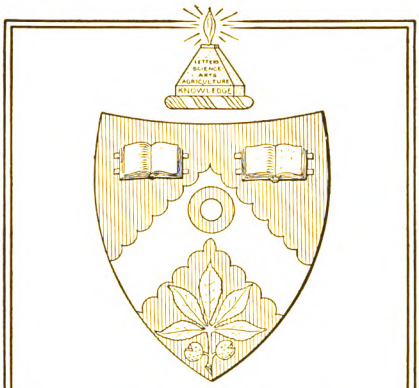

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

AT THE ANNUAL MEETING
HELD AT
WASHINGTON, D. C.
FEBRUARY 25, 26, 27, 1908

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FIRST DAY

MORNING SESSION.—TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1908

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association met in the Metropolitan Memorial M. E. Church, Washington, D. C., at 9:30 A. M., and was called to order by President Frank B. Cooper, superintendent of schools, Seattle, Wash.

Prayer was offered by Bishop Cranston, of the M. E. Church.

President Cooper then introduced Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, speaker of the House of Representatives, who delivered an address of welcome on behalf of the United States government. Addresses of welcome were also given by Hon. Henry B. F. MacFarland, president of commissioners of the District of Columbia; Hon. Willet M. Hays, assistant secretary of agriculture, Washington, D. C.; and Hon. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, United States commissioner of education.

Response to these greetings was given by Dr. F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.

President Cooper then introduced S. L. Heeter, superintendent of schools, St. Paul, Minn., who read a paper on the topic, "In View of the Increased Demands upon the Schools, What Opportunities Are Offered for Economy in Treating the Course of Study?" The paper was discussed by F. B. Dyer, superintendent of schools, of Cincinnati, Ohio, and Frederick E. Bolton, professor of education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

A paper was also read by C. N. Kendall, superintendent of schools, Indianapolis, Ind., on "What Modifications in Organization Are Necessary to Secure Suitable Recognition for Pupils of Varying Ability, Particularly for the Ablest?" A general discussion followed, led by John A. Long, superintendent of schools, Joliet, Ill., and W. H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

President Cooper appointed the following committees:

COMMITTEE ON NOMINATIONS

L. D. Harvey, superintendent of Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis., *chairman.*
H. H. Seerley, president of State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
W. H. Bartholomew, principal of Girls' High School, Louisville, Ky.
Miss S. Belle Chamberlain, state superintendent of public instruction, Boise, Idaho.
Henry Snyder, superintendent of public schools, Jersey City, N. J.

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

F. Louis Soldan, superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo., *chairman.*
N. C. Schaeffer state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.
Lawton B. Evans, superintendent of public schools, Augusta, Ga.
R. E. Denfeld, superintendent of city schools, Duluth, Minn.
Lewis H. Jones, president of State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.

The department then adjourned to 2:00 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The afternoon session was called to order at 2:00 o'clock by President Cooper.

The program for the afternoon consisted of a symposium entitled "The Place of Industries in Public Education." This symposium had been organized and the speakers secured by Jesse D. Burks, principal of Teachers Training School, Albany, N. Y.

The following propositions were introduced for discussion:

1. The ideals of a democracy require a system of public education that shall provide equal educational opportunity for all. Discussion by James E. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

2. Equality of opportunity can be secured only by proper recognition of (*a*) individual differences in native capacities and in social environment, (*b*) the requirements of vocational efficiency as well as of (*c*) general intelligence and executive power. Discussion by Edward C. Elliott, professor of education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

3. The most urgent need of our educational system is an adequate provision for the vocational needs of children destined for industrial and domestic pursuit. Discussion by James F. McElroy, president, Consolidated Car Heating Company, Albany, N. Y.; Benjamin R. Andrews, secretary of departments of domestic economy, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.; W. E. Roberts, supervisor of manual training, public schools, Cleveland, Ohio, and Howard D. Brundage, Stout Manual Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.

4. A comprehensive program of industrial education requires:

a) Constructive activities as an essential and important factor in the elementary school course. Discussion by Miss Euphrosyne Langley, School of Education, The University of Chicago; Frank M. Leavitt, assistant director of drawing and manual training, Public Latin School, Boston, Mass.

b) Intermediate industrial schools, admitting children at the sixth school year and equipping them for specific industrial pursuits. Discussion by Charles H. Morse, secretary of Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education, Boston, Mass.

c) Technical high schools for the training of industrial leaders. Discussion by Geo. H. Martin, secretary of Massachusetts State Board of Education, Boston, Mass.

EVENING SESSION

The evening session of the department was called to order by President Cooper at 8:15 o'clock. The following announcement was made by Roland P. Falkner, secretary of the National Civic Federation, New York City.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

Your Committee has kindly given me two or three minutes in which to outline briefly the plan and purpose of the National Civic Federation to send next winter certain teachers of the United States to England and continental countries for the purpose of inspecting schools of elementary and secondary grades, industrial schools, manual-training schools, and schools for the training of teachers. The scope of the undertaking is indicated by the schools to be visited and the teachers to be selected would naturally be those who in this country are engaged in the same work. The scope of the undertaking is, as you see, practically identical with the universally recognized field of public-school education. The teachers who are selected for this tour of inspection will enjoy the benefit of greatly reduced rates in the steamships of the National Mercantile Marine Company. Recognizing the benefits which would accrue to the teachers of the country and desiring to promote as far as possible the friendly feeling between the two countries, this company has generously offered to these teachers passage to and from Europe at a rate which is about one-fourth of the regular rate. The teachers to be selected will go, not as a body, but a certain contingent in each ship. On arriving in England they will find that Mr. Alfred Moseley, well known to all American educators for his philanthropy and for his public spirit in organizing the Moseley Educational Commission, and later in organizing the trip of the English teachers to the United States, will have entire charge of the arrangements for the reception of the teachers. They will be met on arrival by committees; schedules will be made up of the schools which can be visited with most profit by the different types of teachers interested in corresponding types of education, and all arrangements will be made by these committees to insure to the visiting teachers a cordial reception. The advantages of such a trip to England—and some few can also go to the Continent—are so obvious that they have met with the cordial approval of all to whom this project has been broached; and a considerable number of prominent educators have expressed their approval of this plan and have consented to serve upon an advisory committee. I hesitate to tell

you who they are, because some of them have told me that they did not want to have any correspondence in regard to the matter; that they want all the correspondence to be conducted by the New York office.

The interest of the National Civic Federation and its desire to promote the public welfare is evidenced by their taking hold of this matter. This organization, moreover, as an organization, is profoundly interested in all the problems of industrial education and believes that these problems of industrial education cannot be solved except in connection with the general problems of the public school; and it is desirous that all information that can be obtained thru a visit to foreign countries to see what they are doing along similar lines should be obtained and spread among our people.

In the selection of the teachers who are going to make this trip, of course, our desire is to make as wise a selection as possible. It is not a pleasure trip. It ought not to be so regarded. We feel that it should be looked upon as an opportunity for professional advancement; and it is desired to make the wisest possible selection of the teachers who will profit by such a trip; and to this end the National Civic Federation asks the co-operation of the educators here present. We hope that the teachers to be selected will be predominantly those who are chosen by the superintendents of schools, and by the principals of industrial and normal schools, and who are duly nominated for that purpose by the board of education, or other corresponding educational authority. It is perfectly clear that the nomination should come to us; it is our desire that it should come to us by those bodies who are by law in a position to grant to the teachers leave of absence for this period, and preferably leave of absence with pay. As this is, and should be, an opportunity for professional advancement, we solicit your co-operation that the matter be considered by the educational authorities as a matter of professional advancement, so that the teachers who participate in the trip can do so without sacrificing, or without forfeiting, their regular compensation. We believe that a trip of this kind can be made of great value, not only to the teachers who participate in it, not only to the teachers of the United States as a whole, but that it should be beneficial locally.

We believe that in every community there are certain specific problems to be worked out, and that those in the direction of educational affairs would be helped by sending to foreign countries representative teachers selected by them, with the distinct purpose of investigating those particular things which constitute their own home problems.

This, briefly, is the plan and scheme of the National Civic Federation in this matter. On your return to your homes you will find awaiting you invitations to take part in it. You will find with these invitations, circulars descriptive of all conditions in regard to the visit. These circulars have been printed, and so far as opportunity is given me after this session and during the meeting, I will be very glad indeed to give them to those who may be interested and to answer any questions that I can in regard to this matter.

We hope that this project, undertaken for the benefit of the teachers of the United States, will receive the sympathy and support of the educators here present, and that thru that co-operation the National Civic Federation and those who are associated with it may be permitted to make their contribution to the advancement of education in the United States.

The address of the evening was delivered by Hon. Willet M. Hays, assistant secretary of agriculture, Washington, D. C., and his address was illustrated by a variety of stereoptican views. A general discussion followed, by E. T. Fairchild, state superintendent of public instruction, Topeka, Kan.; Lorenzo D. Harvey, superintendent of Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.; and A. C. Nelson, state superintendent of public instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah.

SECOND DAY

MORNING SESSION.—WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1908

The morning session of the department was called to order at 9:30 o'clock by President F. B. Cooper. The following program was presented:

Topic: The Nurture and Protection of the Physical Well-Being of Public-School Pupils

1. How Can the School Make Contribution of Permanent Value to Physical Development?—Luther Halsey Gulick, director of physical training, public schools, New York City.

2. The Mission of the Play-Ground.—W. M. Davidson, superintendent of schools, Omaha, Neb.; General Discussion led by A. H. Yoder, superintendent of schools, Tacoma, Wash.

3. Medical Inspection in Public Schools as Contributing to Health and Efficiency.—Thomas F. Harrington, director of physical training and athletics, public schools, Boston, Mass. General Discussion was led by E. C. Moore, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.; Miss Sadie American executive secretary of Council of Jewish Women, New York City.

BUSINESS SESSION

President Cooper, at the opening of the business session, called for the report of the Committee on Nominations, which was made by the chairman, L. D. Harvey, superintendent of Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis., nominating the following as officers for the ensuing year:

President—W. H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
First Vice-President—David B. Johnson, president of Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.
Second Vice-President—Ida C. Bender, supervisor of primary grades, city schools, Buffalo, N. Y.
Secretary—A. C. Nelson, state superintendent of public instruction, Salt Lake City, Utah.

On motion, the report of the committee was accepted and unanimously adopted, and the nominees declared elected.

The question of the place of meeting for the year, 1909 was then taken up. Invitations were received from Oklahoma City, Okla.; Rochester, N. Y.; Albuquerque, N. Mex.; and Chicago, Ill. After the presentation of brief arguments in favor of each city as a place of meeting a formal ballot was taken, which resulted as follows:

Oklahoma City	105 votes
Rochester	87 "
Chicago	44 "
Albuquerque	10 "
Total	246 "

Oklahoma City was therefore declared the choice of the department as the place of meeting in 1909.

Señor Ezequiel Chavez, under-secretary of the Department of Public Instruction of the Republic of Mexico, was then introduced by President Cooper, and extended greetings to the Department from the Republic of Mexico.

GREETINGS FROM THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO

Yesterday evening I had the honor of presenting the greetings of the Department of Public Instruction and Fine Arts of the Republic of Mexico to the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A., at which time I expressed the earnest wish felt by the department that in the plans which prepare for the future formation of the coming generations of Mexico and the United States, there should figure not only the ideas, but also feelings of good-will and cordiality which would realize to a great degree the co-ordination of efforts of both countries in the working-out of the progress of the whole American Continent.

I now beg to say that for the purpose of drawing the already existing ties of affection and mutual consideration closer and closer, the Department of Public Instruction of my country has commissioned me to come to state to the Department of Superintendence that the Department of Public Instruction would be highly pleased if the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of the United States, should hold its annual meeting of the year 1910 in the City of Mexico, and there attend the meetings of the chief educational authorities of Mexico, or, failing this, that a commission of representative superintendents be selected to go to Mexico in the said year.

The occasion will be dignified and memorable: at that time the completion of the first century of the independence of Mexico will be celebrated. Mexico has proved in the course of the century of its life, that it has made good use of its emancipation. At the cost of heroic wars, it won for itself the complete separation of church and state, as far back as nearly fifty years ago. Isolated from all nations, except Spain, in the long period of Spanish rule, it now has relations with *all* the nations of the world. She is proud of her long and bitter struggles which have served to bring, with the price of her blood, her independence

and her political rights. The satisfaction afforded to us by a visit of such a delegation will be very great, and more so as it is the intention to form at the same date a national university, the plans for which she has already adopted. She will gladly share that satisfaction with a select group of men such as form this Department of Superintendents, whose work she considers of supreme importance in the organization of the people of this continent.

