or the university a natural and

easy course is possible. Public-school men and college men are understanding one another better, and the oneness of their work is happily recognized in these latter days.

In the matter of course of study the superintendent will find his hardest work in resisting the attempt to foist everything upon the schools.

If some social need in the line of moral reform makes its urgency felt, the press and the public school must be arrayed for its removal.

"*In loco parentis*" is a phrase which is doing incalculable harm in shifting burdens from the parent, now too much relieved, upon the public school, already overburdened.

The superintendent will act wisely who resists the effort to put the whole task of education upon the school. Home, school, and church share the responsibility with the great educator, the public press. The school needs a defender. The press will take care of itself. The home needs spurring to activity.

The discussion of the place of "manual training" has awakened a great interest. No person is better prepared to speak upon this subject than he who is the father of what are called "Manual Training Schools" in this country. Upon the course of study in one of these schools he says, "It must evidently give a thorough training in the lower mathematics, arithmetic, algebra, plane and solid geometry.

"There will be abundant opportunity to use the facts and methods of arithmetic and geometry in the shops and drawing-rooms; but no familiarity with the facts, no facility in instrumental drawing, should obscure the value of purely geometrical reasoning. As a rule, not one student in five goes far enough in mathematics, pure and applied, to make an intelligent use of his algebra; never-

theless, his knowledge of its elementary methods must be full and clear. The elements of botany, chemistry, and physics, including at least their phenomenal sides, and some of the more obvious generalizations, should be thoroughly studied during the course at the Manual Training School; but in every case the laboratory method should be used. Generalizations made by an author, for which no sufficient evidence is presented to the student, are of no educational value. They are like assertions in history or geography, which are to be taken on faith. Real objects, experiments, and tests—I care not how familiar they may be to the teacher—must give the student his basis for judgment and generalization. Above all, I would advise teachers to avoid putting their elementary students at really new work, at strictly original research. All the ground should be familiar to the teacher, and, though the pupil approaches it as a learner, as a discoverer of new truth, the teacher should, as a rule, know what he ought to find. I have no patience with premature researches and childish inventions. I am inclined to think that chemistry is easier to teach in a laboratory than physics, on account of the latter's great demand for skill in manipulation and construction in the physical laboratory. One must be somewhat familiar with all work in woods and metals in order to properly study physics. In future we shall put our study of heat, electricity, sound, and light after the study of chemistry, in order to give time for the tool-training needed.

"In a technical school, students have little time for history and literature, hence both should come systematically into the preliminary or manual training school. The students are old enough to appreciate something of style, and to tell good writing from bad. By conscious imitation of good writers they readily see things clearly,

use language accurately when they know what the thought is which they are to express, and they can easily master the simple mechanical details of composition. American and English history, and possibly some general European history, should be learned early, and always with a certain amount of geographical study.

"No technical student should be ignorant of the elements of Latin, and a fair reading command of at least one modern language in addition to his own.

"Experience has shown that the drawing course can be carried much further in the preparatory schools than was formerly supposed possible.

"The elements of tool-work in woods and metals I regard as eminently appropriate to the educational work in the manual training school. It is admirably fitted to meet the physical, mental, and moral natures of all healthy boys from the age of thirteen to eighteen.

"I should say it with greater emphasis in reference to those classical schools which afford so little opportunity for dealing with the concrete and for getting primitive notions of the laws and properties of matter and force."*

A careful review of the above quotation will disclose the fact that "manual training" accepts with approval a modern course of study, and adds thereto "tool-work in wood and metals," after the elementary school-work has been completed, and pupils *have passed the age of thirteen years.*

Mr. Woodward, in his further discussions, emphasizes this added feature, and attributes to it special educative force. Upon this issue is joined.

The claim of superior educative force in tool-work as

* C. M. Woodward, National Educational Association, Proceedings, 1888, p. 587.

carried forward more or less prominently in connection with mere scholastic work is met by one of the clearest thinkers upon educational subjects of our time in the following manner:

"The ever-present argument of the economical view of education calls attention to the fact that the great majority of children are destined to earn their living by manual labor. Hence, it is argued, the school ought to prepare them for their future work. The scientific view, that lays so much stress on the protraction of the period of human infancy, is opposed to this demand for filling the child's mind with premature care for this future drudgery. In fact, this scientific doctrine has already been anticipated by the humane Christian sentiment which has founded public schools; for there is a conviction deep-seated in the minds of the people that all children ought to be educated together in the humane studies that lie at the basis of liberal culture. Just for the very reason that the majority have before them a life of drudgery, the period of childhood, in which the child has not yet become of much pecuniary value for industry, shall be carefully devoted to spiritual growth, to training the intellect and will, and to building the basis for a larger humanity. Such a provision commends itself as an attempt to compensate in a degree for the inequalities of fortune and birth. Society shall see to it that the child who can not choose the family in which he shall be born, shall have given him the best possible heritage fortune could bring him, namely, an education that awakens him to the consciousness of the higher self that exists dormant in him. The common school shall teach him how to conquer fortune by industry and good habits and application of the tools of thought.

"The education of the muscles of the hand and arm,

the training of the eye in accuracy, go for something in the way of education, especially if these, too, are of a general character, and productive of skill in many arts. But it happens in most cases that the training of the muscles for a special operation unfits them more or less for the other special operations.

"The course of study in manual training, in so far as it concerns the education of the hand, is limited to a narrow circle of trades in the wood and metal industries, and so far as it is auxiliary to trades and occupations directly, it concerns only one in twelve of the laborers actually employed in the United States. Indirectly, as dealing especially with the construction of machinery, it has a much wider application, and all laborers who employ machines or tools of any description will be benefited to a greater or less degree by a course of manual training, and there is something educative in it for all who are to use machines. This is the most important argument that can be urged by the advocates of the manual training school in behalf of its educative value.

"No justice as yet has been done by the advocates of manual training to the claims of industrial drawing as a training for the hand and eye and the æsthetic sense. If the pupil pursues this study by the analysis of the historical forms of ornament and acquires familiarity with graceful outlines and a genuine taste for the creation of beautiful and tasteful forms, he has done more toward satisfying the economic problem of industry than he could do by much mechanical skill. The great problem in the industry of nations has come to be the æsthetic one—how to give attractive and tasteful forms to productions so as to gain and hold the markets of the world." *

* Report of committee at the Nashville meeting of the National Council of Education, Proceedings, for 1889, p. 76.

One more quotation will suffice: "The connection of academic culture and the practical application of science is advantageous to both in a school where these objects are started together and carried on with harmony in equal prominence. The academy inspires its intelligence into the work of the shop; and the shop, with eyes open to the improvements of productive industries, prevents the monastic dreams and shortness of vision that sometimes paralyze the profound learning of a college." *

The claim sometimes urged that tool-work should find a place in all public schools does not find indorsement in either of the quotations made. In large cities it is possible to establish a department for manual training in tool-work. In every school, manual training should find a place through industrial drawing, which cultivates eye and hand for all purposes, and lays the foundation for success in all kinds of mechanical pursuits to which the older child is introduced in the "Manual Training School," the "School of Technology," or the "Professional School"; while it is most helpful in every way to the child who fails of opportunity to reach either.

Cultivation of the child's æsthetic nature through drawing makes him a better citizen as things beautiful attract him, and things naturally unattractive take on beauty under his touch. His simple home is more attractive in itself, in its surroundings. His homely duties are performed in a more attractive and less burdensome way. By all means make much of *drawing* in a course of study.

Systems of gradation and courses of study are needed servants, but may become tyrannous masters. They are servants to obey rather than to command. Their service is determined by the need of their masters. The form of

* C. O. Thompson, Journal of Education, vol. vi, p. 4.

service must vary with varying conditions. It must change with every change in the work they are set to do. Any course of study so crystallized as to involve its destruction in an attempt to force it into new service is not at any time suited to the want of a progressive community.

Our school machinery has come into public disfavor at times because that which is well adapted to large cities has been forced into service in smaller cities and towns where very diverse conditions prevail. Because of this attempt to imitate in minute details, failure has resulted. The general principles of gradation and of a proper course of study to correspond thereto are valuable, and under wise modification in details—a modification which the peculiar circumstances of the community require—are applicable to nearly every community of moderate population.

Experience will dictate when changes are necessary. The superintendent is the man to gather up the fruits of experience and to advise the changes. Any "Manual of Instruction" needs constant revision; hence it should be general in character, with wide margin for the discretion of teachers. It should be considered as advisory rather than prescriptive, assuming always that teachers have common sense and will pursue the natural order of studies—will require no impossibilities, and will confine themselves to the part of the work specially assigned them. This may in some cases be a violent assumption. Where it proves itself such, there the superintendent must direct until his inexperienced teachers learn to "do by doing." By slow degrees trust develops wisdom. The resignation of the teacher should soon follow his demonstrated inability to go alone.

No question regarding the course of study will so frequently challenge the attention of superintendents as that of its extent. Its elementary domain is thoroughly estab-

lished; but when an attempt is made to extend that domain, so that it may include other branches beyond those of reading, writing, and arithmetic, in some quarters strong opposition will be encountered. With what arguments shall the superintendent fortify himself?

1. He must dispel the notion that high schools are a modern invention. Before the modern gradation of schools there was no line drawn between elementary studies and higher studies. Physiology, astronomy, natural philosophy, and Latin were taught in the earlier public schools, without a word of complaint from tax-payers. Failure to employ teachers competent to give instruction in higher branches was brought before the courts of Massachusetts in the year 1816. The jury in the lower courts presented the town of Dedham for neglecting "the procuring and supporting of a grammar-school master, of good morals, and well instructed in the Latin, Greek, and English languages, to instruct children and youth in such languages, which is in subversion of knowledge and in hindrance of that promotion of education which the principles of a free government require," etc. The Supreme Court of the State sustained the finding of the court below. (See Tyng's Massachusetts Reports, vol. xvi, p. 441.)

At another time, suit was brought to restrain the collecting of a tax for the support of a high school in Newburyport, Mass. The court declares that "the schools established by the town of Newburyport, though extending to instruction in branches of knowledge beyond those required by the statutes, were yet town schools within the proper meaning of that term, provided for the benefit of all the inhabitants." (See Metcalf's Massachusetts Reports, vol. x, p. 508.)

An Illinois Supreme Court decision declares that "the General Assembly has invested school directors with the

power to compel the teaching of other and higher branches than those enumerated to those willing to receive instruction therein, but has left it purely optional with parents and guardians whether the children under their charge shall study such branches." (Illinois Reports, vol. lxxix, p. 567.)

In 1880 another Illinois decision is to the effect that the study of "German is permitted unless specially inhibited."

The Supreme Court of Michigan holds that "neither in our State policy, in our Constitution, nor in our laws, do we find the primary-school district restricted in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if their voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose." (See Michigan Reports, vol. xxx, p. 69.)

A pretty thorough search of State reports of all the States of the Union has resulted in failure to find other decisions upon this subject. Not one adverse decision appears. It may be noted that nowhere in the citations made, except in the Illinois decision of 1880, does the term "high school" appear. It was so obviously a part of the common-school system as to need no special designation. The name came into use with the modern gradation of schools, accompanying the division of labor in our industrial world. The principle had existed and the work had been done under the name of "common schools" before gradation was established. No new thing is introduced, but a new name. Change of name can not certainly take away the right to exist.

2. Turning now to another point—the relation of our common schools to our social and political systems—the words of some of the most intelligent of the framers of

our republic are cited. References are made to the following: Jefferson's Letter to Colonel Yancey, January 1, 1816; Jefferson's Letter to Dr. Correa, November 25, 1817; Jefferson's Letter to Dr. Priestley, January 27, 1800; Cadwallader Colden's Letter to Franklin, November, 1749; Franklin's Letter to Samuel Johnson, August 23, 1750; Washington's Farewell Address.

M. Buisson, French commissioner at the United States Centennial Exposition of 1876, made a special study of our school systems as they appear in many of the States which he visited, and in an elaborate report made to the French Government, he thus speaks of the American high school:

"In other countries it is to be feared that the children of different classes of society, although they may be brought together for a time in the public school, will very soon be found separated as widely as are their families in the social scale. In America everything is done to retard and reduce the degree of that separation, by carrying as far and as high as possible that common instruction which effaces all distinction between the rich and the poor. Thus, do the two degrees of the public school render the State diverse but equally important service. The one gives to it an entire population knowing how to read and write; the other draws from this mass a select few whom it endows with an intellectual capital sufficient to pay a hundred times its cost. How is this selection made? By favor of public liberality which is a burden to none, thousands of children—the best prepared for the battle of life both by the example of their parents and by their own struggles—come out of the mass of the poor, perhaps indigent population, where otherwise they would remain undistinguished, and year by year infuse new life into the middle classes. If it be true that the prosperity of a re-

public is in direct ratio to the renewal of these middle classes, to the abundance and facility of their indefinite recruiting, then the high school of the United States, whatever it may cost, is the best investment which can be made of national capital."

This intelligent presentation is certainly free from all bias. Upon the benefit to the State, from the elevation of the middle classes; from the possibilities opened to the poor; from the removal of all caste distinctions; from the feeling of independence which accompanies the gift in the mind of the recipient; from the claim for service which the State thus insures, rests a strong argument in favor of the high school upon social and political grounds.

Every child in the lower schools feels the influence of the higher, and in striving after that which may be only a possibility to him, he enlarges and strengthens his actual attainments.

The right of the high school to exist does not imply the right to complete absorption of public interest, nor to undue prominence in public regard.

Local pride may lead to undue exaltation of the high school, and the superintendent needs to be watchful in behalf of the lower schools, the prime feature, but by no means the only feature of public instruction.

3. The economic argument needs enforcing:

"It is clear to all business men that a larger intelligence, a sharper intellect, a better cultivated mind are necessary to transact any kind of business successfully today, to meet the intense competition, and to succeed in any calling in life, than were required one, two, or three generations ago. It is also apparent that a still larger intelligence, a sharper intellect, a better cultivated mind will be necessary to attain equal success a generation

hence than are found requisite to-day. If the foregoing propositions are admitted, it will appear that the principal aim of education is to discipline the mind and increase its powers not merely as an instrument for an immediate end, but especially as a means for more distant and, perhaps, indirect results to follow: in short, that greater ability and consequently greater success and usefulness may be attained in life.

"Two things, then, would follow of necessity: 1. That the business interests of the country require a large advance in the quality and completeness of school-work over the past. 2. That to attain this result we must improve the generally accepted curriculum of school studies.

"From the first of these we infer that the high school is necessary for the successful carrying out of the business projects of the country; and, from the second, that careful attention should be given to arranging the most philosophic, the wisest, and the best course of studies for a high school, whose chief function is to prepare young men for a business life." *

In the line of industrial pursuits, too, the high school seems as great a necessity:

"In a body of students pursuing technological studies, it is easy to detect the advantage those have who have 'fitted for college,' as shown in power of concentrated attention, quickness and accuracy of apprehension, dexterity in speech, and general command of themselves. Now as the high school is specially the boon of the great producing and manufacturing classes, and as technology draws its main support from the same classes, it is reasonable that such a relation should exist between the two as

* W. A. Mowry, Education, vol. iii, p. 167.

should enable all boys to attain the greatest possible advantage from both." *

Mr. C. O. Thompson discusses the place of manual training as beyond the lower grades, and suggests such a curriculum for the high school as shall provide for tool-work in wood and iron in alternation with studies in algebra, geometry, trigonometry, drawing, science, and English:

"Lacking the high school, the pupil of the lower schools would lose a chief incentive to exertion. Build in front of him at the very start of his career an impenetrable wall barring all future progress, and the motive to activity is gone. His life at once begins to shape itself to lower aims, and he grows content to be a small creature. . . . The course of study, too, for the lower schools is certain to feel the influence of the high school. . . . In forming a curriculum for the lower schools, the liberal spirit begotten of the high school is sure to furnish here and there a new element, a germ of growth which shall develop with the advancing civilization and culture of the community, nay, rather shall be the chief cause of this advance in civilization and culture. . . .

"But, perhaps, the influence of the high school upon the lower schools is exerted most powerfully in providing for them a class of teachers of a higher grade of qualifications than it was possible to secure under the former order of things. . . . The high school can not give us professionally trained teachers—the supplementary work of the normal school is required for that—but it does give us teachers whose views have been broadened and whose love of knowledge has been deepened by some taste of a liberal culture. . . . And this higher education of teachers, as a

* C. O. Thompson, Education, vol. iii, p. 171.

class, renders possible the successful introduction into the lower schools—especially into the primary department—of those improved methods of instruction which have lifted teaching from something less than an empiric art to the level of a science, and are doing more than any other agency to make knowledge loved by the whole people. . . . It may be stated as an educational axiom that intelligent methods can be applied by intelligent teachers only. Machine methods are necessary wherever machine teachers are employed." *

The historic and the economic arguments thus adduced should press home upon every superintendent the conviction that no system of instruction is complete when the primary and grammar grades have been provided for.

The college and the university founded by public appreciation of their necessity fail largely of their purpose unless provision be made for the better preparation of students than elementary schools can furnish. The intermediate stage *may* be provided for by private enterprise. But, as the State does establish schools for higher instruction, as well as those for elementary instruction, it would certainly be a mark of the highest unwisdom to erect a structure of two stories in height and then expect private funds to be lavished in erection of a stairway. Nor can the university be burdened with this preparatory work. It is too expensive, and then fails to reach those whose means do not permit them to add the cost of board away from home to the incidental expenses of long travel to and from the college or the State university. Home influences are much needed in character-building at the time of study preparatory for a collegiate course. The

* John Hancock, School Commissioner of Ohio, Education, vol. iii, p. 164.

high school is a *home school* of great value to those who seek a liberal education in the college and university, but of greater value still to those whose conditions forbid the use of facilities for liberal culture, but whose ambition should be gratified by a taste of the earlier fruits of such a culture.

CHAPTER XI.

PROMOTIONS AND EXAMINATIONS.

ONE method of administration places the several grades, as it were, in a series of rooms adjoining, but separated by a wall in which is a closed door. Once a year the door is opened for the passage of those who are provided with cards bearing the requisite percentage mark, and then closed for another year. To obtain these cards is the sole aim of the children, who think only of release from one cell and of admission to another, which they hope may prove more attractive, but of whose attractions they have no knowledge. They are not lured upward and onward. They are goaded by the dread of continuance for another year in the room which has lost all its attractions for them. Wise supervision has succeeded in opening the doors more frequently. Wiser supervision has rested less upon cards of admission bearing percentage marks, and more upon cards of merit obtained from watchful and loving teachers. Wisest supervision has removed the doors entirely, so that constantly a stream of influence flows downward, arousing a healthful ambition, inspiring self-activity, and furnishing a worthy motive for advance, and, in response to this influence, there is a steady movement of pupils

upward. Another illustration is pertinent. Instead of a succession of terraces, upon each of which the child remains until he has acquired sufficient strength to leap at a bound from it to the next above, or, failing, falls back to go over his work of preparation for another trial—the superintendent will provide an inclined plane up which the child will pass as rapidly as his strength will permit, encouraged by each step forward, no matter how short it may be. Teachers stand beside this plane in regular work, seeking the advancement of all, but passing on to the hand of the next above, one by one, the little ones who have profited most by instruction, or who, by reason of natural aptitudes or home help, have developed the greater strength. The current thus started onward will need little special attention from the teacher. Those who are caught in the eddies at the sides are proper subjects for special effort on the part of the teacher until they are pushed into the current, and are thus moved along naturally and easily. Supervision of a teacher's work will be directed largely to what is done for those that hug the shore. While it is true that economy demands class organization and instruction, it must be remembered that the class remains though its membership changes. The class moves on from stage to stage in the course of study, deflected here and there into eddies or projecting its more rapid current into the class above, receiving here those delayed in the passage of its predecessor, and there from the more rapidly moving pupils of the class succeeding. The superintendent meanwhile encourages all changes consistent with regulated ambition, and guards against the detention of favorites or the crowding to the side of those whose peculiarities do not win the teacher's regard. The superintendent will see that the utmost mobility prevails. With him individual promotions will be of very

frequent occurrence; class promotions in accordance with the strength of the current. Along the shore at intervals will be found landmarks which classes will observe by an examination which shall quicken their zeal, inform their judgment, give occasion to detect errors that they may be corrected, determine the result of past correction, and give sensible tokens of progress.

Motion is universally acceptable to the human race. Motion forward is specially pleasurable, even though landmarks must be studied to make it observable. To the race all days are alike, but to the individual there are days marked by a red line. In the child's calendar the promotion days are red-lined days. Promotions, technically so called, should not be discarded. Preparation for them is exhilarating, success is refreshing, and even failure is not without its healthful influence. Their value, however, is impaired when they are made the end of all effort. Nor should promotions occur at certain set times predetermined. Especially harmful will prove the policy of making promotions synchronous with the end of a school year. Under such a system indolence prevails at the beginning of the year and cramming at the end. Just when, as a result of faithful work, teachers and children alike need lessened rather than increased burdens, the system of annual examinations and promotions at the end of the year will wear out both teachers and children in mind and body. In every large system of schools the rank of classes should be such that the whole field of study is under cultivation at all times. There should be no gaps of a year's length at any stage of the child's progress—least of all in the earlier stages—over which none can leap, and which prove discouraging to the pupil lacking in physical strength or in mental grasp. The opportunity for advancement by a series of short steps encourages to

rapid promotion, and the feeling that a little lost time does not put a pupil back out of sight of his former classmates gives him a hope of regaining his lost place. The superintendent's ideal should be a stream flowing steadily with its particles mobile, ready to glide forward or to slip backward a little if the force of circumstances so decree. Within the system there should be facilities adapted to the ability of the more forward and to the need of the less gifted. The work of a grade should be fitted to the capacity of the average pupil. Subdivision of the grade into classes is desirable, the number of such classes lessening as the pupil advances in the course of study. This subdivision makes the work of the teacher more effective, as the number in class is smaller. It is beneficial to the pupil, since the time upon any one exercise is shortened, coming within the limit of a child's ability to fix his attention, and it provides for frequent changes in the exercises of the school-room; it cultivates also the habit of abstraction in the child, who can engage in one kind of work at his desk while another exercise of a different character is carried on in the same room. This ability is of no small account to the child, and can not be cultivated where the attention of the entire room is engaged constantly upon the same work. General exercises suited to all, and best conducted when all participate, will relieve monotony and serve as a temporary release from confinement to class-work upon the floor, or slate-work at the seats. Four classes in each of the lowest grades furnish an excellent opportunity for a varied programme which will weary neither teacher nor pupil. This will allow exercises of from ten to fifteen minutes each, and will provide for the completion of the work belonging to that grade for the day. As pupils advance in years, and can endure longer exercises without weariness, the number of

classes may be reduced until in the high school there need be no subdivision of the grade. Promotions are thus made possible more frequently, where they are most needed as a stimulus. Promotion from class to class in grade is as inspiring to little children as that from grade to grade is to older pupils.

In no part can the superintendent's work be more sensibly felt than in the opportunity furnished him for promotion of pupils. In concert with teachers, who are guarded against the danger of looking to high percentage as evidence of their success, or in the exercise of his own rights whenever he sees it to be for the good of the child, he will make a wise use of the power lodged in the promotion of the pupil. He will not judge his teachers, as has been before remarked, by the numbers promoted in any given time, but by the spirit with which those promoted pursue their course.

Machinery may be made to work so smoothly as to hide itself in the excellence of the work done, or it may by its noisy clatter call attention to its own inefficiency. Promotions are part of school machinery, of which the superintendent is in large measure both maker and engineer. Promotions must be made after some general plan whose features are well understood. Examinations are a necessary part of a plan of promotions.

Examination of pupils has a threefold purpose: 1. To stimulate pupils. 2. To enlighten teachers. 3. To aid in classification and promotion of pupils. A brief discussion of these points will indicate the superintendent's relation thereto, as well as the extent of his participation therein.

1. Healthful stimulus is found in consciousness of progress. This knowledge is attainable in either of two ways—by comparison of one's present with his past, or by comparison of himself with others. A properly con-

ducted examination of classes of pupils furnishes opportunity for both comparisons. By one he ascertains the fact of progress; by the other its rate. This comparison of the present with the past—of the I with the You—is observable in all human experiences. The frequent records made of the weight and height of the babe; the exact progress of dentition; the account kept of progress through the range of infantile diseases; the observance of birthday anniversaries; the frequent consultations of the clock or the watch; the study of mile-posts on a journey; the daily balancing of cash accounts; the yearly accounts of stock—are a few analogues to school examinations. Those which pertain to the work of mature life serve as a stimulus to continued or to modified effort; to greater care in management; to a cheerful and hopeful endurance of fatigue inseparable from successful pursuit of a worthy end. The light of a long-sought harbor has a wonderful cheer for the storm-tossed voyager, but before that light can be seen the log of the mariner will give knowledge of progress. The child looks not quite so eagerly for the end of his school life, for the present is to him all-absorbing. If the present shows a change from time to time, and always in one direction, the child takes heart for further effort, until the future shall come to have some attraction for him, and he shall be stimulated to complete what he entered upon with little thought of anything but the accomplishment of his present task. As he finds himself standing to-day where an older brother or some loved friend stood but a little time since, his desire to do what another has done gives vigor to his efforts. These opportunities for marking progress are within the control of the teacher. They are too often mere arbitrary tests without reference to fitness as to time or character. Some one else has used the questions proposed, and, selected in ad-

vance, the teacher unconsciously bends her efforts at instruction whither these questions lead. The results reached show rather how much cramming can accomplish than how much mental food has been assimilated, or how much strength of a permanent character has been attained. At this point supervision can be made effective. The superintendent needs to have the greatest measure of wisdom. His spirit will control examinations even if he be not present. In his rounds of observation he can not fail to suggest to teachers that which will modify their instruction. Even the most independent teacher will consult the chart of his wishes. The hobby of the superintendent, if he has one, is at once mounted by the teacher. It is possible for the superintendent, by a single examination or by the furnishing of a single list of questions, to direct the whole course of instruction for a year to follow. The direct examination of pupils by a superintendent (unless in cases where the offices of principal and superintendent are combined) should not be frequent nor at regular intervals. When attempted it should cover the whole range of study, without giving undue prominence to any one branch. It should require a knowledge of principles rather than of special illustrative examples. The questions should be so framed as to be easily understood by the pupils who have been properly taught, free from all ambiguity, and displaying rather the good sense than the knowledge of the examiner. A superintendent's examination should be directed rather to the judgment than to the memory of the child. Questions can be so framed as to call for opinions rather than facts. The teacher's examination calls for facts more than for opinions; but proper instruction will also strengthen the pupil's judgment, encourage him to think for himself, and to form his own opinions upon subjects contained in his text-

books. The frequent examination by teachers will test memory—the rarer examination by the superintendent will measure mental grasp. In marking results, also, different courses will be pursued. Where facts alone are called for, there can be but one correct answer to the question. The possibility of different answers arises with the call for opinions. The opinion expressed may not agree with that of the examiner; it may be very crude, perhaps without good foundation; but the effort on the part of the pupil to formulate such an opinion, with some basis upon which it may rest, will not be without a stimulating effect. Facts have been held in the memory. Their relative importance has been weighed. The result of comparison has been expressed, and a new sensation has been awakened in the mind. The child's effort is not to recall what another has said, so much as to recall what impression the statement left upon his own mind. The teacher's examination reviews a small portion of text-book work. The superintendent's examination covers a wider field, and fastens upon the child's mind the connection between its parts. For illustration: A class in geography is examined by the teacher upon the soil, productions, etc., of a particular State. The superintendent inquires into the occupations of the people, with special reference to the exchange of products upon the basis of profit to each; into the best channels for such exchange; as to what locality one would seek whose tastes were in a certain line of industry, as agriculture or manufactures of various kinds—wood, metal, wool, flax, cotton, etc.; as to the disposal of surplus products; as to the best market for wheat, for coal, for woolen goods, for sleighs, etc. In history, the teacher calls for facts of single discoveries; the superintendent for results of different discoveries upon our national character: the teacher for results of

single campaigns; the superintendent for the most important campaign of a series: the teacher recalls characteristics of individual generals, statesmen, inventors; the superintendent asks for the pupil's opinion as to the most prominent of all. In arithmetic, the teacher asks *how*, the superintendent rather *why*—one calling for solution of examples, the other for statement of principles: the teacher confines himself to illustrative examples; the superintendent more to principles illustrated. Of course, the superintendent's work will be of no avail unless the teacher's instruction has prepared the pupil for it. The efficient teacher will also engage in occasional examinations after the pattern adopted by the superintendent; but the superintendent can not afford to spend his time upon the minute work proper for the teacher, unless in individual cases he distrusts the teacher's accuracy in details, and desires to learn through the pupils what defects exist.

In another direction does the examination stimulate the pupil, when it is made, as it should be, a source of instruction as well as a testing process. This result appears when the examination becomes a recitation of general character covering ground already passed over, without attempting to make comparison in percentages, but rather for the purpose of ascertaining what have been the teacher's failures in instruction of the class or of individuals in the class. Here it may be said that much work called examination is a mere testing process. It is like attempting to pump water from an empty cistern. There is a hope that, while the teacher has consciously neglected to open the supply-pipe, the pupil has in some way remedied the neglect. The wisdom of the child who daily dug up his seed, that he might observe its germination and know something of the prospect of fruit, may be questioned, but it will bear a favorable comparison with that of the teacher

who is constantly conducting "test examinations." The best teachers make of every recitation an examination in its truest sense. Such examine themselves more than their pupils. The questions they put to themselves are: "What end shall I seek in this day's lesson?" "What means shall I use in attainment of that end?" "What contributed most to the success or failure of yesterday?" "What have I reason to expect of my pupils as the result of their known ability?"

If the teacher will subject himself to such an examination, and abide by the decision following such a test, the nature and value of examination of pupils need never be discussed. The classes of such a teacher will ever have sufficient stimulus.

2. The best teachers desire to know their faults in instruction. Indifferent teachers need to have their faults flashed into their faces. The examination by the teacher will secure the first result—that by the superintendent the last. The theory that "we learn to do by doing" is just as applicable to teachers as to pupils. It is far more important that the theory be realized in the case of the teacher than in that of the pupil. The examination will show how much the teacher has profited by the opportunity of doing.

Many examinations would become far more effective than they are if the teacher would read between the lines of the pupil's manuscript his own failure in instruction. If he will put a percentage upon his own work and profit by the information thus gained, he will increase the percentage upon the future work of the pupil.

But, after all, the teacher is a partial judge of his own work as it appears in his pupil's papers. He may too readily pass his defects over to his pupils, and the superintendent needs the evidence which such papers afford.

It is possible that disheartened teachers may be encouraged, as well as careless teachers rebuked, by an examination of pupils. The benefit of such knowledge to the superintendent can not be overestimated.