Next year when the department meets an official communication from the Department of Public Instruction and Fine Arts of the Republic of Mexico will remind you of the invitation which I now share the honor of tendering, so that it can then be acted upon, whether the whole Department of Superintendence hold its session of 1910 in the City of Mexico, or whether only a delegation be appointed.

In one way or another, my presence here, the announcement that I here make that next year the said communication will come, and the acceptance thereof, whether in the full form as we hope, or in the limited one, will permit, I earnestly hope, the very near realization of a great Pan-American Conference of Education, and will bind anew the ties of friendship and good-will of all citizens of this great American continent.

Secretary George B. Cook then reported the following resignations from the Committee on a Universal System of Key Notation, viz.: F. Louis Soldan, of Missouri, and Aaron Gove, of Colorado. To fill these vacancies, President F. B. Cooper appointed President H. H. Seerley, of Cedar Falls, Iowa, and Superintendent W. H. Maxwell, of New York City.

There being no further business, the department, on motion, adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION

One of the most interesting events in the history of the Association occurred at 2:30 P. M. In accordance with a previous invitation, President Roosevelt received the members of the department and a few invited guests, numbering in all about 1,500, in the East Room of the White House, and delivered an address, a report of which will be found among the papers of the department.

The remainder of the afternoon was devoted to various meetings of societies holding sessions in connection with the department convention.

A session of special interest to the Association was the meeting held in the parlor of the New Willard Hotel at 4:30 P. M. for the organization of the new Educational Department of National Organizations of Women, authorized by the Board of Directors of the N. E. A. at their meeting in Los Angeles, Cal., July 12, 1907.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING FOR ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS OF WOMEN

The meeting was held in the sitting-room of the New Willard Hotel, February 28, 1908, at 4:00 P. M. Dr. E. Oram Lyte, of Millersville, Pa., called the meeting to order in accordance with the custom that the one who presented to the Board of Directors the petition for the organization of a new department should preside at the meeting for its organization.

On the motion of Miss Laura D. Gill, Miss Lillian W. Johnson, acting president of the Southern Association of College Women, was elected secretary pro tem.

The chairman read from the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association for 1907–8 Article VI of the By-Laws entitled "Departments" (see pp. 7–8 of the Los Angeles volume). He then asked the Secretary to read from the *Proceedings* of the New Board of Directors for 1907–8 (see pp. 51–52 of *Yearbook*, 1907–8) the petition for the organization of the new department and the minutes of the action of the Board of Directors approving the same.

The chairman announced that the first order of business was the nomination of officers of the new department. The following ticket was presented by the secretary:

For President—Miss Laura Drake Gill, of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.
For Vice-President—Mrs. Frederic Schoff, of the National Congress of Mothers.
For Secretary—Mrs. Philip N. Moore, of the National Federation of Women's Clubs.

The secretary was instructed to cast the ballot of the members present for the nominees. The ballot was so cast and the officers declared duly elected for the term to expire with the Cleveland meeting in July, 1908.

Dr. Lyte then introduced Miss Laura D. Gill as president of the Department and resigned the chair to her. As Mrs. Moore was not present Miss Johnson continued to act as secretary.

President Gill stated that the first business to come before the new department was the selection of a name for the department, and that it would be necessary to appoint a committee to present the name to the Board of Directors of the N. E. A. On motion of Dr. Lyte it was voted to refer the selection of a name to the officers of the department.

Before the motion to adjourn, President Gill explained that membership in the department just organized could be held only by those who were members of the N. E. A., and that membership in one department entitled a member to vote in any and all departments of the N. E. A. After the motion to adjourn was passed, many of those present remained, and there was an informal discussion of the future plans of the department, President Gill outlined the program of the department for the Cleveland meeting.

Among those present at the meeting were:

Miss Laura D. Gill, president of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.

Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president of the National Congress of Mothers.

Miss Lillian W. Johnson, acting president of the Southern Association of College Women.

Mrs. Hugo Rosenberg, president of the National Council of Jewish Women.

Miss Sadie American, secretary of the National Council of Jewish Women.

Mrs. J. N. Phillips, editor of Official Organ of Alabama Federation of Women's Clubs.

Miss Louise Connolly, superintendent of schools, Summit, N. J.

Miss Elizabeth V. Brown, director of primary instruction, public schools, Washington, D. C.

Miss Anna E. Logan, primary supervisor, Ohio State Normal College, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Miss Mina B. Colburn, superintendent of Cincinnati Kindergarten Training School.

Miss Gertrude Edmund, principal of training school, Lowell, Mass.

Miss Elizabeth A. Hayden, teacher in public schools, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Mary R. Gale Davis, Bridgeport, Conn.

(Signed) LILLIAN WYCKOFF JOHNSON, *Secretary pro tem.*

EVENING SESSION

The evening session of the department was called to order at 8:15 o'clock. An address was delivered by Hon. Andrew S. Draper, state commissioner of education for New York, on the subject, "Desirable Uniformity and Diversity in American Education."

THIRD DAY

MORNING SESSION—THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1908

The morning was devoted to various round table conferences, as follows:

(A) ROUND TABLE, STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

Leader, J. B. Aswell, state superintendent of public education, Baton Rouge, La.; secretary, J. J. Doyne, state superintendent of Public Instruction for Arkansas.

Topic: County Supervision

1. What Should a Good County Superintendent Know?—J. W. Olsen, state superintendent of Public Instruction for Minnesota. Discussion by W. S. Sutton, professor of education University of Texas.

2. How Can Trained County Superintendents Be Provided, and How Should They Be Selected?—F. A. Cotton, state superintendent of public instruction for Indiana. Discussion by J. M. Guinn, Department of Education Tulane University, New Orleans, La.; and others.

3. When Inspecting a School What Should a County Superintendent See and Do?—G. G. Joynes, county superintendent of schools, Onancock, Va.

4. What Can the County Superintendent Lead the People to Do?—Lawton B. Evans, superintendent of schools, Augusta, Ga.

5. By Whom Should Teachers Be Selected?—F. G. Blair, state superintendent of public instruction for Illinois.

6. The Relation of the County Superintendent to the County Board.—A. C. Nelson, state superintendent of public instruction for Utah.

7. The Relation of the County Superintendent to the State Superintendent.—W. W. Stetson, Auburn, Maine.

8. The Relation of the State Superintendent to the County Superintendent.—J. Y. Joyner, state superintendent of public instruction for North Carolina. Discussion by State Superintendent C. P. Cary of Wisconsin; and others.

(B) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF LARGER CITIES

Leader, Ben Blewett, assistant superintendent of instruction, public schools, St. Louis, Mo.; secretary, Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.

Two brief papers were presented by J. M. Greenwood, superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo., and George S. Davis, associate superintendent of schools, New York City. The remainder of the time was given to general discussion.

Topic—Teachers: Supply, Normal Training, Placing, Subsequent Training

The following superintendents joined in the discussion, C. N. Kendall, Indianapolis, Ind.; Walter H. Small, Providence, R. I.; I. C. McNeill, Memphis, Tenn.; Addison B. Poland, Newark, N. J.; J. A. Shawan, Columbus, O.; W. C. Martindale, Detroit, Mich.; W. H. Elson, Cleveland, O.; C. F. Carroll, Rochester, N. Y.; J. A. Whiteford, St. Joseph Mo.; Stratton D. Brooks, Boston, Mass.; Henry P. Emerson, Buffalo, N. Y.; Asst. Supt' Henry S. West, Baltimore, Md.; Carroll G. Pearse, Milwaukee, Wis.; William H' Maxwell, New York City, and President John W. Cook, State Normal School, De Kalb, Ill'

(C) ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF MEDIUM AND SMALLER CITIES

Leader, J. H. Phillips, superintendent of schools, Birmingham, Ala.; secretary, G. G. Bond

Topics

1. To What Extent Should State Uniformity Laws Apply to Cities in Respect to Courses of Study, Textbooks and Methods in: (*a*) Elementary Schools; (*b*) High Schools? John W. Carr, superintendent of schools, Dayton, Ohio; Carleton B. Gibson, superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ga.; followed by Superintendents R. K. Buehrle, Lancaster, Pa.; J. N. Study, Ft. Wayne, Ind.; John N. Davis, Stevens Point, Wis.; E. G. Lantman, Port Chester, N. Y.; Principal Edward Conradi, St. Petersburg, Fla.; C. A. Prosser, New Albany, Ind.; W. E. Striplin, Gadsden, Ala.; Vernon Davey, East Orange, N. J.

2. Principles and Methods in Pupil Government, Wilson L. Gill, Germantown, Pa.; Oliver P. Cornman, district superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pa. Discussion was continued by Superintendent Winfred H. Babbitt, Hawaii, E. C. Willard, Stanford, Conn.; and J. H. Phillips, Birmingham, Ala.

(D) ROUND TABLE ON AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Session in the Metropolitan Memorial M. E. Church

Leader, Ernest E. Balcomb, Department of Agriculture, State Normal School, Weatherford, Okla.; E. C. Bishop, State Department of Education, Lincoln, Neb.

Topic: Preparation of Teachers for Agricultural Education.

1. The Necessity of Preparing Teachers—A. C. True, director of experiment stations, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

2. Some Notes on the Training of Teachers—Elmer Ellsworth Brown, U. S. commissioner of education, Washington, D. C.

3. Plans of the Youngest State—E. D. Cameron, state superintendent of public instruction, Guthrie, Okla.

4. The Training of Teachers.

a) By State Normal Schools—John R. Kirk, president of State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

b) Co-operation of State Agricultural Colleges and State Normal Schools—Kenyon L. Butterfield, president of Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.; Alfred Bayliss, president State Normal School, Macomb, Ill. Discussion by Wm. M. Stewart, president, State Normal School, Salt Lake City, Utah.

5. Co-operation between the United States Department of Agriculture and State School Authorities to Promote Agricultural Education—Dick J. Crosby, specialist in agricultural education, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. Discussion by E. C. Bishop, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Lincoln Neb.; George B. Cook, superintendent of schools, Hot Springs, Ark.

At the close of the program, Superintendent Carrington of Missouri, moved that the meeting proceed with the organization of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education. Motion seconded and carried.

Dick J. Crosby moved that we proceed to the election of a president, vice-president, and secretary. Motion seconded and carried.

The following officers were nominated and unanimously elected:

For President—E. C. Bishop, Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Lincoln, Nebraska.

For Vice-President—D. B. Johnson, President Winthrop Normal and Industrial College, Rock Hill, S. C.

For Secretary—E. E. Balcomb, Department of Agriculture, Southwestern State Normal School, Weatherford, Oklahoma.

AFTERNOON SESSION

The department met for its final session at 2:00 P. M., and was called to order by President Cooper. The following was the program of the session:

Topic: The School as an Instrument of Character Building

1. The Function of the School in Training for Right Conduct, Miss Margaret E. Schallenberger, State Normal School, San José, Cal.

2. The School and the Development of the Social Conscience—Mrs. John M. Glenn, Baltimore, Md.

3. An Experiment in Moral Training—Miss Jane Brownlee, Educational Lecturer, New York City. General discussion was led by Reed B. Teitrick, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; and Henry G. Williams, dean of State Normal College, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

At the close of the session the Committee on Resolutions made the following report, which was unanimously adopted.

Report of Committee on Resolutions

Resolved, That the Department of Superintendence recognizes the growing importance and increasing necessity for industrial education. It advocates the close adjustment of school studies to the demands of life. The fitting of the child for a life of industry in shop, farm, or home ranks next in importance to the building of character, the cultivation of intelligence, and, subordinate and contributive to these, the training of the hand, which are the chief aims of education.

The Department of Superintendence believes in the great value of the study of agricultural subjects in the schools of the rural districts.

The Department of Superintendence favors the granting of federal aid to the state normal schools for the training of teachers in the subjects of agriculture, manual training, and home economics.

The department believes that in the large cities provision should be made, by the opening of special ungraded rooms, for the instruction of children of emigrants unable to speak English. Grown children of this class should not be placed in the primary grades with little pupils, but, where feasible, receive special instruction in English, so they may be placed after a short time with children of their own age.

Special provision should be made in every large city where the proper conditions exist for the maintenance of evening schools to instruct adult emigrants in the English language and the duties of citizenship.

The Department of Superintendence is of the opinion that in every large city schools should be maintained for the special care of children who are neglected by nature.

The Department of Superintendence is gratified to receive the information that the National Civic Federation in conjunction with Alfred Mosely have completed plans for visits of American teachers to the schools of Great Britain and the European continent during the coming autumn. The department believes the cause of education will be helped and advanced by the comparative study of the school systems of various countries by competent observers.

The Department of Superintendence respectfully submits for consideration of Congress the fact that the provisions made for the National Department of Education are not commensurate with its importance and the vital national interests which it represents. More liberal financial means are required to carry on properly its work for the study of educational progress and the dissemination of educational information.

State legislatures and school administrators are dependent in every step they take for the improvement of the schools on the information gathered and published by the department and on the advice of its educational experts.

The salary fixed for the office of commissioner of education should be more in keeping with the dignity and importance of the office, and should not require constant self-sacrifice on the part of eminent men that have held that position. The salary paid by the nation to its commissioner of education should not be less than that paid by the large cities to the chief educational officer.

Committee { F. LOUIS SOLDAN, *Chairman*; NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER; LAWTON B. EVANS; ROBERT E. DENFELD; LEWIS H. JONES

The following resolution was offered by A. S. Downing of New York, and after discussion, was passed.

RESOLVED: That the executive committee of the Department of Superintendence, consisting of the President of the Department and Secretary of the N. E. A., be authorized to ascertain whether the hotel accommodations at Oklahoma City are adequate for the entertainment of the Department of Superintendence; and if they shall find that such hotel accommodations are not adequate, that they designate some other city that has ample hotel accommodations as the place for holding the next meeting of said Department.

THURSDAY EVENING

Thru the courtesy of the trustees of the Corcoran Gallery of Art, the Board of Education of Washington, D. C., tendered to the members of the Department and invited friends to a reception at the Corcoran Gallery of Art from 8:30 to 10:30 P. M. Thru the courtesy of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, the United States Marine Band supplied the music for the occasion.

Respectfully submitted,

GEORGE B. COOK, *Secretary*

OPENING ADDRESSES

PRESIDENT F. B. COOPER: The hour of opening having arrived, the department will please come to order.

We will be led in prayer by Rev. Bishop Cranston, of the Methodist Episcopal church.

PRAYER BY BISHOP CRANSTON.

Oh, God, thy ways are not our ways; thy thoughts are not our thoughts; and, yet, we may seek to know thy ways, and may at least endeavor to think thy thoughts. And this is for our edification, and for our best training for all the duties of life. To wait upon thee is wisdom; to commune with thee is to enjoy the highest fellowship of which we are capable. We worship before thee this morning; we worship the Father of our spirits, the Author of our being; we humble ourselves in his presence and confess that in him alone are the fountains of truth; that from him alone must come the light by which our steps shall be guided in the ways of usefulness and service.

We invoke thy blessing upon this assembly, as it shall engage in planning for the better training, the more perfect preparation for life of the youth of our land. While we thank God for our great system of public education, we realize that its efficiency must depend upon those who are entrusted with carrying out its provisions. Therefore, we commend unto thee all those who superintend and all who teach and all who have in charge the general direction of our public schools. We pray that, God in his infinite wisdom, and by his own power, will restrain every influence that is antagonistic to our system of training; and we pray that here in these gatherings, to which these, thy servants, commissioned for a great work, have been invited, and in the discharge of the duties to which they are consecrating themselves, they may realize the presence of the wisdom that is infinite and the guidings of the Spirit of whom and in whose behalf it was promised that He should "guide us into all truth."

Oh, thou Spirit of Truth, preside over these assemblies. Oh, thou Master Teacher breathe thy spirit into all these teachers. Blessed by thy name for the memories that still cling to us of the dear old days when we sat with teachers, learned from their lips, felt the contact of their loving, sympathetic spirits. Blessed be thy name, Oh, thou Christ, for the days and the hours we have spent with thee, our Divine Teacher. We are all children just now, our Father. Holy Spirit, comfort us in the hope that we shall yet attain unto those higher things to which we aspire. May these, thy servants, ministering to the youth of our land, dealing with those who are to be faithful or unfaithful to the empire of intellect—may these, thy servants, dwell together here in safety. May their deliberations be in harmony. May their conclusions as to methods and as to the improvement of the work in their hands be acceptable to God, and for the good of the whole people, for thy Name's sake. AMEN.

THE PRESIDENT: We are honored by the presence of Hon. Joseph G. Cannon, speaker of the House of Representatives, who is here to extend to you the greetings of the general government:

HON. JOSEPH G. CANNON, SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Mr. Chairman, Ladies, and Gentlemen, Citizens:

As speaker of the House of Representatives, of all the co-ordinate branches of the government the nearest to the people, going back, as it does, every two years for approval or disapproval, I look into your faces and greet you.

As I understand, this convention is composed substantially of the superintendents, state, county, and municipal, of the great common-school system of the republic. You therefore represent those who come in intimate daily contact with the fifteen million youth

and children of the land who are being qualified for sovereignty every day in the school year.

A celebrated French poet, Béranger, if I recall aright, said he cared not who wrote the laws of the nation so long as he could write its songs. So, I suppose, it may be said of those who touch elbows daily with the oncoming sovereigns that it matters not to them, if they perform their functions properly, who writes the laws of the nation, because they will be written in the future by those who are now in the schoolroom in the light of intelligent sentiment, created to a great extent by the teachers thruout the country.

Not all teachers are good teachers; not all school superintendents are good school superintendents; not all citizens are good citizens; not all soldiers are good soldiers; not all legislators are good legislators. Perfection is with Deity alone; but, under universal law, humanity works out its own salvation. All teachers might be good teachers, all parents good parents, and all legislators good legislators, yet that alone would not mean perfection to the coming generation. Civilization can grow and be strengthened only as teachers and parents are mutually helpful in instructing and leading those who are in their care to help themselves. To put it in another way, no man can strengthen the muscles of the legs of a child or of another man by walking for him. Each individual has got to do his own walking. But teachers and parents can say, "Here is a pit," or, "If you take that road you will not prosper." Physically and mentally, however, each unit must grow for himself or herself.

The civilization of our country, I say, rests upon the unit, and whatever tends to enable that civilization to rely upon an outside influence without the co-operation of the unit is a failure. Therefore, in the organization of our Government it was made federal and state. The United States, a nation, with a big N—and I would not only make the N big, but the other letters too—is supreme where it has jurisdiction at all, but powerless where it attempts to exercise the jurisdiction of the sovereign states. The great fountain of power is in the states. They should not conflict, but each should "shinny on its own side." By co-operating in their respective fields the republic will continue to grow and grow and grow as it has grown since the adoption of the Constitution of the United States in 1789.

There are certain things touching education that the federal government ought to do, has done, and is doing. As the various commonwealths came knocking at the door of the republic the sixteenth and then the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of the public domain in the boundaries of the various states were given by the general government to form the nucleus of a fund for education, for the common schools. Later on land grants were made to the state universities—magnificent grants, and these, in the main, were magnificently used. Later on there was established a Bureau of Education, which is doing admirable work. The activities of the general government in this field do not directly effect the daily specific education of the students in the common schools. That is left to the states, and properly so; but the investigations carried on and the reports published by the general government are for the common use of those who do come in daily contact with the children of the land in administering the common-school system.

That which costs nothing is not appreciated. Perhaps, one reason why the people of our country think so much of the common-school system is that it is supported by taxation. The parent of the child contributes, along with every other citizen, according to his means, to the support of the school which his child attends. It comes close to him because his child attends it and because he helps to pay for it.

I do not criticize the great institutions founded and endowed by magnificent donations, but I thank God that the great University of Illinois—and my home is within thirty miles of it and for twenty years it was in the district which I had the honor to represent in congress—is mainly supported by taxation of the people o the state of Illinois. It is our institution, and, in common with other citizens of the state of Illinois, I take great pride in it. I would (and I think the average man and woman share the same

feeling) rather live in a humble home, by a hearthstone and under a rooftree, on a little plot which I had earned and which I owned clear down to the center of the earth and clear up to the sky, than to dwell in marble halls coming as a gift from someone else and not earned by me.

This annual meeting—and I understand it is an annual meeting—is, in my judgment, so far as the interests and welfare of the people are concerned, the most important annual meeting, perhaps, held within the boundaries of the United States. So I welcome you and pray that your footsteps may be planted in the right path and that your deliberations may be guided by wisdom. I thank you for the privilege of addressing you.

THE PRESIDENT: It is nineteen years since this department last met in Washington. Prior to that time, nearly all those meetings were held in Washington. Prior to that time, not one meeting had been held west of the Alleghenies. Since that time, most of its meetings have been held in the Middle West. The selection of a location for meetings has not been dictated by mere fancy, but it has been determined by desire on the part of the department to nationalize rather than sectionalize its work and its influence; and so there has resulted a national body, the attendance being at this meeting derived from all parts of this country. Every state on the Pacific Slope, Montana, Oklahoma, the Dakotas and Minnesota, Texas and Louisiana, Maine and Florida, and all that lie between are represented here.

We return to Washington after this long absence, a truly national body. We are glad for what has resulted, and we are glad to come back again to this city. It represents so much that is historic and of national interest. We were assured last year that if we would return again we would be made welcome.

We have with us the executive head, or the head of the executive department, of the city of Washington.

I am pleased to introduce to you Hon. Henry B. F. MacFarland, president of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia.

HENRY B. F. MACFARLAND, PRESIDENT OF COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

Welcome home, Mr. President, and members of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association! Washington is most happy to welcome you back, and Washington hopes that you will come back every year. I am most happy in being permitted to offer these words of welcome for the executive government of the District of Columbia. They shall be very few, ladies and gentlemen, for in looking over your program this morning I was reminded of a letter from a friend of ours in Venice last year, who wrote: "I spend every afternoon on the Grand Canal, drinking it all in; and life never seemed so full before."

We feel that you ought to meet here often, because it is the national capital, and because it is not only the political capital, but, as we believe, the intellectual capital of the country. Here the greatest educational forces; here the greatest educational treasures—both under the control of the national government—are to be found; and here alone. All scholars, and especially all scholars of things American, must come, and do come, to the American capital. Here are the archives and the libraries and the scientific collections; and, above all, the men and the memories from which great knowledge and inspiration are to be drawn. All Americans find delight in the Library of Congress, in the National Museum, in the Department of State with its precious archives. These treasures have the greatest attraction for those who are best able to appreciate them. All Americans renew their patriotism when they visit our historic places—the White House, the Capitol, Mount Vernon; but these give their best to those who can take the most—who bring the most to them.

You, who superintend the greatest system of free public instruction in the world, who have so much to do with making the future of our people, and, therefore, of our history; you, who are yourselves learners, in order that you may be teachers—you will enjoy Washington as many others cannot.

We feel that you enrich our civic life by your coming; that our public schools will feel the benefit of your coming directly thruout the days to come; but we believe also that the national capital will give you more than you can give it, and from this place, this city set upon a hill, your deliberations, your teachings in this great conference, will be flashed to the uttermost corners of our country; yes, and to the islands beyond the seas.

We Washingtonians are very proud to have you see our public schools, founded by our own people more than a century ago, maintained by them, without grants of money or grants of land or grants of any other kind from the national government or the states, until 1878, and maintained since under the present form of government by their equal contribution with that of all the other Americans whose capital this is.

We rejoice in their splendid record. In their centenary celebration in 1905, President Roosevelt, Secretary Taft, and other great statesmen who had tested them in the education of their own children praised them in terms which were echoed by the great body of our citizenship, from which their teachers and pupils chiefly come. No better teachers, no better pupils, no better results, measured by any standard, can, I venture to say, be found in the United States. They are worth all that they cost our people and worth far more to the country generally than the country has ever paid for their maintenance. They are not perfect. They need to be kept up to the march of improvement; we desire that they shall be. Just now, we are making a special effort to secure two million dollars' worth of new buildings and enlarged grounds to make up an arrears in our appropriations of the past ten years; and presently I shall have to leave you, to my great regret, to go before the House Committee on Appropriations, for the purpose of advocating our district budget, which has been under consideration now for some two weeks in that committee; but no difficulty, no disadvantages, no circumstances, have prevented the teachers and the pupils as a whole doing faithful and brilliant work which promises great things for the future.