3. Examination as an aid to promotion. At this point we meet the greatest difficulty in the administration of school affairs. Examinations appear too frequently as the end of school-work rather than as a means to an end. So prominent has been the error and so ruinous its acceptance that wise men are tending to an opposite extreme—that of doing away with formal examinations for promotion of pupils, and relying upon the judgment of their teachers, with the possibility of the return of those once passed, if their promotion shall be found upon trial to have been premature. A danger lies here. No teacher wishes to run the risk of having his judgment proved a failure. His pupils will therefore be retained longer than is wise, so that preparation for the next grade may be assured. Another danger is found in the fact that the human nature prominent in teachers will lead to a hasty judgment of pupils sent up, who, by reason of timidity under new surroundings, fail to do themselves justice upon trial. Becoming objects of distrust, these pupils are at still greater disadvantage. Promotion without some examination should not prevail, for both teacher's and pupil's sake. The judgment of the superintendent should accord with that of the teacher. The superintendent's judgment must rest upon some sort of an examination—an examination into the pupil's capacity, into his surroundings, and into the possibilities which a change may develop.

In most of our large systems of schools the principal of each school is responsible for promotion of pupils within the range of his own work. A series of promotions through all the grades of his school will give him the ground upon

which to base his judgment when from the highest grade his pupils pass to the next school above. In this next school, made up of representatives of several lower schools, the comparative merits of the principals below will be tested. Conscious of this, they may err in too great stringency of demand upon their pupils, and withhold promotion from some who are worthy, but of whose ability to maintain the reputation of their school the principal is not quite as sure as he would like to be. For those who are not up to the standard of the principal's judgment the superintendent provides an examination. Fearing that the results of this examination may not sustain his judgment, the principal will ordinarily give the pupil the benefit of any doubt.

The result will be the almost certain promotion of entire classes. But the difficulty is not entirely solved even then; for the classes appearing as candidates for promotion will have been subjected to a weeding process at an earlier stage. The superintendent, with no motive for the greater success of one principal than that of another, needs to look carefully into the possible abuses of any system of promotion. If he adopts the policy of a uniform examination, he will find the ambition of principals lying in the line of high percentages, and the weeding process will help toward the end of their ambition. In examination of pupils there is danger that markings rest more upon language, which may be repeated from memory, than upon understanding of principles; more upon words than upon ideas; more upon words as they are comprehended by the pupil than upon words properly placed. In the author's experience, an examination was once held upon the organs and processes of digestion. One child gave a very clear statement of the organs and the products of digestion, closing with this remarkable

sentence: "Thus the food died yesterday." Any one who will pronounce the last two words hurriedly will note their similarity in sound to "digested it." Not another mistake appeared, but this was enough to show an utter misconception of the subject taught.

Of an exactly opposite nature was another examination. The question was asked of a lad, "What use does the elephant make of his trunk?" His reply was, "He uses it to transfer his food to his mouth." "Transfer!" says the examiner, "what can that mean?" "Transport," says the lad. The manner of the examiner conveyed to the mind of the lad the impression that he did not yet understand. After a moment's hesitation, and with evident disgust at the examiner's stupidity, he speaks, somewhat sharply, the word "carry," his whole manner saying, what his politeness would have prevented his uttering, "Can you understand *that?*" The lad understood what he had been told, and had more than one form for the expression of his idea. If he were to receive one hundred upon his first answer, what mark had he earned at the close of the conversation?—one which all will agree would lead to his promotion in language.

One other illustration. Listening to a class of little ones who had nearly completed the primer, the visitor asked the privilege of reading a few selections from the book. Occasionally a word was miscalled, but a glance at the class revealed the fact that it was instantly detected. The class had been taught not to laugh at mistakes. Repression of such a disposition was manifest all along the line. After the visitor had retired, one little miss self-approvingly said to her teacher, "I did not laugh at that big man when he did not know anything." The depth of the visitor's sorrow on hearing that such an

opinion of his reading was held by a child, led him to mark the class perfect.

"But the great remedy for the particular evil under consideration is intelligent, flexible supervision. Supervision is of doubtful worth when it exhausts itself on the mere mechanism of a school system. It must, of course, secure uniformity and system; but these may be attained without grooving the teacher's instruction or sacrificing his professional freedom and progress. To this end the superintendent must be qualified to instruct, inspire, and lead teachers in the work of professional improvement, and his supervision must be flexible enough to allow free investigation and experiment." *

In nothing will the flexibility of the superintendent's plan appear so prominent as in the provision he makes for passing pupils from grade to grade. To the judgment of teachers whose intelligence he has tested under the largest liberty consistent with the execution of a general plan, he may commit the promotion of individual pupils, and, in many cases, of entire classes. This is specially applicable to the later grades of a course, for, as classes advance from grade to grade, each step secures a greater degree of uniformity of attainment, due to greater regularity in attendance and to the more general influence of motives to advancement. The exceptional cases of brilliant or of slow-moving minds bear a less proportion to the entire class. Supervision, if it has been effective at all, will have secured a better acquaintance with both teachers and pupils, and will have corrected the tendency to run in grooves. The less frequent calling for results permits the greater freedom to the teacher in the appli-

* E. E. White, Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1876, p. 61.

cation of methods of instruction. The superintendent's personal knowledge of the capacity of individual pupils increases as he watches their movement forward from year to year. In cases where few teachers are employed, this knowledge may be so full as to render examinations for promotion unnecessary. Where there are many schools in a system, promotions are generally made by the principal of each individual school, who becomes superintendent, for the time being, within his own jurisdiction, and for the single purpose of advancing the pupils properly through the grades supervised.

But in such cases it occurs that pupils from different schools are classed together in a higher school. It is desirable that they shall possess equal attainments—not in name, but in fact. Various judgments will have been passed upon those promoted—as various as the diverse views of the several principals regarding the completion of a course. Some will have *driven* their pupils *over* the course; their work will have been superficial, their tests technical, their reliance upon percentages indicating the result of cramming rather than of training Others will have *trained* their pupils *through* the course; their tests will have been of strength rather than of knowledge, their reliance upon power of continuance rather than upon single bursts of speed.

It needs no argument to prove that pupils so differently taught and judged will not work well together in an advanced class. There is but one remedy for the evil, which is sure: it is the unification of the work of different principals, bringing all to feel that power in the pupil is not always represented by figures. Much may be done toward this unification of effort by means of the superintendent's frequent conferences with the principals. But after all the theorizing before an association, he can

only determine the practical results by such an inspection of their work as a common examination will afford—an examination of such a character as shall present, in questions prepared, the outcome of his theorizing. A single test may suffice for several years if it may be made to cover the entire ground traversed by the classes presented for promotion. This test will be of incalculable advantage as a means of instruction to teachers.

An important question presents itself at this point for consideration. Shall examinations be written or oral?

A written examination can be made more uniform, unless the oral method be conducted as an individual examination. This necessarily involves much more time on the part of the examiner while the questioning process goes on, but releases him from trying labor in looking over manuscripts. The reaction from excessive written work in our schools of all grades which has characterized the mechanical handling of school-work may lead to an opposite extreme equally harmful.

School life is preparatory to active life in which the tongue will not be the only instrument for reaching the minds of others whom we would influence. Ability to convey thought to the mind through the eye is of equal importance with that of using the ear as the channel of communication. Practice in writing is as valuable to the child as practice in oral expression. As a stimulus to the child, therefore, written recitations should be required. Written examinations follow naturally in the same line. The mental ability of the child is determined by the clearness with which he states the results of his study. The two modes of expression, writing and speech, are of equal value. The *mind active* should avail itself of both, and the *mind recipient* is reached through both eye and ear. The child who can easily tell all that he knows must

be reminded that at times those whom he would influence are beyond the reach of his voice. The child who can use the pen of a ready writer, and who finds his fingers more trusty than his tongue, must be reminded that his influence over men will sometimes depend entirely upon his ability "to think upon his feet." As the examination is an agency for the preparation of the child for the pursuits of the man, both modes of address must be cultivated, that more than one channel of influence may be open to him.

Since much depends in the child's mind upon his success in examination, especially when promotion is the end, it is proper that the road to success should be made as easy as possible. This can be accomplished by allowing choice of vehicle or change upon the route.

Thus far examinations are rather influenced by the superintendent than conducted by him. His work is indirect, but none the less positive.

The time comes, however, when the superintendent may properly conduct an examination, for promotion of pupils, in person. Every one familiar with school-work is aware that under the most favorable forms of examination some pupils "fail to pass." Failure may be due to excessive anxiety or to indifference, or to certain physical conditions at the time prevailing. Such pupils remain as partly burned coal sifted out for replacement in the furnace, depending upon the new material about them for their complete conversion. There is greater likelihood of their becoming "clinkers," growing by accretion as they check the draught and prevent complete consumption of the matter about them. No effort of the teacher can bring them to glow under the heat applied. The size of this element increases with successive sifting processes, and it comes about that an entire class assumes the character of clinkers. The mass must be broken up. The superin-

tendent may take such a class out of the hands of a discouraged teacher, and, without the paraphernalia of an examination which has become such a bugbear in the eyes of those often tried thereby, he can take out the parts which retain still some calorific properties, and placing them under new conditions, amid new surroundings, bring heart into their work and success in future trials. Even those who have not natural capacity for compassing the entire work assigned them may be passed on with a good degree of success in some parts of the work, and, under the stimulus of this partial success, they gain some strength and courage to attempt greater tasks.

The best work of a superintendent will be found in his examinations of drift-wood, which by careful manipulation on his part may be pushed into the current and moved along by its force. At least he may help teachers in this direction, and secure the great end—the child's advance.

The great danger lies in too much attention to class work, and not enough to the individual.

Mechanism is essential, but it may become the end of effort rather than a means to an end.

"As a mechanism, it demands that pupils of the same grade attend school with regularity, and that they possess equal attainments, equal mental capacity, equal home assistance and opportunity, and that they be instructed by teachers possessing equal ability and skill. But this uniformity does not exist. . . . This want of uniformity in conditions makes the mechanical operation of the system imperfect; and hence its tendency is to force uniformity, thus sacrificing its true function as a means of education to its perfect action as a mechanism. This is the inherent tendency of the system when operated as a machine, and hence the great difficulty in administering it so as to re-

press this Procrustean tendency and secure a necessary degree of uniformity without ignoring or forcibly reducing differences in pupils and teachers." *

To question well is the best evidence of mastery of the subject. If it is the desire of the examiner to ascertain the pupil's knowledge, it may sometimes be learned better by assigning to the pupil the duty of questioning. As Bacon tersely says, "*Prudens quaestio, dimidium scientiae.*" The better half, too, it may be said. "It tests knowledge, it teaches method, promptitude, self-reliance. It demands accuracy and fullness of memory, concentrated attention, and the power to shape and arrange our thoughts." † This quotation is applied to the usual form of an examination, but it is equally applicable to the form of examination proposed. Mutual questionings and answerings by pupils may at times serve the best purpose of examination.

Examinations "fail to test moral qualities. They do not tell whether the action of mind has been rapid or sluggish, nor how far the pupil has been influenced by a sense of duty or by a strong interest in his work." ‡

An examination conducted by a superintendent must differ essentially from that conducted by a teacher in that he is not familiar with the exact ground covered by the teacher or with the relative thoroughness required in different parts of the work, nor with the relative stress laid upon parts of the text studied. No two teachers will agree upon the most important parts of a topic under illustration in their teaching—and as a superintendent's examinations extend beyond the walls of a single room and involve

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* E. E. White, Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1874, p. 255.

† Fitch's Lectures, p. 174.

‡ Ibid., p. 177.

a comparison of the work of different teachers, it is desirable that he meet these conditions in framing his questions. To this end he should present more questions than he requires to be answered, and allow pupils to choose the number that will satisfy his demands. Six out of ten, ten out of fifteen, or some proportion of this sort, will suffice.

But one caution is needed: the questions should be so framed as to present topics of equal importance in the subject; and of equal value in results attained, so that the selections made by pupils can not evade important points and yet will suit best their relative ability. No credit should be given for answers beyond the required number, so that thoroughness rather than extent of work shall be the measure of success.

Another feature possible and desirable is found in one exercise in which the pupil may take all the time he needs to consult authorities. It will test his readiness and skill in using references—a very important element in a proper education. Still another exercise will test the pupil's ready command of knowledge, his facility in expression, his self-control under limitations of subject and of time. It is an impromptu discussion for a half-hour of some theme which has engaged the pupil's thought in the course of his study now under review. This exercise should be brief and exact as to time of beginning and ending.

By all means avoid ruts in examinations by variety in methods, otherwise ruts will be very deeply worn by observant and minutely following teachers.

Examinations, as too often conducted by those who make percentages the end, may safely be laid to their final rest. Longer continuance will prove fatally infectious. Such examinations are the *bête noir* of pupils who need encouragement more than terrorizing.

CHAPTER XII.

RELATION OF THE SUPERINTENDENT TO PARENTS AND PATRONS.

THE parent's interest in the school centers in the child. The right education of the child is his chief desire. He sends his child to the school that his character may be properly builded. His own time is so devoted to business and his energies so absorbed therein, that he trusts the teacher properly selected and efficiently supervised to do the work for him. He gives little time or thought to the matter, since he trusts the teacher and the superintendent, much as he would do, when erecting a building; he trusts his architect for a plan—his superintendent and mechanics for its construction. In his own casual inspection he may find fault with the builders, and the superintendent is called to correct the fault. As it appears to him, plans and specifications are not followed, material is not of the quality expected, time is not as agreed upon—the superintendent becomes the arbiter.

Frequent opportunities will be given the superintendent of schools for acting the part of a wise and just mediator between teacher and parent. In no other part of his work will he need greater discretion. To make both parties in a conflict of opinion feel that he is a true friend whose decisions will always be just, demands experimental knowledge of the position held by each. One who has been a teacher and who is a parent is best prepared for such a demand.

A teacher's vocation inclines him to self-assertion. Ever in the presence of inferiors, he is apt to become opinionated and dogmatic.

A parent's love blinds him to faults in his own children, even if he does not magnify the faults of others. An opinionated teacher and a blinded parent being given, the conditions are favorable to a first-class controversy.

An *ex parte* hearing of such a case but widens the breach, and a hasty decision, made upon the application of either party, lays the superintendent liable to the charge of injustice. Let both sides be heard in the presence of each other, and of the child over whom the controversy has arisen. The issue will then first be divested of all misunderstandings, and the case will settle itself to the satisfaction of both parties. Most controversies properly cleared of misunderstandings, are reduced to a compass so small as to shame those who persist in standing upon them.

The wisdom of the superintendent will be seen in curbing the teacher's vanity and in curing the parent's blindness. In many cases, after a patient hearing of all parties concerned, there will be little left to the decision of the superintendent. Friendly relations are established. The teacher is strengthened in the opinion of the parent, either by a full acquittal of the charges made, or by a frank acknowledgment of error on the part of the teacher. Some teachers fear that admission of wrong may weaken their authority. Such a result the superintendent may avert, if in his conduct he secures the confidence and cooperation of the parent. Delay in rendering decisions until anger has had time to cool can never be harmful. At all events anger should not rest in the breast of the superintendent. His bearing should show a calm self-control, and an evident purpose to deal justly with all. These remarks apply with special pertinence to matters of discipline, yet to be treated. Sometimes, however, methods of instruction are criticised. This is possible when

the parent has occupied the teacher's chair, and the progress of the intervening years in school instruction is not recognized. So much is the teacher in the presence of inferiors that, as has been said, he becomes opinionated and self-assertive. As he leaves the teacher's office, and in the broad world is brought into conflict with his equals, and is compelled to yield at times to the opinions of others, he finds comfort in the thought that in the field of school instruction he can not be compelled to yield. The habit of mind so firmly established clings to him, and he really takes pleasure in the assertion of his views. To a different conclusion he is not easily brought, and patient endurance is the only cure. To increase the difficulty of harmonizing conflicting views, the fact of personal parental interest appears. The quondam teacher's convictions born of the management of other people's children are strengthened when his own children are factors in the problem.