Here, as in almost every American community, public education is our greatest municipal interest, and calls for the largest item in our annual budget. One-sixth of our population, nearly, is made up of the teachers and pupils of our public schools. Nothing is nearer to our hearts. Therefore, we welcome you, men and women of such distinction, of such influence, of such power, we welcome you with peculiar feelings both of hospitality and expectation and trust that your visit here may be not only beneficial to us, but, in the highest degree, to yourselves.

THE PRESIDENT: Hon. James Wilson, the secretary of agriculture, is not able to be present this morning. Hon. Willet M. Hays, the assistant secretary of agriculture, has consented to appear in Mr. Wilson's place. I have the honor to introduce to you Hon. Willet M. Hays, assistant secretary of agriculture.

HON. WILLET M. HAYS, ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE

Mr. President and Ladies and Gentlemen:

I am glad to give a word of greeting from the world's greatest research institution to the superintendents of the world's greatest public-school system. It is with pleasure that I call to your minds some of the relations of the Department of Agriculture, the state experiment stations, and other research enterprises, in which the federal government takes a leading part, to the work of instruction with which you are concerned.

The Congress annually provides between ten and twenty million dollars for research, mainly along agricultural and industrial lines. Thru our patent laws, by holding out possible royalties to investigators and inventors, it causes other millions to be expended by private individuals and corporations. Supplemented by researches in university laboratories, by amateurs, and others, there are tens of millions annually expended in this country in securing new experimental knowledge of nature and natural law.

That the rapid changes in manufacture, transportation, agriculture, and merchandising largely spring from this research cannot be doubted. This research is being rapidly increased in quantity. The quality also is being improved year by year. Each recent decade has seen the equipment and the output of our research institutions doubled and trebled. A mighty body of technical knowledge relating to the everyday work of our productive classes has arisen; and a mightier body of such knowledge is promised to the next generation.

A part of this knowledge finds commercial channels and at once reaches the people in a beneficent way; as in the form of the sewing-machine, the trolley car, the telephone, the improved type of dairy cow, or the hardy variety of apple. Another very large part serves only as a basic store of facts to be woven into our general knowledge; some as the basic laws to form the framework of academic philosophy and some to be found valuable in unexpected ways. Still another part is usable in a personal way by the farmer, the manufacturer, the mechanic, the home maker, or other person with a specific work to do.

Since our schools are the great avenue thru which this rapidly rising ocean of knowledge must reach the people, there should be the freest contact. The research institutions need this contact that they may better know the form in which to present the facts; and the schools need close association that they may receive and transmit that which is the most useful to the lives of the students with its full power of truth and inspiration.

It is exceedingly important that our university students secure their instruction in departments in which are divisions devoted to researches in which the students can have a share as helpers. The educational value of having our agricultural experiment stations beside and often as organic parts of our agricultural colleges and agricultural secondary schools is very great. The teachers' point of view is broader, more scientific, more practical, closer to the work and lives of the people. The student is made less bookish, and his inspiration is increased to accomplish something by carrying out further the lines entered upon in the work of original research. Engineering experiment stations in our state colleges of engineering, besides rapidly building up the technique of mechanical, electrical, mining, and other classes of engineering, would likewise have large value in their effect on the engineering students, making them better workers, whether they become technicians, teachers, or experimenters.

The United States Department of Agriculture has between nine and ten thousand employees, one-fourth of whom are technicians. Its general administrative work has been rapidly extended by Congress during recent years. The police-like functions of the meat-inspection and the food and drugs acts and the control of insect pests and of plant and animal diseases, as well as the business of forest management, have been especially enlarged. The work of breeding economic plants and domestic animals, in part in co-operation with state experiment stations and with private parties, is being extended into these vast and interesting fields. As the great university-like head of the technical side of our agricultural education, this department has many though rather informal functions and relationships to our state colleges of agriculture, to agricultural secondary education, to college extension, and even to the rural schools. The organic charter of this department being most broad, the secretary of agriculture thru its researches, publications, extension lectures, and demonstration farms, can co-operate with departments of education, with departments of agriculture, or with local institutions in placing its new facts, its new plants or animals, or new forms of education suggested by its work into the schools and into the lives of the people of each and every region. Its cordial relations with national state and local organizations interested in building up the country life of the Union are among its chief assets; co-operation and co-ordination of work it constantly strives for; but to secure results, whether acting along or in co-operation, is its chief policy.

It is very ready to join leaders in all movements to secure valuable facts, to produce better plants and animals, or to educate the people in schools, in the fields, or in the homes.

In this department have become centered not only betterments in agriculture but betterments in home-making. The work on foods and related lines in the office of experiment stations and in the Bureau of Chemistry has begun to have wide relations not only with schools of agriculture but also with schools in cities and with colleges where women attend.

The Department of Agriculture has one wonderful relation to our educational institutions which is only coming into full recognition. Its growing funds enable it to employ graduates and even members of the faculties from our state colleges of agriculture and from many universities and colleges. In return many of its men experienced not only in their specialties but widely acquainted by travel with the agriculture and the people of the entire country are secured as teachers in the faculties of the state schools of agriculture and as workers in the experiment stations. Especially is it advantageous alike to department and state experiment stations thus to have a free exchange of men, carrying out an interchange of knowledge and of standards. This ready exchange of workers prevents the local institution from the stagnation and provincialism which comes from scholastic interbreeding thru building up a faculty of teachers and experimenters mainly of the graduates of the same institutions. It also gives a solidarity, an acquaintance allowing of friendly criticism and even of emulating rivalry, most desirable in a line of effort rapidly creating and utilizing new thought.

Our superintendents who are concerned with country-life education must of necessity come rapidly into co-operative relationship with our national and state institutions of research. The outflowing knowledge must be winnowed, organized, put into teachable form; and it must be given its just place and that portion of time to which its educational values in schools entitle it. Too long neglect of this informational and inspirational body of industrially valuable knowledge would be inexcusable on the part of our managers of education. The time is not far distant when state and especially county superintendents' offices must be filled for the most part by men and assistants who have been trained in agriculture and in home economics as well as in general educational work.

If you were here in any season but winter I would wish especially to welcome you to Washington's outdoors, to enjoy her town lay-out, her streets, her trees, her parks, her zoölogical gardens, and her agricultural experiment farms, three of which lie just beyond the district borders. The growth of American pride in beautifying both our cities and our countrysides, and in building up beautiful urban and rural homes, properly manifests itself with unusual earnestness in and about the national capital. This city is a great and growing example for all our towns to follow, in removing that which is unkept and crude and in developing along broad lines those things which build up pride as well as comfort.

May I not also express to you a word of greeting on the part of scientific Washington? I presume that in no other center in the world is there another such a collection of talent and wisdom along scientific lines. No other city can boast a scientific club with a group of men so widely comprehending the scientific thought of the world as Washington with its Cosmos Club. The Department of Agriculture, the Geological Survey, the Smithsonian Institution, the National Museum, the Carnegie Institution, the Bureau of Standards, the various universities, colleges, and scientific and learned societies and publications centered here constitute a center of research and original study the equal of which is not elsewhere to be found. Washington is the best place to secure a national point of view. The angle of vision more clearly covers all states, all cities, and all localities that each part may better receive its true proportion to each other part and to the whole. More superintendents, more teachers, and more citizens of all classes should visit Washington and, as viewing the city from the great monument, take a view of America from the standpoint of its governmental center.

THE PRESIDENT: In 1865 at a meeting of the National Teachers' Association in Harrisburg, Pa., arrangements were made for a meeting of school superintendents to be held in this city in February, 1866, for the purpose of forming a National Association

of School Superintendents. At this meeting, a paper was read by Hon. E. E. White, state commissioner of schools of Ohio, on "The Formation of a National Bureau of Education." Resolutions favoring this movement were passed, and a memorial to Congress was drawn up and presented in the House of Representatives by General James A. Garfield, at that time a member of the house. The result of this action, with the cooperation of the National Teachers' Association, was the establishment of the Bureau of Education of the United States. While there has been no organic relation between the federal Department of Education and either of the Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. or of the General Association, the commissioners of education have always been warmly and courteously disposed toward us and have been among our most prominent and helpful members.

The names of these commissioners constitute an educational roll of honor, as follows: Dr. Henry Barnard; Dr. John Eaton; Hon. Nathaniel H. R. Dawson; Dr. William T. Harris, and the present commissioner whom it gives me great pleasure to introduce to you this morning, Hon. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, Commissioner of Education of the United States.

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Members of the Department of Superintendence, Ladies and Gentlemen:

It is altogether fitting that this national body of school men should meet in the national capital. The questions we are to discuss here and the things we are to do in our several fields, when this meeting is over, it is fair to claim, are all matters of national concern.

There are two great ends, in particular, which we may hope will be furthered by our meeting of the year 1908 in the city of Washington. There are two great unities which this meeting may promote. In the first place, it may bring about a more perfect union between the forces that make for culture and the forces that make for industrial training. In the second place, it may strengthen the bonds which make of our many state systems of education one national system of education. The greeting, then, which I have the honor to extend to you is a welcome to this twofold opportunity.

To further the union of liberal culture with industrial efficiency—that is a calling, a true vocation, which has come to the schoolmen of this age. The newer education needs to hold fast with the old, for we are a people who believe in educational unity. But if we believe in educational unity it is a unity that finds place for diversity. We have never closed the door against educational experimentation. We care deeply for the achievements of scholastic invention. So, while the newer education needs the alliance with the old, the older education needs enrichment from the new. More and more the forces of real education are to be employed in school education. If this meeting shall further the alliance between liberal culture and productive industry it will mark another stage in the advance of our broad American civilization.

And, then, there is that other opportunity of making the federal principle more widely operative in our educational affairs. Let no one fear the word. The immediate responsibility for the schools under our system rests with the states, and no one who understands the fundamental significance of self-government in our American life would be willing to abate in any degree the sense of state responsibility in this particular. But it does not follow that the nation is without responsibility. It cannot be; for its greatness depends upon the character of its citizens, and that character is formed by all manner of education.

And are the people of the states to find no reinforcement and encouragement for their great cultural undertakings in the fact that they are also the people of the nation? We should all of us say, *Yes*. The sense of nationality is to be added to the influences that tend to educational efficiency. The same people who make the schools of the several states unite in making national institutions and offices for the encouragement of education, and every institution in every state and territory is to be stronger and in better hope for this united work. Best of all, our little growing American citizens in the least

favored and most backward districts of our land are to have their opportunity for schooling in some measure evened up and equalized with that of regions where the best schools are provided; for ways are to be found by which the stimulus and help of the best shall be made to reach and benefit all the rest. Something like this we may understand by the federal idea as an educational idea. It will be asked whether this means national aid to the schools of the states. That is a question on which we should have wide differences of opinion. I will not discuss it here, other than to say so much as this, that the one form in which national aid has already been extended most directly, systematically, and widely, that is, the provision for the endowment and support of agricultural and mechanical colleges, has been an unmistakable success; and its success is shown chiefly in this fact, that it has quickened and not relaxed the activity of the states in the support of the same institutions. But, aside from the question of direct financial aid, there are other ways in which the federal idea is to be realized in our educational life. As notable examples we have our Congressional Library and the educational activities of the Department of Agriculture.

The Congressional Library, under wise legislation and administration, has become a truly national library. As such, it is an object of national pride, and a center of illumination.

The Department of Agriculture, too, commands the unbounded admiration of our people, not only for its other great activities but for the impetus and guidance it is giving to our schools and colleges of agriculture.

The people of the whole land have made these national offices; and now, the whole land and all its people are helped by the service that they render. Both of these great institutions through long years made their way painfully against a very tidal wave of discouragement. Now the change has come. A strong tide of public sentiment, which they themselves have helped to make, now carries them forward to their desired success.

We rejoice in their great gain, for it is a gain for us all. But what has been accomplished as regards the educational side of all of these and other offices of the government must needs be accomplished for the Bureau of Education, which is concerned with schools of every kind and grade. This office of the general government has had its successes, which we have all shared, and in which we have all rejoiced. In recent years, it has given to the world the great work of William Torrey Harris, and that alone is an intellectual and moral service to our whole civilization. It has had approval and support from the schoolmen of the land, and that has been the strength of its achievement. But it has yet to see that support rise into the strong tide of public opinion on which democratic institutions make their way to their largest usefulness. That national sentiment and demand will surely come in time, and not a long time, we may confidently hope. It will come when great bodies of educators put their strength into this national office, making it a center from which they shall draw strength and help in all their undertakings. Such a meeting as this can hardly pass without marking a new stage in that movement. When you go away from Washington, you will have made Washington a little more than ever before a center of educational influence, a power to meet your educational needs. When you come again—and may it be soon—that national tide will be a little more clearly a rising tide. I hope you will feel so much at home here in your own Washington that you will come often and give much here and receive much here, and will make the national habit a strong current in our educational affairs. I hope you will come and see the Bureau of Education as it is today. It has, all told, a floor space equivalent to five square feet for each member expected at this meeting, and the most of that space is crowded with desks and documents and apparatus for doing a work that is your work. And all of it is full of welcome for you. I hope you will come and see it now, and then visit it from year to year and see how it will grow under the help and stimulus that you can give.

Down on the Mall there is rising a great new marble building for the Department of Agriculture. That department has waited long, in quarters altogether inadequate, but its building is now well on the way.

Up on Capitol Hill stands the magnificent home of the Library of Congress. That library was for long years cooped to suffocation in the basement of the Capitol. Now it has space and convenience, which it is indeed fast out-growing with the growth of its public service; but its housing is an honor to the republic.

Down in my office, at Eighth and G Streets, I have on the wall a view of the four-million-dollar house that the State of New York is erecting at Albany for its Department of Education. The building in which I keep this object-lesson on exhibition has been rented for the Bureau of Education by the National Government for the past thirty years, more or less, at a cost of four thousand dollars a year. But the time must come when this office, too, shall emerge from its cramped and dingy housing into quarters more fitly representative of the work for which it stands. The nation is sincere in its conviction that education is among the foremost of our national interests. It cannot long be content without some adequate and visible expression of this conviction in the national capital. The office that was set up by President Garfield is one of the notable acts of his career in Congress, that is now fostered and encouraged by a second Garfield in his capacity as secretary of the interior—the office that was projected, before congressional action was taken, by the school superintendents of the country in convention assembled and that now relies upon this body as a strong tower of its strength—that office cannot but look upon the present conjunction of favoring circumstance as a possible turning-point in its history.

This week, in which the Department of Superintendence meets, a congressional committee is considering a bill for some next steps in the bureau's expansion. Farther off we may see some hope of enlarged quarters and more adequate resources. With a little faith and imagination, we may anticipate the time when a national education building will at least match the present building of the Library of Congress, and that with a commensurate departmental or university organization. And when these anticipations have become a reality, this great body of school superintendents may expect a royal welcome or, better yet, a truly republican welcome, in that national building. It shall have halls and committee rooms for your meetings. You shall find in it a work that shall give you all manner of pride and satisfaction. In every way it shall be made clear to you that that house is your very home, and that your work is a part of the very work that this republic chiefly delighteth to honor.

We welcome you today to the things that are, in the strong confidence that you will help to realize the hope of better things to be.

RESPONSE

THE PRESIDENT: Response to the greetings will be made by one who has been an active member of the National Education Association for thirty-one years, and was at one time its president and who still lives—gloriously lives. I am glad to introduce

F. LOUIS SOLDAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF INSTRUCTION PUBLIC SCHOOLS, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Yes, he "still lives," and is glad to be alive this morning and to listen to the words of welcome which all of us have enjoyed and for which all of us will return to our homes better teachers and better leaders.

I beg to thank the gentlemen who were here with us this morning, in the first place, for their presence. Of a great French woman, Madame de Stael, is was said—and when I first read this I did not quite see the meaning—"To have known her is an education." Well, it is a bit of education to have met Mr. Cannon, whom the whole world honors. We were glad to listen to him, because, in the first place, the presence of the Speaker of the House of Representatives seems to show that the quiet work in the schoolroom, the mod-

est, everyday effort, to which you devote your life, is seen in the true light of its importance by that distinguished man. We are glad that he gave us this morning an hour of his busy time, because his presence was evidence of the importance he attaches to the cause of education. His first words of introduction were that he represented a co-ordinate branch of the government. May I reply, on behalf of the department, and with due modesty, that we wish to shake him by the hand and to say to him that the fourth co-ordinate branch of the republic, namely, the educational agencies of our land, feel honored by the welcome from the co-ordinate branch which he so well represents. General education is co-ordinated with every part of our government because it forms the broad and indispensable basis of the splendid system of democracy which the genius of our people has reared, and proposes to lead to higher steps of perfection.

The branches of the government, the legislative, executive, and judicial, ultimately depend for their success on the intelligence of the masses, on the prevalence of good sense and character. In this sense, we may say without fear of contradiction that general education is co-ordinated with the three branches named in our system of government.

It was a great lesson to listen to Speaker Cannon for another reason, and, if it were not infringing on his modesty, we would state it. We would say that we understand well the old saying: "The voice of the people is the voice of God." The beautiful church in which we are holding our meetings is dedicated to divine service, and from its pulpit the word of God is proclaimed to the congregation. Today we have listened to the voice of the people thru one of its noblest representatives, a good example of American manhood rising from the masses.

It has been the good fortune of our nation to have great leaders rising directly from the ranks of the common people, like Abraham Lincoln, and filling the world with admiration for their integrity of character, their good sense, strength of purpose, and ideal aspirations. These leaders fill us with ever new respect for the great and silent masses of whom they are typical representatives. They lend to the practice of universal education ever new charm and interest, because the children of today will be leaders of tomorrow. We honor the distinguished man who addressed us this morning for what he is and what what he represents.

While Mr. Cannon spoke with reference to some problems concerning his own sphere of activity, some of his remarks may be applied with advantage to the administrative problems in education. Speaking of the wisdom of observing a strict demarkation line between the functions of the various branches of government, he said, in jest: "Build up your fences and let each man shinny on his own side of the fence." There is need of such observance of a demarkation line in the administration of school affairs. We recognize that in the schools the voice of the people must be heard thru their representatives in school boards and committees. The financial administration and legislation are theirs. But it is also true that there is a side of the fence which belongs to the expert in education and the teacher, and where they should be allowed to use their judgment with decisive effect.

I wish to thank another representative of the government also for his presence and his words. I refer to our distinguished Commissioner of Education. The other day we read in the daily paper in our home of the wise plan proposed in Congress to build ambassadors' residences in the various capitals of Europe so that our ambassadors and ministers might be housed consistently with the dignity and importance of our country among the nations of the world. There is an ambassador residing here in Washington who represents every school child, every teacher, and every school in the country; he represents the educational interests of our whole nation. To our educational ambassador, Commissioner Brown, our wishes go forth that his hopes in regard to a proper building for the Department of Education may be realized; and, moreover, that the importance of the educational ambassador himself and his work at the seat of government may be recognized in Congress as it is recognized by every teacher in the land.

I wish to thank the representative of the distinguished Secretary of Agriculture for his words of greeting. While listening to them with interest and pleasure, the question arose in my mind: Why is the Department of Agriculture especially prominent in the greeting extended to this national meeting of educators? The answer suggests itself readily. It was an old and unsolved problem of the chemists to find a universal solvent which would mix with all elements and combine with them. In spiritual matters, in institutional and economic questions, such a solvent that will mix with all things has been found. It is brain power and character. When man puts brain power and character into the least little bit of material world and transforms it by his labor and intelligence, you may have something of infinite value. The Department of Agriculture and its great scientists, in dealing with agricultural subjects, have succeeded in almost transforming vegetation. They raise luscious fruit on soil converted from arid deserts in the south and they cover vast plains of the north with miles of new grain that can withstand the cold. Burbank, the wizard of California, has raised entirely new kinds of fruit and vegetables and has transformed the prickly cactus of the desert into a plant useful to man. Putting brain into grain makes it produce a thousand-fold. The Department of Agriculture has been engaged in that line for ten or twelve years, in investigation and the dissemination of scientific information which has made the cultivation of the land more intelligent and resourceful. The farmer more and more is taught how to put brains into his crops.

The teacher is doing a similar thing. He is trying to put into the lives of millions of children the elements of intelligence and character. We thank the kindred department for its words of welcome.

We appreciate the hearty welcome of the representative of the city of Washington. He spoke of the last department meeting held here twenty-one years ago and how Washington has grown and developed since that time. Washington, indeed is a new city and it does look to the returning visitor twice as large. While I listened to its representative this morning, I could not help applying Bishop Whateley's remarks by saying in my own mind: The United States is indeed like Ireland, because its capital is always "Dublin." It is doubling in more than one way. Its schools have grown immensely; and the great features of her educational system have grown in excellence and extent. Many features of the Washington school system are as worthy of study and admiration today as they were twenty years ago: her excellent corps of teachers, the wonderful force of public opinion back of the schools which keeps the children in attendance with hardly any loss from the first to the eighth grade and thru the high school. Look at the attendance records of the schools of Washington, and see what tenacious hold the system has on the children. All honor to the citizens of Washington for it! That marvelous system of schools maintained here for colored people; the problems worked out by the colored high school here—I cannot go into details—but think of it: the direct preparation for vocational life without separating the students into minute classes and subdivisions; the fact that they invite the boy who wishes to take up manual labor to take a part of the high-school education, and that they train him practically for some useful occupation and give him a certificate, say, for two years' work. The organization of the colored high school induces even those boys to attend who cannot afford four years, but two years only, by offering special short courses. The high school sends colored boys directly into pursuits which without the high-school education would be closed to him. All honor to the Washington schools! And we are glad for this additional reason to receive the greeting of the commissioner of the district.

Of course, we express the hope, without meddling in what does not concern us, that the old slogan may soon be repeated, which I used to read when I was a young man and the country during the Civil War was anxiously awaiting for news from the armies: "All is quiet along the Potomac."

A word of conclusion. Grave questions present themselves to the educational world today. The problem which is before us and which will have to be solved by the schools

is the problem of industrial education. When the demand for vocational training is advanced we are reminded of the fact that many claims are constantly being made on the schools. If vocational training is undertaken by the state, each vocation will have the right to be considered. To find a solution for this problem and yet keep the schools from changing to class institutions instead of remaining the "common" schools for the whole people, is indeed a problem beset with difficulties.

The name "common" schools, schools for all classes, for all vocations, for the education of all ranks together, in mutual good will, has gradually superseded in meaning the older term of "public" schools, which was the name given at a time when at least in one section of the country the public school was the one to which the poor alone sent their children. The achievement found in the transition from that old condition to the present position of the schools, by which they have become the common school for all the people, must not be sacrificed by splitting the schools into vocational institutions. The friends of industrial education have no such purpose in mind.

On the other hand, we are alive to the validity of the claim for industrial education, and we hope that the meeting which begins today will contribute toward the satisfactory solution of that grave and important problem.

On behalf of the Department of Superintendence, I thank all who have spoken for their words of welcome, and declare the intention of the members of this body that the meeting itself shall be worthy of the preface.

PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

IN VIEW OF THE INCREASED DEMANDS UPON THE SCHOOLS WHAT OPPORTUNITIES ARE OFFERED FOR ECONOMY IN TREATING THE COURSE OF STUDY?

S. L. HEETER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA

The saving of time and energy—the opportunity for economy in the work of public education—must be sought, first of all, in an economy of aim looking toward education for efficiency in our industrial society. Economy in treating the course of study, economy in the selection, adaptation, and presentation of subject-matter presupposes an economy of aim.

We are proud and justly so of what we are prone to believe to be the finest public-school system in the world, a system which has developed marvelously along pretty definite literary, scientific, and professional lines; but there is a growing feeling that the historic curriculum is unbalanced and one-sided, that we have built up a system of schools whose academic courses best meet the needs of the minority. In the stress of rapidly changing social and industrial conditions, we have offered the means of knowledge to the millions, but our schools have not yet risen to their responsibility as instruments of the state in the development of popular efficiency. They have developed on the democratic theory that all children are equal and that we must offer equal opportunity to all, but we are now forced to see that all children are not equal, and what may be a valuable opportunity to one may be no opportunity whatever to another. Reports from all parts of the country indicate that the majority of boys and girls come to a point in our elementary schools where they fail to find

genuine opportunity; they fall short in intellectual processes, arrive at a state of arrested development even inside the schools, drop out at fourteen or as soon as they can evade the law, and enter, once for all, low-grade industrial pursuits, and lives of social, moral, and financial uncertainty.

Here is the condition, directly facing us in all our work, which must be reckoned with in our efforts to save time and energy—to economize in education. It is not my purpose to lay the blame on the short-sightedness of childhood, nor on the blindness of parents, nor on the selfishness of employers of low-grade child-labor, nor on the indifference of the public, but to inquire into our school aims and into our school curriculum for elements which seem to permit, possibly encourage, the condition pointed out.