It would be an excellent thing if the superintendent could plan for meetings with parents where open discussion of methods of instruction and discipline should bring the parties to a better understanding of each other's views. The teacher will become less opinionated. The parents will learn of the possibility of advance in the processes of education.

After all, parental opposition is not so much to be feared as parental indifference. The chief question is how best to awaken interest, not how most effectively to ward off opposition. The first successfully accomplished, the last will disappear.

It will not be found practicable for teachers to visit parents at their homes, but the visit of parents to the school may be in some degree secured. The superintendent may provide for exercises which shall occasionally en-

list the attention of parents without unduly interfering with the proper school exercises.

Days of display of articles made by children at home or at school have an excellent effect upon the public interest and appreciation.

CHAPTER XIII.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO THE PHYSICAL TRAINING OF PUPILS.

TIME of confinement in the school-room and the conditions of the room as to heat, ventilation, and light, are the chief external matters which should challenge the superintendent's attention.

Tasks assigned pupils and the nature of stimuli employed by teachers must also be carefully observed. The introduction of the Kindergarten as an essential portion of a good school system has rendered the subject of "school hours" a matter of minor importance so far as their number is concerned.

"The delicate child should be sent to school only as he can be without prejudice to his health; and though all power to regulate school attendance is, and must be, vested in boards of education, and the administration of their rules must be to a greater or less degree left to the discretion of the teacher, the wishes of careful and thoughtful parents ought, in public as well as in private schools, to be respected in this matter. On the other hand, in all our cities and too frequently in our smaller towns and villages, there is a class of children who are neglected at home by idle, improvident, ignorant, and

even vicious parents, whose school is the street and whose teachers are of the criminal class. This class of children ought to be kept in school as many days in the year and as many hours per day as possible. Between these two classes—one of which should be kept out of school most of the time, and the other kept in school, if possible, all their waking hours—there is an almost endless variety, for each of which provision should be specifically made, were it possible to do so. There is, therefore, nothing left us but to meet as far as we can the average condition of childhood. But we are compelled to speak not only of the average child, but of the average school-room and the average teacher. There are school-rooms . . . which should lay boards of education liable to indictment for maintaining nuisances. . . . There are teachers too . . . of unhappy temperament themselves (who) seem to have a subtle skill in making everybody about them unhappy. . . . On the other hand, we may imagine school-rooms with such surroundings, and under the care of such teachers, as would make attendance at school a continual source at once of delight and profit, to be interrupted only that the holy ties of the home might be maintained unimpaired. . . . As the muscle, bone, and brain, harden and strengthen by age and exercise, the hours of confinement in the school-room may be increased but not proportionally. It must be remembered that, as self-control assumes its sway, continuity and intensity of application increase in greatly accelerated ratio, and that it is true in the action of the mind, as in the working of machinery, that, as you increase the pressure, the wear and tear increase in more than a geometrical ratio." *

* A. J. Rickoff, Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1873, p. 241.

Two sessions each day—except in high schools of large cities where pupils are required to go long distances—are without doubt best. Such a division accords with the habits of workingmen, in great majority the patrons of the schools. The noonday meal is taken at home, and of a character best adapted to the health of the child. Release from school confinement in the brightest hours of the day contributes to health, as it gives opportunity also for the renovation of the air of the school-room at a time best suited to such a purpose. The question of a briefer release into the open air at some time during each daily session has aroused discussion. Advocates of shortened sessions, with no recess, have gained in numbers. It is to be feared that the interests of teachers have been considered rather than those of pupils. The chief arguments rest upon exposure of health upon the play-ground, upon exposure of moral character to contamination from association with the impure. To the first argument it may be objected that exposure of health is not greater than that incurred in coming to and going from school; and that continued confinement in the close air of a school-room for two and a half hours has a worse effect than a brief exposure to fresh air under the active exercise natural to children at seasons of play. It is claimed that the same end may be attained by throwing open the windows of the school-room and engaging the children in some calisthenic exercises at the same time. But, under the most favorable conditions for such exercises, the impalpable dust of the school-room stirred up by active exercises of moving children can not be avoided; nor will the exercises themselves prove as serviceable as the self-activity which untrammeled play develops.

Contamination from association with children of impure lives is far less likely when numbers are upon the

playground together, than when the personal influence is permitted in secret association as will be possible in the case of children who find occasion at irregular times to absent themselves from the school-room.

Moral evils spread among pupils by written or printed documents or by conversation; both these forms of evil covet seclusion. Pupils can spread moral contamination with no great effect during school hours when teachers supervise in person the play-grounds; but permit two or three at a time to pass from under the eye of the teacher and of their fellows, and needed restraints are removed. It is true that to the play-ground will be traced outbursts of passion, differences of opinion, accidents, and the strong influences of public opinion of the pupils. All these forces are positive among children; they are the primitive embryonic forms of that society in which adult life moves. A child that would become a man in society must be inured by practice and experience to the forces into which his adult life will throw him.

Dr. J. S. Jewell, of Chicago, who is an authority upon nervous diseases, says, "I have no doubt that the proposed change of abolishing recesses and of lengthening hours of confinement is one every way to be deprecated from the standpoint of the bodily health of the pupils." *

Prof. W. D. Middleton, of the State University of Iowa, says: "The recess is an opportunity for the dose of democracy, also of fresh air. Of the two evils, I guess the democracy is the least, so fancy the recess should stand. . . . Two or two and a half hours is too long to expose little children to the noxious substances found in breathed-over air, for the two reasons that their demands for oxygen are immense compared with the adult standard, and their

* Report of the National Council of Education, 1884, p. 10.

capacities for absorption of all noxious substances are correspondingly large."*

Superintendents and teachers are in the large majority of cases responsible for the abolition of recesses. It is fit that those most intimately engaged in the management of schools should lead in matters of reform. But abolition of the mid-session recess has not shortened the outdoor play of pupils. It has changed its time from 10.30 A. M. and 2.30 P. M. to 11.30 A. M. and 3.30 P. M. in most cases. It has changed its place from the school-ground to the street, or, in rare instances, to home play-grounds. It has not increased the number of hours given to study, but, on the other hand, has materially shortened them. It has lengthened the period of confinement to the school-room, with increased vitiation of air inhaled. It has prolonged the times of close and continued application; the five-minute intermission given to calisthenic exercises is only an extension of close mental application, lacking entirely the quality of relaxation which freedom of voluntary play upon the school-grounds furnishes.

The questions which will arise in the mind of the superintendent are these: Are conditions favorable to the gathering of large numbers of school-children within the inclosure of the school-yard? Are out-buildings of sufficient size to meet the necessities of many? Is the neighborhood one whose street attractions are not harmful? Are the children well cared for at home, so that the increased hours of absence from the school-room will be properly spent under parental guidance? Are the school-rooms well ventilated or capable of renewal of air without exposure of children to draughts from open windows? Can teachers readily supervise the sports of children on

* Report of the National Council of Education, 1884, p. 10.

the play-grounds? Is release from care and responsibility the chief element in the teacher's desire for shortened sessions? Questions like these must arise, and their solution will be found so dependent upon conditions by no means uniform that no fixed rule upon the subject of mid-session recesses can be formulated. In some communities, under most favorable circumstances, school hours may be profitably shortened; but, for the large majority of children attending public schools, shorter sessions of the school only furnish the opportunity for longer lessons in the street.

Periods of close mental application must be determined in length by the age of the child in large degree. No definite rule can be made applicable to all the grades of the same school.

Great stress is laid by adherents to the time-honored custom of recesses upon the need of pure air. Ample provision for abundant supply in the school-room should be the rule. Until late years, however, little attention has been given to ventilation of school-houses. It becomes, therefore, a prominent part of a superintendent's work in behalf of children to note carefully the condition of the school-rooms which he enters. The teacher enters the room with the pupils, remains with them, and, absorbed in his work, becomes unmindful of changes in temperature, except as he suffers personal inconvenience; he fails to notice the gradual vitiation of the air. His active movements about the school-room keep him comfortable in a temperature chilling to the quiet and perhaps too thinly-clad pupil. His personal condition may be such as to enable him to withstand a degree of heat which has flushed the faces of his pupils and has brought lassitude or head-throbbing to many a child. He may find himself unduly warm, and order the opening of a window without

regard to the direction of the wind or to the proximity of delicate children suddenly subjected to a stream of cold air upon the neck—exposed as it never is when the child is in the open air.

The superintendent, entering the room from the outer air, is at once prepared to note the condition of the air as to purity. A brief inspection of the faces of teacher and pupils will give him some idea of the temperature of the room. He will note also the windows or other channels for the admission of fresh air and the position of pupils with reference thereto. A word to the teacher will save the pupil's health, and make him more observant in the future.

As classes appear, the superintendent will be as quick to detect nervous excitement, the result of undue pressure upon the mind of the child, as to note the listlessness arising from a want of proper pressure.

Physical health is promoted by a proper degree of mental activity. Sluggish mental life accompanies a physical life weighed down with indolence or with over-indulgence of mere animal appetites. A healthful glow is seen upon the faces of those whose minds are active, and who find pleasure in their activity. The best work of the superintendent, with reference to the physical well-being of children, will appear in his selection of healthy teachers, who exercise common sense in their vocation, making the thermometer rather than their feelings the test of temperature, and who find in the faces and attitudes of pupils indications of the condition of the air of the room.

Modern appliances, especially the use of the black-board in schools, have rendered it necessary for teachers to study the eye-sight of pupils. Children are not always conscious of defects in vision. They have never been

tested, and, of course, are not seated with reference to their necessities. In their anxiety to do what is required of them as it is presented upon the blackboard, they make an abnormal effort to see, and strain the eyes which attempt to accommodate themselves to the circumstances in which they are placed. Failure to see clearly involves failure in their work, and consequent degradation in the class.

Blackboards are not always kept clean as they should be, and the chalk-covered face reflects light so as to puzzle the clearest sight. The light from the windows is not at all times of day uniform. Teachers should take position in different parts of the school-room while pupils are copying from the board or are reading questions thereon, that they may be sure of the pupil's ability to see clearly from remote parts of the room, with the constant thought that the pupil is at a disadvantage, since to him what is written is new, while the teacher is perfectly familiar with it.

The eye-sight of pupils has suffered much from carelessness in the use of the blackboard as a chart, from which pupils are to read the requirements of the hour. For assignments of tasks the blackboard should be used which is upon the side of the room without windows. The writing upon the board should be clear and large enough to be seen readily by the normal eye from any part of the room. Pupils should be seated in the room according to the character of their vision.

The superintendent can not do better than to familiarize himself with some simple tests of vision, so that he can counsel the teacher as to seating pupils. Some special cases should be referred to an oculist for the proper adjustment of needed glasses.

Older pupils are not timid about asking change of

seats when they find it difficult to read what is upon the board; but little children often suffer irreparable injury through neglect of this feature of physical education.

CHAPTER XIV.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO MORAL TRAINING.

No education is complete which does not take within its scope man in his entire being, which does not recognize and provide for his moral and religious nature. Has man such a nature? If not, it is idle to discuss the need of its culture. If he has, it is criminal to ignore it. Nor can the State shift the burden of her responsibility upon private citizens, so long as she attempts to educate at all, without herself becoming amenable to the guilt of neglect. State education which leaves untrained any of the forces that go to build character will furnish but a poor apology for worthy citizenship. The possession of a moral nature will not of itself make us better men. Whether we become good or unworthy citizens depends upon the choice made in the directing of our moral nature. Education determines choice. The results of our choice are so far-reaching that those who shape and direct educational agencies have great responsibilities. It is coming to be too much the fashion to ignore these responsibilities, and to lay upon the family and the Church the entire burden of directing moral forces. "The school fills so large a part in the serious hours of a child's life that it would be fatal to omit from it the all-essential element in character-molding" (Bishop J. J. Keane).

hy should we heed the cry against positive moral and religious instruction in schools supported by the State, where the life of the citizen receives in an important sense its shaping? The fear of sectarianism in such instrnction has induced undue caution and a surrender of rights which were recognized in the earlier days of the republic. (A fuller discussion of this subject may be found in Appendix A.)

If the right to give positive moral instruction be denied, and the child be left to the incidental influences which the ordinary routine of a well-ordered school presents, still more serious is the responsibility of the superintendent, since these influences flow entirely from the life and the conduct of the teacher who at his hands has been placed in the position of influence.

Examination into the character of an applicant for a teacher's certificate is of prime importance. The introduction of an unworthy candidate into the place of influence so great as that filled by the teacher rests with crushing weight upon the negligent superintendent. Continuance in the place after unworthiness is proved adds to the weight of responsibility. The best efforts in the direction of ascertaining the moral character of applicants may be thwarted. Defects in character are at times artfully concealed. They will, however, appear at some time. Immediate annulment of the certificate should follow the discovery. The line of influence can not be too quickly severed.

Open immorality is not more to be dreaded than is the lack of a positive character in the teacher. The former shocks by its boldness and corrects its own influence through repulsion; the latter creates a moral sentiment of its own character, and leaves children as indifferent to virtue as to vice—characterless.

In his rounds of inspection the superintendent must pay particular attention to the teacher's observance of the rules laid down for the government of pupils. The teacher's punctuality in attendance upon school duties at opening and closing school and at recesses, his close observance of a well-prepared and conspicuously posted programme, his scrupulous regard for neatness in person and attire, for the cleanliness of the room, for the orderly appearance of work upon the blackboards, for the proper disposal of outside wraps, for the provision made for the disposal of waste paper—above all, for the appearance of the rostrum and the table upon it — his courtesy in address, his tones of speech, his scrupulous regard for the rights of pupils in their relation to himself and to each other, his firm but just treatment of offenders against the good order of the school, his kindly rebuke, when occasion requires, for offenses against morals, his respect for authority higher than his own, his uniform self-respect, which brings out a gentlemanly deportment on all occasions—these all will be observed by the careful superintendent. Kind criticism at suitable times will follow any notice of lack in the matters suggested.

The possibility of the teacher thus criticised being able to reply, "Physician, heal thyself," will suggest the superintendent's prime duty in the line so briefly sketched above.

The most effective moral lessons are given when occasions arise for the correction of offenders. Overzealous teachers may at such times infringe upon the rights of the home, of the Church. Overcautious teachers may neglect favorable opportunities of building character. There is a golden mean. It is the superintendent's province to discover it, and, by restraining the overzealous and inspiring the overcautious, to lead his teachers in the

more excellent way. In some instances he will find the need of consulting with the parent as well as with the teacher, so that a hearty co-operation may be secured.

In no part of the teacher's work is there greater need of allowing freedom of action, the teacher being held responsible for abuse of the freedom. Upon the proper use of the freedom granted there must be frequent conferences between superintendent and teacher, the former taking the initiative as soon as the suspicion arises in his mind of hesitancy in the mind of the latter.