At first thought it would seem that school authorities have the only part to play in the solution of this problem, and the remedy should be sought in a strict enforcement of compulsory education laws. This has been the first move everywhere, but I desire to emphasize the fact that the rational development of an educational system that counts for popular efficiency will not culminate in a condition under which attendance must be forced by external authority, but in a condition which in itself possesses compelling power sufficient to hold boys and girls longer in training. Such compelling power must come from within, more than from without, and it can be secured not so much thru compulsory measures, as thru a reasonable adaptation of the training offered by the schools to the concrete needs of society.

It is gratifying to follow the successful movements that have brought real opportunity to the negro and the Indian; to our own mentally, morally, and physically defective, and especially, to our juvenile delinquents and youthful criminals; and, yet, our extended system of popular education will reach its fullest development not in schools of discipline, ungraded rooms, parental schools, and detention homes, not in any special schools, but in the continued evolution of a democratic aim in education to the extent that nothing shall be negligible in the investigation of the individual needs of all children in our industrial society, and nothing negligible in adapting our educational aim, materials, and methods to their needs in view of special aptitudes, varying capacities, and prospective careers.

Here is the problem, whose solution is as new as our twentieth-century city and our present form of industrial life. The school has taken over most of the responsibility for education which it formerly shared with the home, the farm, and the forest. The school has taken over most of the responsibility of preparing the rank and file for the society in which they are to live, but as yet we have not discovered how to supply the important elements in education that in other days were provided thru activities outside of the school. There is a chasm between our educational system and our modern industrial life. On the one hand, discouraged boys and girls, abnormals, dullards, truants, and delinquents find themselves unable—mentally, socially, and physically unable—to continue with credit in our culture programs. On the other hand, science, invention,

and specialization continue to withdraw them from the old-time chores, the light jobs and occupations, from the fireside, farm, and workshop, and transplant them behind the closed doors of our factories. The schools so isolate themselves from the industrial world, and receive so little inspiration from the industrial age in which we live, that thousands of boys and girls leave the elementary schools year after year with only the rudiments of book-learning to find themselves helpless in the whirl of our industrial society, and drift about from one low-grade pursuit to another, or swell the crowd of improvident juvenile tramps.

And so we are forced, absolutely forced, to a reorganization of our educational aims, having in mind the interests of the majority. We dare not boast of a system of universal education as long as our free schools are maintained to support the professions to the neglect of the vocations; as long as our high schools are dominated by the idea of books and preparation for college, and as long as our elementary schools are controlled by the idea of the making of a worthy life without giving the capacity to make a worthy living. The point is, there is still a lingering mediaevalism in our school aims taking as its ideal a wornout conception of culture. The making of a cultured life was a sufficient aim in the days of academic seclusion, in the days of Greece with its dominant slave-owning oligarchy, but we are called upon today to train American boys and girls, in an industrial democracy, and if we are in earnest about universal education, we must abandon all one-sided aims and ideals and recognize that our educational system succeeds just to the extent that we make it focus upon the individual needs of each member of society.

My conclusion thus far is that the very spirit of the day is demanding of educators truth and directness in all their aims. The very first economy in education must be an economy of aim. A system of public education that aims to provide equal opportunity for all, should be so organized, equipped, and directed as to offer some genuine opportunity to the majority—opportunity to secure such knowledge and training during school life as will enable each individual to make the most of himself and render the largest service to society. All education today must aim at efficiency. The very first element in a successful life, and the very first service of an individual to society, are the disposition, the determination, and the ability to make a living. I sincerely believe that we are at the beginning of a great development of primary industrial education in this country thru the channels of popular education.

And now, as to the course of study itself, the materials with which we work. Economy of subject-matter must follow an economy of aim. There must be no inconsistency in any argument for economy of time and energy which would at the same time increase the demands upon the schools. The elementary program has been referred to as a heterogeneous mixture, a kind of stew, a hodge-podge of many ingredients. We hear a constant cry against the multiplicity of subjects that have found their way into the schools. Yet here is not where we break down. Let us be careful. The problem of the course of

study, the solution of which leads to economy of time and energy, is not a problem of closing our eyes and eliminating certain subjects bodily from the curriculum. The activities and studies that make up our program from the kindergarten thru the high schools, the games and plays, the arts and crafts, the industries and occupations, the elementary sciences, drawing and music, the laboratories, gymnasiums, school gardens, and shops, these are not mere accidents. They are abiding realities arising with the conscious needs of our complex social and industrial organizations. The problem before the school is not that of a wholesale elimination, not a problem of getting rid of this subject or that, but one of interpreting and proving relative values of materials, activities, and studies in the light of the new aim in education.

It is no longer a problem of enrichment of the course of study, once considered the panacea for all the ills of the schools, but one of arriving at essentials and fixing upon fundamentals and potentials in every subject taught. The old school was burdened by its own limitations and so narrow was the conception of its teachers that every lesson began and ended in drill on isolated facts. The reaction came none too soon, bringing about an enrichment that reduced brute memorizing, broke away from lifeless matter, opened up to the teacher broad fields of material; and yet after two decades of such enrichment, our curriculum has become so extensive, so comprehensive, so far-reaching in its scope and significance, that its outlines fairly bewilder, if not overwhelm, our very best trained teachers. The time has come when school authorities should call a halt on enrichment and realize that content of study has been sufficiently outlined.

I cannot help feeling that too many children are dropping out of our elementary and secondary schools dazed and bewildered from a superficial treatment of elaborate academic courses. On the one hand our teachers have absolutely no time to stop for the sake of thoroness; on the other, they simply refuse to leave details alone. If a boy finds himself forced to be a wage-earner and wishes to increase his earning capacity, he should receive in four years at high school such a grounding in practical arithmetic, plain English, and typewriting as to be able to go out into our offices and put out of business the lads who spend eight weeks in our business college. I wonder if we are crowding back upon high-school boys and girls pure mathematics, institutional history, and abstractions in science beyond the experience and comprehension of childish minds. I am sure there are still too many science courses between the lids of the books, not enough applied physics and chemistry. Too many laboratories, instead of being an interesting workshop for boys, are given up to abstract discussions of scientific laws. A child has no business working in historic geology and running about nights playing at astronomical observations before he has an everyday practical acquaintance with physical, commercial, and industrial geography. Our free elective system should not lose sight of prerequisites. So far as the high school is concerned a certain amount of arithmetic should come along with higher algebra;

spelling before or at least along with dramas and novels; a legible handwriting before design in color; typewriting before stenography; home geography before astronomy; physiology, hygiene, and domestic economy before zoölogy, and so on.

And now what are my recommendations? It is easy enough to generalize, but what are the concrete possibilities?

First: Let us get together on such simplification of academic subject-matter in the first six grades of our elementary schools as will afford a practical basic training to every child—a broad basis of general culture and efficiency for every boy however humble the home, and however circumscribed the course of his destiny. It may mean in arithmetic the elimination of complex fractions, metric systems, Troy and apothecary's weights, compound proportion, mensuration of trapezoids, trapeziums, cones, spheres, and pyramids, until all pupils have mastered the multiplication tables and become accurate in fundamental operations. It may mean in grammar the abolition of all guesswork in parsing and of fine discriminations in sentence analysis, until all children, even in our poorer districts, are given a sure grounding in practical language training. In writing, it may mean less wrangling over the uniform slant of letters and more consideration for the development of an individual, intelligible hand on the part of each child. In drawing, it may mean nothing more than the cultivation of such artistic sense as will help boys and girls to wash their hands, comb their hair, clean their nails, and put their desks in order. Some things in all subjects are surely fundamental. It remains for us to agree upon these.

Second: We must introduce into the daily program of the first six grades, including the kindergarten, a comprehensive system of primary industrial training whose varied and graduated activities may be pressed, daily instead of once a week, to the very highest point of interest and usefulness, but never to drudgery, routine, or arrested development, thus stimulating and encouraging rather than neglecting and distorting the very impulses, the instincts of construction and production that lie at the basis of success for the individual as well as for our industrial society.

Third: As to our seventh and eighth grades—we are called upon to reorganize our educational aim as well as our courses of study in these two upper grades upon the basis of vocation as well as mental achievement. We must socialize and industrialize our so-called *grammar* schools, must give a richer civic content to all studies and activities by the emphasis of such arithmetic, handwriting, and spelling as will meet the requirements of business; by drawing less artistic, less decorative, and more mechanical; by more practical language training and less formal grammar; by more attention to the commercial and industrial aspects of geography, to the civic and institutional side of history, and by more frequent observation and by closer study of the leading industrial materials and processes of the community.

Fourth: We must decrease the school hours, so far as formal studies in the

grammar schools are concerned, for certain boys and girls forced by circumstances to go early to work, but increase the time correspondingly for such pupils to be given to industrial training and commercial subjects to the extent of utilizing a larger variety of suitable materials and processes from the various leading industries of the community, ending possibly in a closely articulated elementary system of apprenticeship between the grammar schools and leading industrial enterprises.

Fifth: In addition to night schools for the laboring classes maintained strictly for all over sixteen years of age, there should be set aside in every city a certain number of rooms for half-day continuation schools, some in the morning from eight o'clock until twelve, and some in the afternoon from one o'clock until five, for boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen forced by necessity to go to work, such schools to be under men teachers, the board of education in every case to maintain a labor bureau to whom every employer of child labor must apply and by whom every certificate must be issued.

Sixth: The saving of time and energy in public education will be encouraged by the abolition of the old-time, classical high school as such, and by the introduction of general manual-training and commercial courses into all high schools; by the establishment of city high schools on the district plan, pushing them out to the people and increasing the number as attendance will warrant, thus making the high school less a school for the privileged classes and more and more a part of our common-school system.

Seventh and last: The scheme for popular education for all-round efficiency will be complete in the establishment of at least one secondary industrial school in every city, which shall afford in addition to its general courses, the opportunity to specialize in mechanic arts, home economics, and commercial subjects, offering two-, three-, and four-year courses; such schools to be supported locally with additional encouragement as soon as possible in the way of organization and maintenance from the state and federal government, leaving the establishment of special trade schools for adults aiming solely at narrow, specialized skill, to private endowment or even to the state, but entirely beyond the system of free, public education. All educators, superintendents of schools, and boards of education interested in general efficiency in our industrial society may safely encourage the establishment of independent trade schools turning out productive economic units and preparing for jobs, but we should take the stand that all independent apprenticeship systems and special trade schools should keep hands off of our boys and girls under sixteen years of age, and the entire responsibility for education of children looking toward general efficiency should be thrown upon our system of public education.

DISCUSSION

F. B. DYER, superintendent of schools, Cincinnati, O.—In the foregoing thoughtful paper there is one point to which I shall offer a mild dissent. I refer to early industrial

efficiency on the part of our pupils. Carlyle said his father was not simply a shoemaker, he was a man who made shoes. Efficiency is a blanket term, for efficiency in a democracy is a complex matter. While it includes vocational fitness, it includes much more. To be confidential, it seems to me that this term "efficiency," the slogan of recent educationists has been sadly overworked of late. It has lost its special virtue, its *divinum quiddam*, its Socratic daemon, so to speak, and should be decently shelved in the museum of pedagogical cant. At least, can we not take it for granted as we do the gentlemanly virtues? I know it would leave many of us for a time without much to say, but this would give us an opportunity to think, and would reduce the volume of our educational proceedings to readable proportions. This is meant not as a protest against anything that has preceded, but as a protection in what is to follow.

I have observed the occupations of people that live near the route from my residence to my office. There are three candidates for the presidency of the United States, two congressmen —politics is something of a profession in Ohio—physicians, brokers, manufacturers, plumbers, tailors, all of them representatives of at least 128 honest trades, professions, or businesses, as distinct as those I have enumerated. Yet these people have so much in common, in spite of the bewildering variety of ways they have of making a living, that the neighborhood seems to be fairly homogeneous.

Because of the diversified industries and vocations in American cities, the problem of vocational training is peculiarly difficult. It is a very different problem in cities of Europe where industries are specialized along one or two lines, and where children usually follow the calling of their parents.

The superstructure of vocation, however varied, seems to need much the same sort of solid foundation of character, intelligence, and knowledge of civic duty and natural law. It seems to me possible to find mental food that is good and wholesome, for all normal children at least to the age of 14.