This may appear to require on the part of the superintendent an ability to read the thoughts of another—an ability not to be questioned, when thoughts come to the surface as they will, when timidity appears in the presence of some difficulty, or when undue haste characterizes the means used for meeting the difficulty.

Sudden resort to force or to suspension of pupils betrays lack of confidence in ability to control the disobedient in any other way. Thought here lies upon the surface.

"The schools of the State may not neglect to teach public morals. Honesty, reverence, temperance, purity, patriotism, justice, mercy, obedience, whatever tends to add to the usefulness of the citizen or to the stability of the government, come within the legitimate exercise of this duty. . . . The cultivation of the moral sense leads us to teach children obedience to law and reverence for constituted authority. . . . To live in open disregard of the laws of the State is inconsistent with the character of a good citizen. . . . Our American education, if it is to retain the confidence of the people, must be wholly on the side of that morality which has truth for its basis; it must stand for law and order and decency; its instructors must first know, and then practice, and then teach those eternal,

immutable principles of right and wrong which are the foundation of a permanent republican liberty. The public-school system is strong in proportion as it has the confidence of the people. When it comes to be regarded only as a machine for teaching enough of certain branches to enable a man to pass muster in the business world; when it does not claim to have any hold beyond material and transient things; when it fails to include in its lessons the binding force of conscience and responsibility, it will perish through its own unguided momentum." *

CHAPTER XV.

RELATION OF SUPERINTENDENT TO GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE OF PUPILS.

GOVERNMENT and instruction are complementary processes in school-work. They can not be severed. In a well-ordered school-room they are closely combined. Instruction is successful in the highest degree only when the governing ability of the instructor is apparent in every recitation. Instruction in classes implies a proper control of the members of each class. Government properly administered is in itself a source of instruction as effective as the conducting of a recitation in mathematics or history. The end of school government is to build up human character, "to furnish with requisite outfit or preparation" for some specific end. This is one of the primal defini-

* State Superintendent Henry Sabin, Iowa School Report, 1889, p. 119.

tions of the word *instruct*. Manners and morals are certainly a worthy end of government as they are of instruction. Manners are morals of the lower plane of external conduct as morals are manners of the interior life. Dr. Philbrick once defined "manners as presenting the spirit of a gentleman, and morals as evincing the spirit of religion"—manners ending in self-respect which secures the respect of others; morals, which in devotion to right show an inner life worthy of respect.

The opportunity for improving the one or the other or both is to be found in all school exercises. The majority of the studies in a school curriculum furnish motives for their cultivation.

The superintendent is not engaged directly in either instruction or government of a school, but his responsibility is not lessened, since he holds a more important place in the school than does the teacher. To the proper understanding of this statement it may be necessary to consider his peculiar relation.

The parent's right to govern his child is derived from that supreme power which has established the family and has thus provided for the child a protector through the years of his weakness and a director in the years of his ignorance. God's purpose in placing children in the family circle is that they may be trained under influences which shall develop in them "the spirit of the gentleman" as well as "the spirit of religion." Responsibility can not be ignored. It may be shared. The notion prevalent that the teacher stands *in loco parentis* is not correct except under modifications.

The parent alone has the divine right to control the child. A community of parents, studying economy and efficiency in methods of advancing the child on the road to self-direction and self-support makes use of a civil

organism called the State. Machinery is found in operation for other purposes, which is easily applied to the work of education. Certain rights of the parent, such as the right of controlling the time and movements of the child for a few hours each day, the right of directing his course of study, are surrendered to the civil authorities, not permanently nor irredeemably, but at the pleasure of the parent. The State then assumes to act for the parent, not with the authority which God has conferred upon the parent, but with the authority which the parent has transferred to the State. The State thus appears to be a human institution. It can not assume the responsibility which the Divine Creator has laid upon the parent. In a most important sense the State can not stand *in loco parentis* so long as the parent lives or is competent to control the child. Much less can the State empower any of its appointees to take such a place. But, in the absence of the parent's power to control the movements of the child while the child is under the immediate direction of the State's agent, the teacher has a right to take upon himself authority in the government and discipline of the child. It is a right of human origin, inferior to the parent's right, which is of divine origin. Since the teacher under the lesser sanction undertakes in matters of discipline to do what the parent under the higher sanction may do, it is certainly important that the teacher be possessed of superior judgment. The State, with its manifold duties, can not descend to detailed management in any one class. It, therefore, selects agents specially fitted therefor, and assigns to them special duties of administration. The State's immediate agents in school-work are "Boards of Education," varied in number as well as in name, or in many cases a single agent called "Superintendent of Schools." Boards of education delegate their powers to

one officer called secretary or superintendent. Thus directly or indirectly does the superintendent become the executive officer, under law clothed with all authority which has by will of parents been vested in the State. In this particular part of his work which pertains to government and discipline of pupils his responsibility is great. In an important sense the superintendent is responsible for the government and discipline of pupils, inasmuch as the direct agents therein, the teachers, are upon his recommendation in the first instance appointed to their work, and thereafter continued in it.

The preliminary examination has already received sufficient attention. Young teachers are apt to accept their examination as a measure of their responsibility. The real test of a teacher's ability is applied in the supervisory work of the superintendent rather than in examination of candidates for the teacher's office. The teacher's disciplinary power will appear in three chief directions—correcting disorder which already exists, anticipating and preventing disorder, and inducing voluntary obedience. To these three points should the superintendent direct his attention in his rounds of supervision. In these rounds of supervision the superintendent must bear in mind that the object of discipline is "to train the children to restrain and direct their own faculties by self-conscious effort under the direction of their moral and intellectual faculties."

How shall the superintendent determine whether this object of discipline is apprehended by the teacher? His first visit can not give him a sufficient basis for such determination unless he understands fully the general temper of the pupils who are subjected to a change of teachers, as well as the reasons for the change. If both teacher and pupils are strangers to the superintendent, he can

make his first visit an opportunity for fixing a starting-point. Conditions may be favorable or unfavorable to the teacher. What is observed in this first visit will hardly help the superintendent in determining the character of these conditions. If he makes a record of his observations, a second visit will furnish him some clew to the conditions. Following this clew, he soon determines the fitness of the teacher in matters of discipline. He will soon learn whether the movements of pupils are self-directed or controlled from without. If satisfied as to the first, he will make no further study, but accept the teacher as worthy of the place. If convinced that the second is true of the school, he will at once set himself to studying the means used by the teacher in control of pupils. Here he must avoid the danger of hasty judgment. Between the extremes of enforced obedience and of disobedience left to correct itself — between brutal force and flabby goodishness—there is a wide field for the exercise of individuality in the teacher. Within this field the teacher requires time to adapt himself to the conditions surrounding him. The superintendent, with helpful patience, may bring about this adaptation. In his visits he will have his eye upon the pupils as well as upon the teacher. If pupils appear in unnatural positions, immovable in absolute uniformity, however admirable the school may appear as a tableau, there is certainly no habit of self-direction cultivated. If upon entering the room there is evident sudden adjustment to a prescribed position, self-direction may be assumed, but without the least moral element. Deception is practiced as it has been taught. If the eyes of pupils appear to be riveted to their books, and no recognition is given the entrance of a guest, "the spirit of a gentleman" is suppressed; it may be that the ungentlemanly act will crush out "the spirit of religion."

If, in the instances cited, the teacher sits back with an air of supreme satisfaction in the results of his power to discipline pupils, the superintendent will do well to study carefully the methods pursued. He will not wait long for some elucidation of these methods. Results are not consonant with the nature of the average child. Nature will assert itself. By directing his attention to the bearing of the pupils toward the teacher outside the school-room or during the partial release from control which the recess furnishes, the superintendent will not long remain in doubt as to the lack of voluntary obedience—the highest aim of all discipline. Too great rigidity of muscle in the school-room is sure to result in frigidity of affection for the teacher. The opposite extreme is not less faulty, but, as it has not even the semblance of discipline, it needs no consideration. The fault of the first leans to virtue's side, and, properly tempered, may be very successful in wise discipline. The fault of the other extreme has not in it the first element of success.

Methods of discipline may be as mechanical as are methods of instruction. Pupils may be arranged in their seats in such order as to please the eye of a spectator. The position of each pupil in his seat may be in form and uniform. Each sits, turns, rises, moves, just as he is required to do. Sometimes even the lock-step used in prison discipline is required, so that no pupil may get out of order in ranks. At study, the eye must be kept at a uniform distance from the book, no matter what the condition of the eye. Regularity of movement is desirable. The tendency of the pupil to get too near his book, and thus induce short-sight, should be corrected with special understanding of the condition of the eyes of each pupil. The necessity for frequent changes of position on the part of children should be recognized. Absolute immobility

of the teacher for the length of time it is required of pupils will put a little solid common sense into methods of government.

The opposite extreme of entire carelessness and indifference to the positions and movements of pupils is not less to be deprecated. There are external conditions which may diminish the danger of great rigidity, and, on the other hand, relieve unusual restlessness. Seats and desks are the chief of these external conditions. The custom of seating a room with one pattern of desk and seat would not be objectionable if physical structure were always in exact accordance with the stages of mental progress.

The superintendent's eye will soon detect the torture-boxes in a room, and provide for their removal or exchange. The room may not appear as well when empty, but it will certainly be better in every respect for the pupils who fill it. The irregularities in size of desk need be only in height and very few in number where there are many pupils of the same grade. But internal conditions have much to do with good order. None is of greater importance than the spirit which animates the teacher. The superintendent who feels disorder, even though its outer manifestation be suppressed, will study the face of the teacher, will note his movements, his tone of voice. He will look also at the eyes of the pupils, which will soon betray the thoughts cherished. He need not be long in doubt as to whether love or will is at the helm, whether brute force or moral force is dominant.

In his corps of teachers he will find some who sway through fear, others whose control is through a morbid sensitiveness on the part of pupils. The first are obeyed, lest pupils suffer; the last are obeyed, lest the pupils cause the teacher to suffer. The first cultivate a slavish

dread in pupils; the last encourage a morbid goodishness. Neither develops in the child the habit of self-activity. The methods of the first strengthen the pre-existent habit and bring out good results for the few, while the many are cowed into submission, and go through the world with broken wills. The methods of the last leave the moral organism flabby and cartilaginous. Severity and goodness may be combined in a discipline of pupils. To this work of combination the superintendent will find frequent occasion to address himself. No part of his work will prove more troublesome. If he discourages the use of the rod, he will find more objectionable instruments of bodily punishment employed.

If he permits and advises the use of the rod, it will be wielded too vigorously, and with no beneficial results.

If he enjoins upon some special teacher the exercise of this right for the whole school, the whipping-post will be firmly planted and frequently used.

Upon this question of corporal punishment there is set the mark of public disapproval. Legislative action in some cases, resolutions of Boards of Education in others, wholly prohibiting its use, have been unwisely taken. Teachers should be left discretion in this matter of discipline, and, if they will found their discretionary acts upon a reasonable study of child-nature, the rod will disappear with all its miserable substitutes, which spring into use under prohibitory statutes. If the time that is spent in detention of pupils after school were given to earnest study of child-life, the knowledge thus gained would banish the rod from the schools. If the time spent in devising some means of punishment for offenses were devoted to learning the best way of anticipating and then guarding against offenses, we should hear nothing more of the barbarism of corporal punishment. The superintendent may find here the very

best field for his labors. Experience has shown that the rod may be laid aside by the teacher, with all its degrading substitutes, and also detentions out of school hours be abandoned, and still the list of suspensions for misconduct be diminished, and a better spirit prevail throughout the entire school.

A middle-aged man once said to the teacher of his younger days, "Do you recall punishing me severely upon one occasion?" "No," replied the teacher, "you know well that I never inflicted chastisement upon you, for such a course was contrary to my practice." "It is true, nevertheless," was the reply, "for, upon commission of an offense against good order, you told me you would take a week to consider what it were best to do." "And then I punished you?" "No, for you said at the end of the week, 'I think, from what I have seen of you during the week, that your punishment has been sufficient for all practical purposes, and we will start anew as if nothing had happened.' You were right in your thought, for the week of delay was to me a continued punishment."

A young man was found in the principal's office of a large school awaiting the coming of the principal, under the order of a lady teacher whom he had grossly offended. His offense was such as would most certainly have secured his suspension and reference to the superintendent. The superintendent came into the office, learned the cause of the young man's being found there, met the principal, and asked him to say nothing to the pupil. Two or three times during the morning the superintendent looked into the office, expressing his surprise that the young man still sat there. As the school was dismissed at noon, he was told that he might remain there during the intermission, as he would not be disturbed in his meditations. No restraint was placed upon him. In a half-hour more the

office was found deserted. The young man had gone home to his dinner. But stronger than his appetite was his sense of wrong, and before leaving he had sought his teacher, made confession of his wrong, and had been forgiven. No allusion was ever made to the matter afterward, and his subsequent career proved that he then learned a lesson in self-direction which was worth more to him than the lessons he missed that forenoon. Self-respect grew in him, as what he did was entirely self-directed.

A lad of unfortunate home influences had reached that stage of incorrigibility which made his expulsion from the school by the Board of Education a necessity. He would submit to no authority. The superintendent of schools, meeting him in the street, in a kindly way inquired what he was doing and what was his strongest wish. A tear started to his eye as he said, "I wish I were in school again." The superintendent replied: "Go get your books and return. I can not restore you, nor can the principal receive you as a pupil, but perhaps he will let you in as a visitor for a little while until you show that you can control yourself." Before he could reach the school-building the superintendent had seen the principal, secured his consent to the plan, and had asked him to send to the superintendent at night a note by the boy touching his conduct as a visitor. The boy came with a favorable note, was returned for two days, and then his conduct was so commended that his probation was lengthened for a week. At the end of the week the report was so good regarding his deportment that he was told to carry that note with him for his inspection whenever he found himself tempted to disobedience, and to remain in school without further limit. A few years later he was found in the high school, a right manly young man, studious and respected by his teachers.

(Appendix B gives a fuller elucidation of the matters which have been presented in the illustrations given above.)

Self-activity on moral lines should be the aim of all attempts at discipline. Corporal punishment rarely, if ever, cultivates self-activity. The moral nature is reached through moral influences.

CHAPTER XVI.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

In an important sense the superintendent and the Board of Education have distinct fields of labor: the one oversees the work of instruction, the other plans for administration of a school system, and provides for its material needs; the one deals with the teachers whom the other has employed; the one selects and recommends laborers for service in the field which the other has appropriated for special cultivation; the one spends the entire time in the field, the other sometimes makes brief calls upon the laborers individually or in a body when some fruits of labor are displayed; the one chooses the machinery which the other purchases and keeps in repair. The superintendent becomes the executive officer of the board in their part of administration.

It is often the custom to make the superintendent the secretary of the board as a matter of convenience, but in such cases he acts in a dual capacity. When this is fully recognized, his freedom in the line of his special work

will also be recognized. Released from mechanical details, he will have less of the machine in the work of instruction. His own freedom from unprofessional restraint will indicate to him the propriety of granting to teachers a larger measure of freedom.

By virtue of his special studies and professional training, he is qualified to give advice in all matters concerning teachers, courses of study, programmes, and the internal management of the schools. In the process of evolution of the superintendency there has come into the superintendent's work more of instruction—less of construction of buildings, less of financial management, less of concern about material appliances.