But the discussion this afternoon will bring out whether it is wise to begin the differentiation of children at so early an age as 12, and to fix their bent at the dawn of adolescence; the topic of this morning evidently was planned to consider whether by good management we can make room for many things we are not doing, without the loss of anything of importance which we are doing.

I believe we can. I shall not discuss the possible reorganization of our materials so that all manual work shall be the expressional side of other school activities. If this is brought about at all, it must be by painful evolution after many experiments and failures. I hope that many will try it, so that we may profit by their experience.

METHODS OF SAVING TIME

We can save at least one-fifth of our time (1) by the elimination of obsolete or worthless matter, (2) by due regard for the laws of physical and psychical development in the assignment of time for subjects and the arrangement of material, and (3) by more expert presentation and consideration of the material in the classroom.

When the three R's constituted the curriculum, it was necessary to expand them mightily to occupy the child for eight years. There is no reason now why they should remain dropsical. We can tap arithmetic, geography, and grammar, and reduce their bulk one-half without irreparable loss to this world or the next.

As to assignment of time for different subjects, it has been pretty conclusively demonstrated that an excess of time given to such subjects as spelling, penmanship, and formal language exercises, so far from benefiting children in those subjects, leads to dissipation of attention, decrease of effort, and poor results. In drill exercises of all sorts, the shortening of the time increases the intensity of application, and therefore the rapidity and accuracy. A daily five-minute drill on mathematical processes, and a half-hour for study of problems adapted to the experience of the child will probably accomplish more in the end than an hour a day even of the same character of work.

The selection of topics may be made with an eye single to the requirements of our civilization, but the ordering of this material must be with an eye single to the laws of growth. We must begin with the things the need of which the child can feel and see, and must arrange the matter so that as the child's interest and experience expand, that topic which is nearest will be considered next.

But I wish to address myself particularly to the third method: *Economy in the schoolroom, in the presentation of the material.* We superintendents are so busy inventing tables, pigeon-holing statistics, ordaining courses of study, and handing down misfit syllabuses (mostly second hand) that we have no time to spend in the classroom, assisting to eliminate the waste there. This is a pity—not that some of us could render much assistance there, but because it would enable us to attack the problem of economy in teaching with a better understanding of the conditions.

The Schoolmasters' Club of my city has been giving this year to a study of the extent and the causes of the waste of time and energy in the schools. I shall not tell you the extent, for if I did, someone might go home and brag how much better he does things. But I shall enumerate some of the causes, for after a visit to several cities I believe these are not altogether local. I shall confine myself to—

CAUSES OF WASTE IN THE SCHOOLROOM

1. Insufficient attention to the formation of habits—especially habits of study and self-help, but also habits of order and cleanliness, of promptness, of consideration for others, of honor, and trustworthiness. The teacher should see that the mental attitude is in the direction of right ideals, and then should stimulate the child to fix these tendencies into habits, by continual exercise in the school activities. This should be the controlling motive in the discipline, and to this end the intelligent co-operation of the home should be sought. Herein, according to our critics, our American schools fall short.

2. Lack of preparation in advance of the matter to be presented and illustrative materials to be used, resulting in random firing, all along the line. Departmental teaching is a partial remedy in grammar grades.

3. Lack of perspective in the use of details to bring out the essential ideas, with the result that essentials and nonessentials are hammered on with equal fervor. This arises from a mistaken notion of thoroness and from an indiscriminating use of the memory in excessive drills and upon ill-digested facts on the one hand, and in failure to emphasize forms and concepts that are necessary to progress on the other.

4. Not a clear enough distinction between that part of schoolroom management which should become routine, and the occasional part which requires deliberation and decision. Unnecessary time is devoted to distributing and collecting materials, preparing forms, giving orders and countermanding them, getting ready for recesses, and getting down to business afterward.

5. Unstimulating teaching that does not arouse the children to joyous activity. I do not refer to weak personalities, for whom there is little hope, but to trained teachers with a full stock of devices and best ways of doing things. Artificiality and insincerity will accompany skill, unless the teacher keep her sympathies and interest very much alive.

6. Unsupervised and excessive written work. Writing is likely to be the chief means of expression and occupation in mass teaching. Tests are convenient devices to keep a class quiet when the teacher wants a rest period.

7. Infrequent reclassification and inflexible systems of promotion, classes so large as to prevent attention to the individual at the moment of his need, the presence of defective children with normal children. These overtax the teacher without commensurate results.

8. Inattention to the physical condition of the schoolroom, and to the physical condition of the pupils. Expert medical assistance in the schoolroom is indispensable, not only to determine physical conditions, but to advise concerning the needs of abnormal children.

That the loss of time and energy is very considerable in many schools is evidenced by the following estimates, which I believe are not exaggerated: In our large cities 50 per cent. of the pupils are one year or more behind the normal age of their grade, and 20 per cent. are two years or more behind their grade. More than one-half our pupils do not get farther than the sixth grade, perpetuating an illiterate proletariat in our cities, tho by law all are kept in schools until they are fourteen, and by expert estimate only about 5 per cent. are too defective mentally and physically to do the work.

I do not charge that this is due wholly to waste in the schoolroom, but I believe that conditions can be brought about that will economize the time in the schoolroom to better advantage.

Among the means of securing better conditions, I can discuss only one.

The principal or head-master as the important factor.—Instead of frittering away time about the office, more than half of his energy should be given to supervising in the literal sense of looking over, not overlooking, children at their work.

1. It is for him to discriminate between children of different capacity, and advance each with appropriate rapidity (acknowledgments to Dr. Eliot), to see that the lazy are stimulated, the dull are awakened, the bright are employed, the indifferent are interested, the unruly are regulated, the failures are investigated, the absentees are brought to book.

2. It is for him to arouse the home to a full appreciation of its responsibility in the training of the children, to secure the intelligent co-operation of parents and teachers, and to ally with himself the social agencies of his community for civic betterment.

3. It is for him to see that the school plant is kept in good physical condition, with regard to temperature, ventilation, cleanliness, and repair, to see that the teaching apparatus is on hand and in good condition when wanted, and to see that it is wanted.

4. It is for him, with the assistance of such helpers as we can give him, in the classroom and thru teachers' meetings, to improve the method of instruction and of discipline, to see that the emphasis is placed upon the essentials (and this includes the essential habits and ideals of the children, as well as the fundamentals of the various branches of study), to keep the sympathies and interest of the teachers keyed to the proper tension, and to bring the whole school up to the standard of the best teachers in it.

In short, some may propose one method, and some another, to eliminate the waste in the schoolroom due to mass teaching, but in any system an intelligent principal is the key to the solution. It is for us to see that he rises to his responsibilities and that he has the assistance which he needs to perform his duties.

FREDERICK E. BOLTON, professor of education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Ia.—I have not had the privilege of seeing Superintendent Heeter's paper and, consequently, shall be obliged to make an extemporaneous discussion. I am warned by the preceding speaker that the word efficiency is to be tabooed. However, the first point which I wish to make is that while we are considering the arrangement of a course of study so as to secure efficiency for pupils, we must not forget the most important factor—efficient teachers. Undoubtedly the pupil's time is wasted far more because of inefficient teachers than because of any ill arrangement of subjects and topics. The textbooks suggest fairly good logical arrangement of subject-matter. We need teachers with breadth of scholarship sufficient to discern the varying worth of the different topics and who know how to vitalize the whole range of subject-matter. To substantiate my view that our children suffer from inefficient teachers, I may say that in one great state there is one teacher in every fourth high school who has had no training, academic or professional, beyond that received in that high school. Little wonder that we complain of waste and dissipation of energy somewhere. It could not be otherwise. We need great and efficient teachers more than modification of the course of study. When we have a teaching profession with every elementary teacher a graduate of some normal school, and every high-school teacher with the equivalent of a college course and requisite professional training we shall cease to bewail the arrangement of the course of study. We must look to Germany for an object-lesson.

I fully agree with Superintendent Heeter that many details and topics must be omitted from the course. He has elaborated that so well that I need not enter upon it. Dr. Mc Murry gave a splendid discussion of this topic also in 1904.

We must also reorganize and redistribute the various subjects and topics in the course. We must rearrange the material of the course in such a way as to adjust the various subjects and topics to the needs and capacities of the pupils at varying stages in their develop-

ment. Under our present system this is impossible. In a general way the spiral plan would far better meet the needs of the pupils. Germany has long recognized this and acted accordingly. There each subject is introduced early and continued for a long period of years. Many subjects are given a small number of hours per week. By this method the pupils consider the subject at different times, from different angles, and with different interests. In this country, although the spiral plan has been adopted in name in some places, to my knowledge it has never been arranged on a scientific basis. Not a single book that I know of really observes the spiral plan as known in Germany. The Germans secure better results than we do and in a shorter time. I have investigated with considerable care the amount of time devoted to the teaching of German in Germany. It is a noticeable fact that they do not have several subjects like spelling, reading, composition, rhetoric, grammar, etc. They have one single subject—*Deutsch*. In this country we have a great variety of subjects relating to English. We devote to all of them about twice as much time as the Germans give to *Deutsch*, and, I believe, with poorer results. Why could we not correlate all of these subjects around one center? Why do we need special classes for composition, spelling, rhetoric, etc.? Why could not practically all of the composition themes be secured from the work in history, literature, science, and geography? This would result in a great saving of time and greater efficiency.

In harmony with my first position I desire to state that the course of study must be considered in such a way as to better recognize individual needs and individual conditions of development. We have too long considered the course of study from the purely logical point of view. We have arranged our subjects and topics in harmony with cold logic and have failed to recognize the psychological and sociological aspects of the case. We must regard the question from a new point of view. The aim of education is being conceived entirely anew. We no longer regard it as a mere question of formal discipline. We wish to adjust and adapt the individual to social needs. We must come to regard the child as the center and circumference of all pedagogical considerations. We have too long substituted for this the subject of instruction.

WHAT MODIFICATIONS IN ORGANIZATION ARE NECESSARY TO SECURE SUITABLE RECOGNITION FOR PUPILS OF VARYING ABILITY, PARTICULARLY FOR THE ABLEST?

CALVIN N. KENDALL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

In the twenty minutes allotted me, I shall confine myself to a discussion of the modifications required in organization to promote the interests of the ablest children. So-called defective pupils are therefore left out of account. Backward children are more easily disposed of. Schools for defectives are increasing in number, and there is something like a settled mode of procedure in dealing with such children. They make a more effective appeal for consideration than the ablest children do. Incidentally, the removal of defective children from regular classes enables a teacher to devote her energies to children of normal power. Such separation, therefore, promotes the interest of *all* children.

It is probably true that pupils in a given room are as unlike in their mental capabilities as in their looks. Forty children, forty characters. Says President Eliot: "To discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appro-

priate rapidity, will ultimately become the most important function of the public-school administrator."

Of course I cannot attempt to show satisfactorily to you, and certainly not to myself, how this discrimination, this selection, and this advancement can be made, for so long as the work of teaching and administering schools is done by mere men and women, so long will we fall short of the ideal pointed out by President Eliot. I am convinced, however, that substantial progress is being made in many cities and towns to conserve the interests of pupils of varying degrees of ability.

A mere mention of special features of differing classification plans, which of late have come to my notice, would exceed the limits of this paper. If superintendents and principals have not wholly succeeded in breaking up the so-called "lock-step," it is not because of indifference or lack of effort. In my opinion the "lock-step" theory has been somewhat overworked, but the use of the figure has served to call attention to the *individual* as distinct from the system of which he is a part. The lessening of the rigors of grading was inevitable, as practical, modern psychology caused children to be better understood.

In the preparation of this paper, I made an effort to learn what unusual or out-of-the-way plans of promotion and classification are in operation in important centers of the country. The usual response I received was like this one:

> We have a rather elastic system of promotion. The regular rule is semi-annual promotion, but bright children are in some cases allowed to skip a half-year's work. A grade is usually divided into divisions so that a part of it goes faster than the other. An unusually bright pupil in such a division would not really lose a half-year by skipping.

It would be no exaggeration to say that this seems to be the normal or general plan of classification. At any rate, the variations are slight.

From a few places, however, some special or unusual plan was reported. In Cambridge, the course of study in the grammar schools is six years, but the pupils are so classified and the course of study so arranged as to afford the able pupils an opportunity to complete it in four years. In fifteen years, of the nine thousand pupils who have gone thru the grammar schools of that city, 7 per cent. have made the course in four years, and 25 per cent. in five years. Those who are not familiar with the plan can, if they so desire, learn the details from the Cambridge school report.