"The common-school superintendency has with us passed through two distinct phases of development and is now on the threshold of the third. The two phases it has passed through were preliminary; that upon which it is now entering will prove final. I would designate the two phases of the past as the first or material, and the second as the intermediate or the pseudo-intellectual phase—the coming phase I shall call the scientific. . . . Naturally, the material was the earliest stage. The crying need of the common school thirty or forty years ago was a material one, and the possibilities of the situation were not appreciated. The school-house, the window, the out-house, the desk, the map, the slate, and the text-book, stood in pressing need of intelligent reforming. The low, dark, ill-ventilated, dirty room, with its long rows of benches and continuous desks, hacked and disfigured by the jackknives of successive generations, had slowly to give place to something better. One thing at a time, and this was the first move of the superintendency. It was a necessary rather than a great work. The office, also, was a new one, and those who filled it were in no way specially

trained for it. They were looked upon with suspicion by the school committees, and there was a general disposition to make them as nearly as possible mere purchasing agents and superintendents of repairs.

"Perhaps the two great monuments of this earlier period are the four-square school-house and the separate desk. They are good monuments, too. But it is not necessary to spend much time over this earlier phase. It speaks for itself. Even those solely identified with it will not claim that the work was more than preliminary. . . . Those who introduced cleanliness, light, and order into the beastly old common school, deserved well of their successors. The material requirements of the schools being in a measure provided for, the next work naturally enough related to education proper. I have designated this second period as the pseudo-intellectual, because, in its broad features and general results, . . . it would seem to cover a time during which an intellectual subject was mechanically dealt with. . . . So far as organization was concerned, the work was most thoroughly done. . . . The importance of this instinctive, organizing faculty can not be overestimated. It also means, however, the constant tendency toward the uniform and the mechanical—to what is known in politics as 'the machine.' . . . There was very little that deserved to be called scientific about it. . . . The work of organization being completed, the mechanical in studies was, in short, overdone." *

Mr. Adams's criticism of the second phase in the evolution of superintendency, though severe, has certainly some foundation.

The third phase implies more of a professional prepa-

* Charles Francis Adams, Jr., address before the National Educational Association at Chautauqua, 1880.

ration for the work. Universities and colleges recognize the need of such professional training, and they are establishing chairs of pedagogy. This phase implies less devotion to purely material appliances. The best superintendent is, therefore, less and less prepared for financial management, as his thought is necessarily absorbed in the special work of instruction. It is but another step in specialization of labor. The Board of Education will see the wisdom of leaving instruction entirely to the hands of their chosen superintendent, and to relieve him more and more from business details. Not only has the process of development released the superintendent from the necessity of giving attention to the construction of buildings, but the construction of "courses of study" has also reached its limits. All these material appliances have undergone complete transformation within the past thirty years. Their acceptance is only a matter of form for the Board of Education. The advice of superintendents is no longer essential except in the way of simplification. This feature of administration has long enough claimed the place of master. It is time that it be made the servant: it should be a servant whose work should be closely criticised, and modified as occasion requires. This servant, for a long time presuming upon the place which the obsequious superintendent has encouraged it to claim, must under the new phase accept cheerfully the subordinate place. The superintendent, freed from thralldom, will have time to devote himself to more important work. The servant will stay, but the general character of its service is so well established, and so universally accepted, that the course of study need occupy but little time of either board or superintendent.

Acceptance of these views will show that relations of superintendent and board are co-ordinate in very large

measure. Each has its distinct province, not independent, but complementary.

CHAPTER XVII.

SUPERINTENDENT'S RELATION TO AGENCIES FOR IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS.

Two serious difficulties stand in the way of the success of public schools of the United States:

1. The large proportion of inexperienced teachers employed.

2. The lack of professional spirit, and consequent mechanical methods in teaching.

1. Rapid increase in population makes the employment of new teachers a necessity. The still more rapid growth in the use of the public school as an agency in education makes this necessity greater. Within the last decade population has increased twenty-five per cent, school attendance twenty-six per cent. This increase requires an average addition of nearly six thousand teachers annually—two per cent of the entire corps. This infusion would hardly be noticed if the main body remained unchanged. Statistics, however, show that twenty per cent of the body is removed each year by resignation or otherwise. Twenty-two per cent of new material will give a decided coloring to the mass. It becomes a serious question with superintendents of all grades, "Where can this inexperience be placed with least detriment to the schools?" To superintendents of rural districts the question will prove unanswerable.

To city superintendents there comes the opportunity for a successful answer if they have the wisdom to guide them in preparing the fit place for the new teacher by making such changes as are possible within the corps. This requires much tact and often considerable nerve. Inexperience is sometimes so crass as to leave the superintendent no choice as to the place upon which it shall fall. Patient helpfulness may bring in the light and change after first assignment may reduce the evil.

2. The large majority of teachers in the United States being of the sex that honors itself by assuming the position of wifehood and motherhood when a favorable opportunity is presented, it will be found next to impossible to awaken in the entire corps of teachers a pure professional spirit. Their school-teaching is but a temporary matter. A few years ago an estimate made in one of our most progressive cities proved the average term of service to be but little more than three years, though in a few instances more than a score of years marked the period of service. With woman's determination to make herself independent, and with the better opportunities opened to her for higher positions and for equal pay with men who render similar service, there is a growing purpose to make teaching a life-work. This purpose it is within the power of the superintendent to foster. He must meet the old theory that "competition determines wages" with the newer theory that salary is attached to place and not to person, and when places are vacant the most competent persons available should be called to fill them, without regard to sex.

In the two features sketched above the United States are in an unfavorable condition for comparison with some European states which are just now held up before us to our discredit. When the same stability of population

shall appear in America as upon the Continent of Europe, we shall find ourselves freed from the constant pressure for more school-houses and more teachers, and shall have time for the improvement of what we have.

Our political conditions demand of us material but poorly prepared for civil service; our rapidly growing industries can not wait for fully educated laborers. In the rush to supply the demand, more has been thought of *apparent* than of *real* preparation. Our school-work has been superficial, unsubstantial, as are all the structures first erected in a new and rapidly growing country.

In our haste the materials have not been properly scanned. The eager theorist has found a more ready ear than the practical philosopher. In "rotation in office" we have found the opportunity for changing theorists, who serve long enough to see the fallacy of their theories, but not long enough to make the needed correction.

Superintendents are representatives of the current thought. If they attempt to lead, they acquire strength to do so just as "rotation in office" invites them to use that strength in some other field.

But discussion of facts will not change conditions at once—will not lead directly to the cure of errors.

How can superintendents gradually change the conditions, indirectly cure errors? They can not check rapid growth in population; they can not increase the number of experienced teachers. Their work lies in the direction of substituting for practical experience an inexperience grounded upon some better theories than have yet prevailed—an inexperience coupled with better information, with loftier purpose, and with some degree of professional zeal.

1. Professional schools for teachers are as necessary as for physicians, lawyers, and clergymen. Germany, whose

schools are held up to us as models of efficiency, makes much of her normal schools.

Horace Mann, the leader of educational thought a generation ago in Massachusetts, considered normal schools the fountain-head of educational forces. In the normal schools established as the result of his wise administration the public-school system of Massachusetts is strongly intrenched. They are repositories of educational history, educational philosophy, and of the psychology of child-life. They have gathered from the Old World accepted and approved theories which they adapt to the conditions of the New World. Their teachers have had long and successful practice in their profession. Their students are brought face to face with the probabilities of the school-room, and are taught the methods of meeting probable difficulties in instruction and in discipline. They sometimes have brief opportunities for trial in the school-room under the eye of an expert critic.

The conditions of this trial seldom find their parallel in the school-room to which these "pupil teachers" are introduced after graduation, but conditions are in a measure similar, and the inexperienced ones feel less timidity after the "practice" they have had. The "State Superintendent" will not fail to urge the establishment and improvement of "State Normal Schools" in number sufficient for the training of all who desire to make a profession of teaching. Through no other agency can he so readily infuse life into the schools of his State. Side by side with normal schools he will place those colleges and universities which provide a course in pedagogics as part of a liberal education. State recognition of normal-school diplomas, and of college and university certificates of proficiency in pedagogics (especially when accompanied by diplomas of graduation) will induce many teachers to

seek such diplomas or certificates. Here may be laid the foundation for teaching as one of "the learned professions." "Normal schools are an organic part of the modern system of popular education for the perfection of all its departments. They are the coadjutors of the district officer, county superintendent, and State Superintendent. They are established as a signal service in every quarter of the educational horizon, to report currents and to give warnings of danger. They are the pledged enemy of every educational heresy in government or instruction, the advocates and friends of honest work.

"The university professor may have his chair, and from it satisfy a well-established demand; but the normal-school professor must live in his saddle in the field and on the march.

"The demand laid upon normal schools is that they comprehend the best scholarship, the most advanced thought upon the philosophy of teaching, with not only the history of pedagogics of the past, but its problems of the present in process of solution, aggressive and loyal to the best interests of the people." *

The county superintendent may do efficient work in the support of normal schools by recognizing their diplomas in his examination of teachers, by encouraging promising youth in their attendance, by availing himself in county institutes of the service of normal-school teachers. In some States, as in Wisconsin, each normal school has one teacher who is specially qualified for the management of county institutes, and whose time is largely devoted to this kind of field-work. The county superintendent may be still more effective if himself a graduate of some nor-

* D. L. Kiehle, Superintendent of Public Instruction for Minnesota, Education, vol. iii, p. 433.

mal school. His work will so commend itself to public approval that electors will come to regard normal training as an essential qualification for a candidate for the office.

In every State where a normal school is established the county superintendent may, at least, secure a graduate as an assistant in normal institutes. If any State is so unfortunate as to be without a normal school, there is no tax upon importation of good material out of which to make institute conductors, until such time as home manufactures are brought into the market.

The city superintendent has better opportunity to render effective aid to the normal school than the county superintendent, since the places at his command are far less numerous than the applicants. Many cities have "training-schools for teachers," and supply their needs largely therefrom. These are normal schools of limited range with one purpose in view—the preparation of those who are considered as of right entitled to vacant places in the ranks of teachers. Right at this point there is danger. The graduates of a city training-school are those who have had their education entirely in the schools they hope to enter as teachers. The peculiar features of the schools of the city are thus perpetuated. Old errors live, with a little polish which gives them the appearance of youth. Blood grows too thin for vigorous life. Transfusion is the remedy. Care must be taken that transfusion comes from a body which has been differently fed, and whose blood contains elements not found in that of the patient. The new element need not be proportionally large, but of such prominence in its manifestation that the old takes note of and inwardly digests the new ideas. New comers are generally experienced teachers. If to their experience can be added a proper normal training, the city superintendent may rely upon improvement in the work done—an

improvement which will help lift his school machinery out of the well-worn ruts to the greater freedom of a well-kept highway. There are normal schools and normal schools. This fact needs to be recognized, lest cut-and-dried "methods," so called, prove a burden which will only deepen the ruts, or break the machinery when an attempt is made to extricate it.

2. All superintendents may make use of another agency for improvement of teachers—that of "associations" or "teachers' meetings." Into city and county associations all teachers may be brought. They will profit by discussion of matters which come into their every-day work. Seed-thoughts are sown—in some soil they will germinate—fruit will be abundant or scarce, according to the quality of the soil; but some fruit everywhere, or at least a little effort at fruit, though only green stalks and leaves appear.

These associations properly conducted will not make over inefficient teachers at once, but they will make all who attend them less inefficient, as the quickening of a new thought gives them courage to modify their old methods, or to break up the habit of mechanically following the methods used by others. They may be made to inspire the copyist with the determination to put more of himself into his work. They will acquaint all with the successes or failures of each, and through known success show the way to overcome failure. To all who take part in these meetings there comes an earnest purpose to prove their theories of practical application. Self-hood is strengthened, not in the line of enlarged idiosyncrasies, which makes the teacher a "crank," but in the line of pruning until the interior life shall manifest itself equally in all parts of the being in harmony and in strength.

State associations are usually less generally attended;

but the leaders are there, and their deliberations are made available to all through the agency of the press.

Superintendents who control the employment of teachers should by all means insist upon every teacher subscribing for, paying for, and reading one good periodical devoted to his calling. There is no better agency for the improvement of teachers than the regular visits of an issue from the press which comes laden with the best thoughts of the best thinkers put into the best form. In no other way can the teacher so easily keep abreast of the times.

But one who reads only that which savors of the shop, and confines himself solely to educational literature, will find himself abreast of the times, but miserably ignorant of what is in the times worth his knowing, and of that which will reward him for the effort he makes to keep abreast. It is impossible for any one in these days to know all that is in the times, but some one line of study will keep him inside and under their potent influence.

The superintendent will, therefore, encourage in all ways a line of study outside of the routine of school-work. In these latter days organizations for such study are abundant. "Teachers' reading circles" are established in some States. "Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Societies" are found everywhere. "Magazine clubs," "book clubs," "history clubs," "art clubs," for winter helps, and then the opportunities for vacation study in the "summer schools" in science, in literature, in language, etc., leave no excuse for the cobwebs and dust of the school-room which obscure so many minds. The polish of "vacation trips" abroad is within the means of many.

Example as well as precept will prove a force uplifting till the horizon is extended and the chains are broken

which have attached the teacher to a machine that grinds out pupils to the requisite "percentage" of fineness.

The "freedom of the teacher" will be perfect when superintendents shall have persuaded each to some persistent use of the various agencies sketched above.

APPENDIX A.

*RELATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO MORALITY AND RELIGION.**

Two facts are in such general accord with human experience and so confront human observation as to challenge denial. They are undisputed because they are indisputable. The first fact is: Man passes judgment upon the voluntary acts of his fellow-man, more or less decided in proportion as he becomes personally affected by the acts criticised. The estimate he puts upon the character of his neighbor is the average of these judgments. Each man becomes to the mind of the other truthful, generous, upright, honorable, false, parsimonious, tricky, treacherous, just as his outward acts, which are accepted as the expression of his inner life, interpret him. A line is drawn upon one or the other side of which each man's judgment places all his acquaintances. This discriminating faculty argues the existence of the moral sense. It takes cognizance of morals either upon the lower plane of man's conduct toward his fellows or upon the higher plane of man's relation to his God. The first fact restated in another form is: Every man possesses a moral sense, and is sure to exercise it at least in his judgment of others.

The second fact is: All men are subjects of moral influence. It may reach only the outer act, or it may extend to the inner spring of action. It may affect only manners, or it may extend

* This essay was prepared for and published in "Education," May, 1883, and is by permission republished here.

to morals. Both are parts of the same whole : the one the dress, the expression ; the other the life, the thing expressed.

That man lives not for himself alone is not with him a matter of choice, but of necessity. He is not alone susceptible to influence from others. The unconscious exercise of this power is a fact beyond question. The effort to restrain it only strengthens it. Let a man purposely step aside from the ordinary course of human life, and a peculiar fascination attends him and increases his influence. In a crowded street let one stop absorbed in thought and gaze abstractedly outward or upward. At once many a passer will stop and peer into space. Even he who disdains the thought of being under the influence of another hesitates or in his resolution nervously quickens his pace. His faltering or his hurrying betrays him. No man lives who does not owe his habits of bodily movements, of phrased speech, to a greater or less degree, to those with whom he has been in contact. The choice of an occupation is often predetermined by the silent influence of some friend, whose life has spoken, though his tongue has been speechless.

The character is built of material which has been silently and secretly dropped by the way, as well as of that which has been purchased and delivered. Thus in our manners, which are the morals of the lower plane, and in our characters, which are the morals of the upper plane, we are objective recipients and subjective factors. The question is not whether or not we shall have any education in morals, but it is, What shall be its character ? We can not destroy our moral influence, but we can determine its character. We can not shield our children against either the patent or the latent influence of their associates, but we may determine in some degree, at least, the character of those into whose presence they are brought.

Turning now from these considerations, which pertain to our personality, let us think of the organization of such individuals as bearing upon the direction of influence, the culture of the moral sense. Three prominent organizations seem to have divine sanction—the home, the Church, the State. These are independent and, at the same time, interdependent. Each has its place, distinct from the others, but allied in such a manner as to render

their severance positively injurious to human interests as presented in God's plans for their advancement. With but one of these organizations is this essay concerned, except in this indirect way of allied interests. And with the State only in its educational work have I to deal.

John Stuart Mill defines the province of government "to increase to the utmost the pleasures and to diminish to the utmost the pains which men derive from each other." Horace Mann has well said: "All the powers of the mightiest nation can never prevent bad men from doing wrong. The only way to diminish the amount of wrong in the world is to diminish the number of bad men."

The State is not organized, as some assert, as an immense police force for the detection and punishment of criminals, but it has the higher mission of prevention. A citizen kept from becoming a bad man is worth far more than a citizen reformed. The demand of the State is for virtuous as well as for intelligent citizens. All occasion for arguing the need of virtue as fundamental to the State is removed by a glance at legislation from the earliest time to the present day. It takes shape in enactments, which foster *homes*, the best soil out of which springs virtuous living; which favor *churches*, designed for the molding and perfecting of character; which establish schools, having for their object the development of a complete manhood. Understanding well the necessity of supplementing the work of the inefficient home, of the limited church, of private enterprise beyond the reach of many citizens, the State has undertaken to support at public expense a system of schools suited to her needs, and limited only by the principle underlying her organization. In discussing this subject, it is quite popular to say the State has no right to provide for the support of any other than secular institutions. There are still such officers of the Church as are styled secular priests. Religious organizations care for temporal interests. They separate them from the distinctively spiritual concerns of the Church. Accepting this separation, it by no means follows that all motives to virtuous conduct, to right living, are to be taken out of the one class of duties and assigned solely to the other. Is not a moral life essential to happiness,

even though no thought be sent outside the limits of this life, beyond the confines of this world? Let the State concern herself with the affairs of this life and of this world—the sphere of her actions. She can not do otherwise, so far as positive enactments are concerned, without violation of the principle upon which the American State is founded. But without a "State church" she may, as she does, foster Churches within the State, because of their helpfulness in the production of virtuous citizenship, which is essential to the State in her secular capacity. Our earliest lawgivers and our wisest statesmen have ever made virtue as prominent as intelligence in the legislation which has looked to the perpetuity of the State. Many filled with sectarian prejudice or partisan bias will assent to nothing which conflicts with their particular views of ecclesiastical or civil polity. They are right. But is there not for their particular views a common foundation? Enactments which have stood the test of two centuries and more, and which to-day are accepted by all wise men, witness to common ground.

The peculiar features of the early educational enactments have reappeared as new States have arisen, and to-day not one is found which ignores the necessity of good moral character as a prerequisite to a teacher's license. The law not alone recognizes the right of the State to demand moral qualifications in the teacher, but it enforces the duty of exercising this right most zealously. But, law aside, in determining the qualifications of a teacher of youth there are certain conditions which every man in a civilized community would affix. These may be briefly stated as follows: There must be no disregard of the religious observances of his patrons, as shown in critical words, disturbing acts, sneering allusions, or slighting mockery; no want of respect for those who had nurtured him in helplessness; no profane swearing; no uncontrollable temper endangering the bodily comfort and life of pupils; no unchaste life, nor even its outward symbol, unchaste language; no untruthfulness; no slanderous tongue; no covetous spirit shown in stealthy acquisition of the property of others.

Any one of these would, in the estimation of every reasonable man, be a marked disqualification for the office of teacher. No

man lives who would not brand with infamy the authorities who would knowingly place in the teacher's chair one thus disqualified. From so corrupt a fountain no healthy influence could flow. Upon this one point at least all can agree. Will any man recall his verdict of condemnation, if upon examination he shall find that all the specifications recited above are but repetition of the "Mosaic law"? Are the vices condemned any the less odious because forbidden in the revelation God makes of himself in the Bible? Are the opposite virtues less to be desired because the Bible enforces their practice? Why need we be so particular about the character of our teachers, if that character is to have no weight in the instruction of our children? No extent of intellectual culture, no accomplishment however dazzling, can atone for the lack of a virtuous life. Recurring to one of the principles stated at the outset, we must admit that it is the real teacher-life which takes hold of the child-life. The outer adornment opens the channel to the child's soul. It is quite certain that he, who so persistently urges the possession of a good moral character as requisite to the teacher, will not forbid its silent influence at least upon the taught. But let us consider the particular manifestations of this life in the teacher. He will impress the importance of the work of the school-room by his own devotion to the work. Under the influence of his spirit of whole-hearted devotion, his pupil's work assumes vast importance. It can not be neglected nor indifferently done without violence to his moral sense. The spirit of work pervades the place, and the best effort of the teacher insures a corresponding effort on the part of his pupil. Obedience to law is another element of a virtuous life. He is best fitted to command who has learned to obey. The requirements of the schools are as essential to the teacher as to the pupil. A regular programme faithfully followed; scrupulous attention to habits of punctuality, of neatness of person and attire, of care of desk or table; quiet and courteous demeanor; recognition of the rights of others even if they be inferiors; respect for those in authority shown in language and in deportment—these all determine the extent of a teacher's influence and serve as a true index to his character; these far outweigh his words of caution or reproof.

Again, it is not within the range of possibility for a teacher, who indulges in practices that need concealment or apology or explanation even, to elude the watchful eye of some or of all his pupils. No promise, however trivial it may seem to the teacher, is trivial to the child. A forgotten promise, a hasty word, a wrong judgment, are possible to human error, but known and not confessed they leave a scar upon the child's character, or they create distrust which hardens the mind against better impressions. An apology to a child gives the heart of the child to the teacher, and makes certain a more considerate conduct on his part toward his fellows. Not to take up more time with details, devotion to duty, obedience to law, consistency of conduct, and an unselfish seeking of the general good, are certainly essentials of citizenship, and should be prominent in our schools if we would have them appear in the nation's life.

Thus far in the discussion I have brought forward only what legislation has enforced by its sanctions—legislation which has stood the test of practical experiment under the scrutiny of men of all shades of religious belief and of political preferences. I have adduced but one channel through which compliance with legislative requirements may be obtained, the silent channel of the teacher's influence. Thus far we are permitted to go without a word of dissent. Denied this channel, the public school has no right to exist; for thus it must utterly fail in the development of virtuous character, more essential to American citizenship than mere brain-culture. A mental giant destitute of moral priuciple becomes the bane of the State. His power to do evil unrestrained by his own convictions of right is exercised to the subversion of the State, or to its prostitution to the service of his own base ends. The State must for its own preservation see to it that her legislation, designed to secure the influence of a virtuous life in the teacher, fails not of its purpose. No State is so suicidal in its acts as to demand a virtuous teacher, and then forbid the exercise of the influence sought.

But there are other silent factors in the building of character. They are the books read and the associates sought by the child. The ability to read, cultivated properly in the public school, arouses the thirst for acquisition by reading. To sate this thirst,

resort is had to the nearest springs. These are often poisoned springs. The child may not detect them in his thirst. Shall the teacher be denied the right of caution, of positive advice even, when he knows the danger before the pupil?

The State orders the purchase of libraries. Stringent laws are passed and enforced against the publication and the sale of obscene literature. Many books not under the ban of the law are corrupt in tendency, and their general reading is sapping the morals of society and endangering the safety of the State. The right of caution and of advice will be denied by none. As to choice of associates, is there harm in admitting positive precepts in accord with the life required?

One step further, upon which there may not be the same unanimity of sentiment.

The legal requirements as to the qualification of teachers develop the purpose of the State in their enactment. That purpose is, that the high character so zealously insisted upon shall have influence over the lives of pupils. To this end there should be no restraints put upon the teacher's use of means which will secure the most successful accomplishment of the purpose of the State.

With a Christian teacher—and our public schools are to-day largely in the hands of such—the Bible read without comment serves as a potent means of increasing moral influence.

Myself a firm believer in the authority of the sacred Scriptures, I follow what I believe to be their teachings when I say that they address themselves to the consciences of men, *winning*, not *forcing* their acceptance. Requirement of their use is hardly in consonance with their spirit, and prohibition of their use is in the highest degree illiberal and sectarian. The teacher is under obligations to exert the highest moral influence of which he is capable. State laws enforce this obligation. In meeting it, the teacher should be left free to act within the limits of regard to the rights of others. No book contains better maxims, no code of morals more pertinent precepts, than the Bible, and its use should not be prohibited to any discreet teacher.

Religion is but the expression of a universal acknowledgment of dependence upon a power outside of, and almost universally

higher than, ourselves. This idea of dependence enforces certain obligations. These obligations may, nay, *must* be impressed, or violence is done to our natures. Instruction in duties to our God and to our fellows should never degenerate into the inculcation of opinions as to minor and non-essential points of belief or polity. No one questions the right of the State to enforce the positive inculcation of the duty of patriotism, nor is this duty the less pressing because he who is to enforce it may have certain views upon civil polity which may make him a partisan in his own acts.

What patriotism is to partisanship religion is to sectarianism. Each is the whole in its spirit and essence universally received, while the form may vary with the varying mood of the individual.

The genius of our Government forbids only the spirit of the proselyte, the trade of the partisan. It favors the life of the patriot, the influence of the man who goes forth full of the catholic spirit of that religion which is drawn from the Bible.

"The worst education which teaches simplicity and self-denial is better than the best which teaches all else but this."

APPENDIX B.

WHAT SHALL WE DO WITH THE BOYS? *

"O, 'tis a parlous boy;
Bold, quick, ingenious, forward, capable."
—*Shakespeare, Richard III.*

THUS sings the poet. But what are boys in prose? The physiologist will tell you that they belong to the kingdom *Animalia*, subkingdom *Vertebrata*, class *Mammalia*, order *Bimana*, etc., which, being interpreted, is an animal with a backbone, more or less flexible, according to constitution inherited or anger aroused, drawing his sustenance from the mother, sometimes even into the period of manhood; having two hands fitted to seize whatever attracts the eye, whether it be the bright flame, the gaudy picture, or the irised bubble for the child—the pretty toy, the luscious fruit, or the glittering gold for the youth, and often without wise regard to the nice distinction that should be observed between *meum* and *tuum;* hands fitted to hold firmly to a playmate's top or marble, to a cat's tail, to the limb of a tree, or the rungs of a ladder, if by so doing he can tease his friend or alarm his mamma; hands fitted to store away treasures in a pocket so capacious and so well filled as to suggest his classification among *Marsupialia;* hands adapted to skillful use of the knife in carving initials (his own or hers) upon tree, fence-panel, or school-desk, of the crayon and the pencil, through the

* An address delivered before the National Educational Association, at Minneapolis, August 4, 1875.

use of which he is able to express his admiration or disgust; hands that can wield a bat, and thus permit him to display the color of his hose upon the field; that can send a quiver along the fishing-rod giving appearance of life to the alluring bait; that can guide the fleet pony's course or dip well the oar; hands whose great value is recognized at meal-times, and which would be missed greatly between meals; hands which in more compact form may serve the purpose of defending outraged rights or of maintaining the right of superiority of strength; hands, too, which may be beautifully helpful of mother, sister, or friend in the discharge of those kind offices to which the worst boy is not at all times a stranger. These distinguishing *hands* "are removed," as has been well said, "from the locomotive system and attached to the cephalic system" that they may serve the head or the heart with readiness.

We are thus brought to the psychologist who describes the boy as a germ full of possibilities, but needing sunshine and moisture that it may grow to fruitage.

While revolving in my mind a fit phrase for a suggested thought, I was instantly relieved of embarrassment as my eye fell upon an article by Miss Brackett in The New England Journal of Education, entitled The Teacher in Dreamland. In gratitude I shall quote occasionally, as it may suit the progress of my theme, the key to the whole being found in these words: "Children are in much the same state through all their childhood that we older people are in when we dream. As with us when asleep, so with the child. He has no past nor future, but lives in a continual present. He would choose one bite of an apple to-day rather than a barrelful to-morrow. As he grows from childhood to manhood, he, of course, grows out of the imagination land and into that of comparison and judgment, as we do when we wake."

All the powers needed in the strong man are in existence in the boy. They are immature, not settled each to its proper place; not yet adjusted each to the other; now one, now another, coming to the surface and challenging particular attention, but, under skillful direction, developing processes which will articulate the parts and make in time a symmetrical whole, a living organism destined for noble uses.

Hence our inquiries are not complete until we have asked the instructor about our boys. The boy in school is an unsolved riddle to most teachers. The wise instructor knows well the value of the restless longing of one, of the quick perception of another; of the inflammable temper of this one, of the perfect imperturbability of that one; of John's conceit, of Thomas's self-distrust, of William's impetuosity, and of James's sluggishness. He understands thoroughly the spring of Ben's bubbling mirth, and the deep well of Isaac's gloom. He expects diversity in tendencies, and is not disappointed when one appears with the nine digits under perfect command in all possible instances, and another enveloped in a cipher. He will not be surprised to find one boy who can marshal the trooping letters in the form demanded for any English word, while another makes worse work of it than would a raw recruit in directing the movements of disciplined soldiers who, in strict obedience to the orders given, make a laughing-stock of the officer in command. He knows in advance that one boy will as naturally take to arithmetic as does another to fishing or to hunting birds' nests; that one will read readily and well, while another will never give the sense of the author read, unless by accident; that written forms come in all their beauty from the finger-ends of one, while another laboring with both tongue and pen fails to leave intelligible traces of what he thought to do; that one can *tell* whether he *knows* or not, but his seat-mate *knows* and can not *tell.*

He is sure that one boy will be distressingly good, and another fearfully mischievous, and yet another willfully vicious. He appreciates the fact that in each of these surface appearances there is something of value which may, with care and by proper affiliation with other forces not so apparent but as real, eject the evil and furnish a home for the good.

The question comes with force to every instructor, "What shall we do with the boys?" these two-handed torments—these merry mischief-makers — these willful will-o'-the-wisps — these indeterminate intellects—these germs of greatness or seed-buds of sin.

What shall we do with them? What can we do without them? The men of the future are in the boys of the present. In

the wild, rollicking youngsters of to-day you may see the staid men of affairs of the twentieth century.

If in the remaining part of this essay I shall confine myself to the troublesome boys, I need offer no apology, for I am sure that you have expected nothing else since your eyes fell upon the title given in the programme.

Some analysis of the constituent elements of the boy-nature seems essential to our purpose.

Underlying the whole, and interpreting the peculiarities observable, is the dream-life of the child already alluded to and described as the time when "everything seems indifferent to us," because there is no conscious "continuity of existence." There is no recognized relation between the act of the moment and the effect which the future will make apparent.

Very little benefit comes from past experiences, since the boy sees not the similarity of tendencies. To him each act which he commits is independent of all other acts, neither modifying nor modified by any other. What appear to older heads as glaring inconsistencies do not disturb him in the least, for his "imagination is evidently awake," while his "faculties of comparison and judgment are asleep." Duty means but little to him. Inclination, often as fickle as the wind, is his master. His emotional nature runs riot with his reason. He can be good, bad, and indifferent all in the same day, and perhaps every hour of the day. Animal spirits abound, and they find vent in a thousand ways. He is frisky as a lamb, if his disposition be lamb-like; playful as a kitten, if he be on the watch for prey; mettlesome as a colt, if he feel the stirrings of imprisoned power. His young animal life holds sway, and it is not always under the control of reason nor of will. Fanciful suggestions are as real, for the time, as the most sober truths, and have as much value to his mind.

This introduces another element, that of implicit trust. Full as he is of rhythm of physical movement, he knows nothing of figures of speech. He can balance his body, but he can not weigh words. All words to him express one thought each, or no thought at all. He believes what he is told. The old nurse's tales of ghosts and of sprites are not yet shaken off my mind. Reason has not yet worn out my credulity.

This ready assent to all that is told the boy indicates an unlimited capacity for reception, and accounts for an irrepressible curiosity, another important element in boy-nature. He hangs with rapt attention upon the lips of a good story-teller. He devours with eager eyes all flaming posters and the street processions which they have heralded. He fears lest his companion shall see more of the antics of the organ-grinder's monkey than have fallen to his lot to witness. The tap of a drum, the waving of a flag, the alarm of fire, will add wings to his feet, and crowded to the front in all scenes of excitement or of danger will be found the boys of the neighborhood.

With curiosity comes ambition. Desire to excel in whatever happens to be the pursuit of the moment is far more constant than is the thing pursued. In leaping, running, ball-throwing, climbing, shouting, whistling, he hates to be outdone. He will venture further than the last boy who tried it upon any path of danger that is open to him, and will open new paths if unsuccessful in the old ones. Failing to be at the head of boys of his age and size, he will enter a company where he will be lord, even though he deseends through several grades before he reaches the place where he can win the coveted honor.

But, in spite of this last element, there is a keen sense of justice in almost every boy. His own opinion of what is just may be based upon very insuffieient evidence—it may be held without much color of right, but what appears to him to be justice must be done though the heavens fall. His opinions, too, may be colored by his interests, and justice to himself may be his sole consideration. He may not recognize at all the rights of others, but he will soon show that he recognizes his own rights, and that he will defend them to the last extremity.

The love of approbation gives spur to ambition. The boy loves to do and to dare, not alone for the consciousness of ability to do, but because of the smiles which will reward his effort.

The boy is intensely partisan. He becomes judicial only as he begins to reason. His hate is as strong as his love, and he can assign no ground for either except his always ready "because." He espouses warmly the cause of the teacher whom he respects, and becomes the bitter enemy of the one who fails to

comprehend him. He is loyal to his convictions, be they well-founded or ill-founded. He is always true to his party, whether it be the party in power in the school-room or not. This fact no teacher can slightingly overlook.

But to the last I have reserved the most important element demanding consideration. It is that incomprehensible vital force which asserts itself in all animal nature. The boy feels it, but he can not understand it. It is the man in the boy pressing for development. Almost incredible stories are told of the growth power of vegetables—the lifting of immense weights by the growing of a pumpkin—the bursting of strong bands by the inherent growth force of a confined potato. These forces are susceptible of measurement, and are tangible because dealing with matter ; but the man-life in the boy-germ is just as real, though not as readily estimated. The presence of this interior force sometimes produces strange freaks. We find premature men as well as immature men. There may be hot-bed forcing in the human as in the vegetable world. The growth of the man-life may be repressed or it may be pushed forward. Proof is adduced in the boys who ape men's manners and dress and habits, as well as in the men who are but boys in action and in fitness for life's work. The boys who need the most skillful training are those who have been carried away by the tide of man-life swelling within them, and who have assumed as the motto of their lives, "What man has done, boys may do."

Thus having placed briefly before myself these important elements in the boy-nature, namely, a natural tendency to ignore both past and future, seeking present gratification, an implicit trust in what he hears, an insatiable curiosity to hear and see all that is new and strange, an ambition to excel in whatever comes to hand, largely for the sake of the approval it brings, a real devotion to the party securing his support, an earnest desire to see justice done—to himself, at least—and that hidden life-force which every boy feels, but which no boy comprehends—the question comes, "How shall we treat the being having such elements in composition ?"

Briefly I would answer : Make this boy-life a study, recalling experiences if we are men, and, if not, quickening our observa-

tion. Have no panacea. Recognize individuality. *Educate*, never *break*, the will of the boy. By all means consistent with justice and right, win the boy's support. Have a tender regard for his rights, correcting gently any misapprehension he may entertain as to their extent. Encourage self-reliance. Exercise watchful care in the truest sympathy. In the further elucidation of these topics it is not my purpose to follow the order thus stated, but to give general illustrations with such particular applications as may be suggested.

Before attempting particular study of individual cases, some simple classification may be made which will admit of general treatment in large measure, and to the discussion of which the principles already enunciated will be found frequently applicable. At the outset, then, troublesome boys will be found as belonging to one of two classes :

1. Those with whom bad conduct is a fault.
2. Those whose bad conduct is crime.

The treatment of a fault should be radically different from the punishment of a crime. It has been too much the practice to ignore this distinction in the correction of offenders. The fault will be found apparent in offenses against convenience, but crime is an offense against right living. The fault concerns mainly exterior behavior ; the crime corrupts the interior life. Crime embraces fault, but fault is by no means a crime.

In a few well-chosen words, Mr. Sill, Superintendent of Schools of Detroit, addressed the teachers of Chicago, impressing the importance of this distinction, on the ground that the classing of sins against convenience or good order with sins against moral purity always belittles the latter in the minds of boys. If restlessness, whispering, inattention, and like faults, bad as they may be, are to furnish occasion for stigmatizing the one who commits them as "the worst boy in school," unworthy to associate with his less faulty fellows, what greater punishment can be inflicted for profanity, lying, obscenity, and like offenses against good morals? Such a course, instead of tending to correct a fault, will foster a crime. The child does not reason for himself. He presumes the teacher to have reasoned, and accepts on trust the judgment rendered in the punishment. He goes out believ-

ing that it is no worse for him to swear than to whistle, to steal than to be uneasy in his seat, to lie than to whisper, no worse to be obscene than to be tardy at school. Faults need correction lest they lead to crime, but the judgment rendered against faults must in no case be that which crime merits.

But faulty boys are not all in the same class. Here is one who is neglected at home. He has an improvident father, a disheartened or a neglected mother, perhaps no mother at all. He is in school, ragged and dirty. Of sheer necessity he has kept down pride, and his ambition, thwarted in the direction of a respectable appearance, leads him to brave out the reproaches of his fellows and to assert his independence of rules of decorum. His discipline needs to be that of a wash-bowl, a comb, and a brush; and a neat suit of clothes upon his back will do more than the rod. Many a boy I have seen tided over the shoals of bad conduct by being encouraged or helped into a tidy habit. Here is another who has a physical infirmity, not apparent to the teacher, the exact nature of which the boy does not realize. Forgetful of the past, careless of the future, he gratifies present impulse at the expense of good behavior. He does not feel sick, but he does feel a little ugly, and the least bit of annoyance of his teacher will gratify him beyond measure. A physician's prescription is the best corrective. While I do not believe, with a celebrated physician, that a few leeches applied to the nose will change the moral nature, I have had many cases of ill-conduct brought to my notice which are, without the least shadow of doubt, the direct result of a disordered body. This is especially true of those cases of sudden relapse into sullen or willful misconduct, so distressing to the teacher because of his inability to account for them. Intentional wrong-doing is the farthest from the boy's thoughts, but an evil spirit seems to have possessed him beyond his power of resistance, and an evil spirit prompts the teacher to make an example of such an unlooked-for infraction of rules lest advantage be taken of this usually good boy's misconduct to the overthrow of good order. In such cases of sudden lapses, the wise teacher will look carefully for the incipient stages of disease.

Such as have inherited a nervous organism are objects of

sympathy. Repression increases the difficulty. These are the mischievous ones, restless, eager to find a channel through which their activity may flow. Mischief is only misdirected energy. Its spring is the source of the greatest blessing if confined within proper limits. Levees may confine it, but it can not be dammed.

"He who checks a child in terror,
Stops its play or stills its song,
Not alone commits an error,
But a grievous moral wrong.

"Give it play and never fear it;
Active life is no defect;
Never, never break its spirit;
Curb it only to direct.

"Would you stop the flowing river?
Think you it would cease to flow?
Onward it must move forever—
Better teach it where to go."

You are all familiar with plant-life. The twig, feeling the push of the life-principle in the seed, hurries upward toward the light. You may place a stone upon it. Obeying the inner impulse, it finds its way to the air. The more frequent the effort at repression, the more constant the determination toward free air and unobstructed light. But what distortion results from such treatment, unless, forsooth, a more welcome death comes to the relief of the tortured plant, and too late reveals the unwisdom of the cultivator! Many a crooked, distorted man of to-day bears the marks of the weighing down of his youthful energy. "Oh, that I might do something!" is the agonizing cry of the nervous boy; and he is driven to desperation by the cold command, "Keep still!" "I can not, oh, I can not!" cries the boy. "You must!" is the reply. Thus the conflict goes on, and, under an enforced quiet exterior, there are boilings of hate and plottings of ill which the unwise teacher must realize too late for correction.

There are two classes of faulty boys whose presence in the school-room gives occasion for flank movements and indirect approaches. They are the keenly sensitive and the naturally stub-

born boys. The former watch for slights and provoke them; the latter seem to have been born against their will, and to have grown up with their feet and hands resolutely planted forward. The former are keen-eyed; the latter stiff-backed. Side approaches suit both best. Issues must be avoided. With the former the objective point must be the heart; the confidence and affection must be secured. With the latter the will stands most in the way; it needs not removal, but replacing. Instead of lying across the path of progress, it should be brought into line with it. Like the restless spirit, alluded to a moment since, it needs curbing, directing, training—not repression, nor breaking. A broken will is to me one of the saddest spectacles. It is the broken mainspring of the watch; the escaped steam; the wildly rushing but soon spent torrent. There is before me the picture of a boy of many years since, whose will, turbulent and apparently resistless, was broken as the result of a bitterly contested conflict. Years wore on, to him years of ill success. He was conscious that he could do nothing. His health was good, his appetite voracious, and his indolence unlimited. To such a degree did the consciousness of his inertia grow upon him, that after being waited upon, even to the carrying of wood and water to his room by a lady of threescore and ten years of age for some months, he found relief in the coward's resort—a bullet, that took away the little that was left of his wasted life.

As I approach the consideration of the class whose conduct is crime, I can not refrain from expressing the conviction that some are found in this class who are driven thither by the improper treatment of their faults, by a lack of good judgment in their earlier management. A boy's ambition leading him in the direction of present gratification, especially when healthful home influences are not surrounding him, is the fruitful source of crime. Anxious to take a man's place, he puts on the habits most easily formed, and which are the prominent habits of the men whose company he can most easily reach—the idlers, the loungers, those who, having nothing to do, busy themselves in recruiting for the haunts of the idle. It is useless to sit down to reason with such boys about the turpitude of their conduct.

To quote again from the article before alluded to: "While

he is a child and under the domain of imagination, his wrong-doings can hardly be said to be immoral, nor do they ever look to him as they do to us, who compare his present wrong action with our conception of the perfect future man as he exists in our minds. . . . If he is sensitive, he thinks perhaps, as we enlarge upon the sin, that he ought to feel very naughty, but somehow he can't, and in our zeal we are doing him an evil instead of good."

Our safer course lies in encouraging innocent pastimes where the boy shall find recreation and amusement within suitable limits and amid proper associates. Watchfulness of the sports of boys, and participation in the same on the part of their elders are wise and sure preventives of corrupt practices.

I can not refrain from urging upon parents, though not pertinent to my subject, the discouragement of boys who desire to leave quiet country homes for the cities, where idlers abound and seeds of crime are thickly sown. We are growing away from the conviction that "there is no place like home" for the boy, and are making the boy believe that home is no place for him. While this tendency continues, and parents spend so much time in organizing associations for the benefit of the depraved that they have no time left for their own children, they may find recruits for their charitable institutions from their own offspring. It may be well for many parents to contribute largely toward the building of reformatory institutions in our large cities, for it is not beyond the region of possibility that their heirs may thus derive benefit from the investment.

To return: Let the boys be kept as boys until they can wear easily the robes of men. Their wants must be supplied by those who, under the guidance of kind judgment, feel the throbbings of young hearts and are quick in sympathy. The boys must not be tossed aside with the remark, "They are nothing but boys." They have rights which challenge respect, and, while the boy should be content to keep the boy's place, he must be secured in the possession of that place. Cordial approval of what is right or generous or manly in his conduct will open the way for successful reproof of what is wrong or mean or ungentlemanly. Put yourself in the way of being won to the good part of the

bad boy, and from that standpoint you may be able to correct much that is bad. The sense of justice is often keenest in the wickedest boy in school, especially when displayed toward himself.

His independence may serve a good purpose in the correction of offenses by making him feel the burden of responsibility. Experience has taught me that bad boys love to earn their way back to good society and to a forfeited place in their class. I can point with pride to several such manly fellows who have been trusted, by steps made longer as their strength increased, to walk back into favor, and who are proud in the consciousness of having conquered evil propensities.

The love of achievement furnishes the teacher a ready lever. Let the boy have something to do, and place before him a motive for doing which appeals to present good. Let the thing done be regarded in its most favorable light, as a reward for the effort put forth. This caution only: the act required must be within the ability of the boy, and so conditioned as to make the accomplishment of the first stage easily attainable—each successive stage recognizing the value of the strength gained by the preceding. Self-reliance is of slow growth, but it is a growth. If but a single line of procedure were to be marked for a troubled teacher's guidance, it should be, "*Give the boy something to do—somebody to love.*"

But as for those who are not reached by better surroundings and quicker sympathies, and who do not feel the weight of responsibility nor the spur of wisely directed ambition, the teacher must secure the removal of the offenders from contact with those who are corrupted by their presence—not to a house of correction, or a reformatory, where punishment is kept in the foreground; nor yet to the street; but to the walls of a pleasant school-room, presided over by one selected with special reference to his fitness for such work, where the advantages of good instruction shall be free and wisely adapted to the end sought. Here the bad boy may be free for a time to follow the bent of his own mind as to particular studies until he shall have a new interest born within him, and whence he may return to the companionship of his earlier friends so soon as he shall be found upon the highway toward self-control.

A bad boy is not of necessity a fool. The reverse is, in most cases, true. He has elements of strength, and he admires the same in others. He is quick to discover weakness, and he despises from the bottom of his heart anything that looks like vacillation. Consistent, manly firmness wins his regard. It is vain for a man of weak mind or of weak principles, no matter how sedulously he may attempt to conceal them, to assume the training of a vicious boy. To the keen sight of such a boy the veil of concealment is transparent. The teacher must be as keen-sighted, as quick-witted, and as fertile in expedient as his troublesome pupil. Holding a superior place, he must show that the place is his of right. Recognized superiority held in ready sympathy will secure cheerful obedience.

Conscious that I have touched but very lightly upon some of the more important methods of dealing with troublesome boys—for my time has been limited—I am deeply conscious that one channel of influence has not been pointed out; and here, at the last, I call your attention to the channel opened by Divine power and supplied from sources reached only by him who humbly waits and promptly prays for "that wisdom from above, first pure, then peaceable, gentle and easy to be entreated, full of mercy and good fruits, without partiality and without hypocrisy."

In closing, I would take to myself the injunction, "Keep your heart young." And may the time never come when you shall feel like echoing the sad plaint of Coleridge:

> "When I was young. Ah! woful when!
> Ah! for the change 'twixt now and then!"

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