It has been in operation fifteen years. I have been unable to find elsewhere such carefully prepared tables, showing the actual numerical results of a particular scheme of promotion for pupils of varying degrees of ability. The schools of Cambridge are known as good schools. There is in my possession testimony, independent of the superintendent's office, of the merits of this scheme.

For these reasons I have spoken of it. It may be no better than numerous other special plans; it may be no better than the common practice of semi-annual promotions with frequent individual promotions.

It is interesting to note that the average age of pupils who enter the high schools in Cambridge, is substantially fourteen-and-a-half years. In two other typical Massachusetts cities, Springfield and Worcester, where there are also nine grades, the average age of pupils entering the high schools is reported as practically the same as that in Cambridge; that is, the Cambridge plan, good as it is, does not bring about such rapidity of promotion as to effect in any considerable degree, in comparison with other cities, the age at which pupils enter the high schools. To repeat, it is chiefly significant because its results for a considerable period of years, have been reduced to figures.

Another consideration remains to be mentioned. In each large Cambridge grammar school is a special teacher, whose business it is to aid by personal instruction, both the able and the backward. It is almost unnecessary to add, that such additional teachers, giving individual instruction, are desirable in every large grammar school. It is, however, no practical solution of the problem of either the ablest or the backward, for as we approach anything like real individual instruction, we have greatly increased expenses for schools.

I believe, therefore, that existing plans of promotion and classification, if properly administered by discriminating and capable principals, take care of the ablest children to a larger extent than is generally thought.

Semi-annual promotions; two sections in each grammar school, three or more in primary schools; abolishing examinations as a test for promotion; individual promotion of pupils, and increased interest in the individual pupil apart from the mass, all contribute to this result.

Thus far all relates to the child in relation to the conventional course of study; but arranging promotions so that the child may pass thru the schools in the shortest period of time is not, of course, a solution of what shall be done for the ablest pupils; for them, the course of study needs at some points eliminations, at other points additions, and sometimes generous additions. A capable pupil may also be an immature pupil; to rush him on to the high school of the prevailing type is to be deplored.

I wish now to speak of a plan for caring for the ablest children in the last two years of the grammar-school course. It is by no means novel or original, but is in operation in several cities.

It is this: to group the most capable children of the last two years, in certain buildings as centers, as defectives are grouped in centers. In growing cities there is of course difficulty in finding rooms for these centers, in already overcrowded buildings. This difficulty, however, would be likely to disappear when we are convinced that as much should be done for gifted children as for slow ones, and when we are further convinced that in the schools of a democracy, every child, the able as well as the dull, has this claim upon us—to give him the best of which he is capable. In a large departmental school a class of the able children can sometimes be placed in separate divisions in the standard subjects.

These children should be placed with a strong teacher, for some of the ablest

pupils will not make use of their power unless the teaching is effective. It is my conviction, that any marked departure from the usual course of study or order of things, is likely to fail unless the teacher or administrator is forceful and intelligent. I refer to the teacher of backward children, to the teacher of the ablest children, to the teacher of Latin in the grades, and to numerous other special teachers. The personal equation is the main thing. The paper administrative scheme is subordinate. Therefore, to place the keenest and most capable children in charge of the college or normal-school graduate of slender personal or teaching resources, is to invite failure. The work for such children would not be the conventional course of study, for they are the alert and the capable.

If from well-to-do homes, it is probable that many of these pupils will go to college. Latin or German may be begun, literature may be increased in content, history and geography may be combined, the scope of mathematics may be increased, the use of English may be broadened and strengthened. These pupils will go to the high schools prepared to enter the second half-year, or they will reach the high school a half-year or a year ahead of pupils of normal power. There need be little fear of their ability to maintain themselves in the high schools. There is numerous testimony bearing upon this point. In Cambridge the four-year grammar-school pupils lead their classes in the high schools, and have done so for years.

Another center might be established for pupils who probably will not go beyond the high school, or perhaps to the high school at all. In this center Latin would be omitted, literature and geography would be enriched, the various art activities, including manual training, increased, science taught and arithmetic emphasized. However, it is not my purpose to formulate a course of study for these pupils; local conditions would determine. What these ablest pupils work *at* is important, but is of secondary consideration; the main thing is to have them work at the safe and sane maximum of their power.

This term we have established in Indianapolis two centers for unusually strong pupils beginning the second-half of the seventh year. In these centers pupils are gathered from eight schools. There are twenty-five pupils in each class; they work in departmental schools.

In Baltimore there are four preparatory class centers, as they are called there, for seventh- and eighth-year pupils who have made creditable records in the sixth year. These pupils carry on the regular work of the seventh and eighth years, and in addition advanced English work, Latin, and either French or German. Three extra study credits may be earned, which count toward a high-school diploma. Superintendent Van Sickle states that a pupil who is working successfully in these preparatory classes, completes the high-school course in three years. In Worcester there is a similar plan for concentrating in a few centers, pupils of ability who are preparing for the high schools.

In Indianapolis, apart from the two special classes mentioned, at the beginning of the eighth year certain strong pupils begin Latin, whose parents request

it. These pupils earn a half-year's credit to be applied in the high schools. All our pupils in the eighth year have an opportunity to earn high-school credits in English and mathematics. About one-third of the pupils earn these credits and subsequently do good work in the high schools. Other pupils, and frequently the same pupils as those I have mentioned, earn credits in German. The aggregate result is, that about one-third of the ablest eighth-grade pupils enter the second half-year of the high school.

The most, perhaps, that can be claimed for these and similar plans is that they are an attempt to differentiate pupils of ability in the higher grammar schools, independent of ordinary schemes of grading.

Certain considerations should be mentioned: First, the number of the ablest pupils, as the term is used in this paper, is small; at least it so appears in the light of our present knowledge of children. Such is the judgment, too, of discriminating principals and teachers. Second, we must rely upon teachers and principals to point out such pupils. The tendency would be to choose too limited a number rather than too many. It is a responsibility the burden of which becomes less with experience. Then, there is the natural reluctance to part with strong pupils and lose the help of their leadership. This reluctance is made deeper by the feeling that the gifted pupils are needed to help the less gifted. Third, as I have said before, the immaturity of pupils cannot be left out of account, apart from their special power to do the technical work of the course of study. For immature pupils broader experience, breadth and depth of study, are as important as rapidity of progress thru the paper course of study. There are some things which pupils must grow to, as Dr. Hinsdale used to say.

This leads to a fourth consideration, the consent of parents for pupils to have rapid promotion and to work in special classes. Strange as it may seem to us, parents sometimes know better than schoolmasters what is best for their children.

Some of the most intelligent parents are entirely willing that their children, even tho precocious, should pass thru the grammar schools with slight demands upon their real working power, if the general school atmosphere is good. Here is a girl nine years old in the sixth grade. She is the daughter of a judge, the mother is a woman of education and refinement. The girl will make from 90 to 100 per cent. in any reasonable test in the various standard school subjects. The parents know these facts. She has no peculiarities except brains. They are unwilling to have her go ahead as she really has the power to do, considering only the conventional paper course of study. They believe that she will gain much from the general school life, for it is a good school. The attitude of these parents is typical.

To satisfy intelligent parents is something, but not everything. If this child and others like her were in a special school where they could be taught independently of the ordinary course of things, their school life would be really worth while. As it is, there must be more or less regrettable dawdling. Both

intelligent parents and school superintendents, in considering this phase of the question, might well take to heart Gladstone's words to a graduating class:

> Believe me when I tell you, that the thrift of time will repay you in after life with an usury of profit beyond your most sanguine dreams, and that the waste of it will make you dwindle alike in intellectual and moral stature, beneath your darkest reckonings.

The consent of parents is essential, if additional demands are to be made which tax the strength of a child, and if he is to go an unusual distance to school. There should be frequent conferences between the principal and teachers on the one hand, and parents on the other, with reference to the health of these children.

Fifth, additional expense in teaching classes with expert teachers. This expense may be justified, however, in the same way that we justify the per capita expense for high schools and for state university instruction—the necessity of training leaders in a democracy. In Oakland, California, where, by the way, there is an excellent promotion scheme, pupils who cannot be well classified in one building, may be transported at public expense to another.

Sixth, in Indianapolis, if I may refer again to a situation with which I am familiar, the high-school credit system for the eighth grade, has resulted in a closer articulation between the high school and the grammar school. The heads of departments in the high schools have become interested in the work of the grammar schools; they visit the grammar schools, they give class instruction in academic subjects to grammar-school teachers; they attend and take part in teachers' meetings: they have a better understanding of grammar-school conditions, and have, consequently, a more sympathetic attitude toward grammar-school work. The change from the grammar to the high school is perhaps made easier. I believe I can see signs of better teaching in the high schools resulting from all this. When high-school teachers turn their faces toward the grammar school, as well as toward the college, high-school instruction will be more effective. There will be more teaching and less lecturing; more of a disposition to take the pupil where he is; less of a disposition to find fault with grammar-school instruction; and a greater realization that the pupil in the first year or two of the high school is still a child.

It seems to me that signs are not wanting that the time is near when there will be modifications of the work of the seventh and eighth years of the grammar-school course:

In organization—centers in which strong pupils can work at the maximum of their power, unhindered by less capable pupils. In curriculum—training and instruction which shall take a larger account of the differing needs of pupils, some vitally related to *vocational* life, for there is good authority for saying that, "Incompetency in the arts is quite as dangerous to society as illiteracy." Neither the grammar school nor the high school can completely dispose of this menace, but they can do something. To do so effectively, however, requires teachers in the arts, of special skill and power, and consequently more expensive teachers.

There is one paragraph from a lecture of Huxley's which seems to make a fitting close to this address:

Now the most important object of all educational schemes is to catch these exceptional people, and turn them to account for the good of society. No man can say where they will crop up; like their opposites, the fools and knaves, they appear sometimes in the palace and sometimes in the hovel; but the great thing to be aimed at, I was almost about to say the most important end of all social arrangements, is to keep these glorious sports of Nature from being either corrupted by luxury or starved by poverty, and to put them into the position in which they can do the work for which they are specially fitted.

DISCUSSION

JOHN A. LONG, superintendent of schools, Joliet, Ill.—Most of our attempts to adjust the school organization to children of varying ability, so far as I am aware, have taken the form of breaking the school period up into smaller units which have no special psychological significance, and has only drawn us farther away from our actual pedagogical problem. My experience is, that half-year promotions may be, and often are, quite as rigid as annual promotions. The unfortunate tendency has been to increase the emphasis upon subject-matter as the source of our pedagogical standards, instead of throwing it over upon the attitudes and capacities of the child as he confronts a new situation.

I wish to call attention to two things from Mr. Kendall's paper. First, the incident of the judge who was unwilling to have his precocious daughter go far beyond her grade because he felt that there was something to be gained by "waiting," that there was something to be got out of time. Now, let us put alongside of that the saying of Dr. Hinsdale, that there are some things children need to grow up to. Both these things seem to me to point to the fact that there are, in the lives of children, certain nodal points of experience or attitude, ways of looking at things, which are outside of, and separate from, the mere ability to add to knowledge, to gather experience, or to follow the "paper course of study." In other words, there are times when children change their method of handling the subject-matter which they can get from the course. These are the things which they must grow up to, must get by time, and they cannot be given any other way. If we are to look to these nodal points, we must make our flexibility, our elasticity within these periods. We must never ask a child to assume an attitude toward the world which he does not have. In my judgment, we shall, in the end, be compelled to find our greater freedom by enlarging our sphere of opportunity and activity.

This general line of thought, leads us to an inquiry into the changing attitudes and capacity of the child as he advances in years along the school period. Does he change his attitude toward the world every year, or does he change it at all? Is every year a new one, or are some of them only continuations of others? According to Dr. Dewey, there are two points of decided change within the years generally covered by the public schools, one takes place when the child is seven and one-half or eight years of age, or in the latter part of the second grade. The other is what is known as pubescence, and takes place, with girls, usually about the beginning of the seventh grade. Why not make these psychological changes the large breaks in your organization? This divides the whole time into three great periods, each with its definite characteristics.

The first period comprises the first two years in school, and is marked by what Dr. Dewey calls direct sense experiencing. The child is interested in those things which take up his direct sense activity and add to his stock of imagery on that basis. He is accumulating imagery and is constantly asking the question, What? What is it? What can it do? He wants to learn to read, and write, and use numbers simply as an activity, with little idea of using these things for some remote purpose. These two years constitute one period, and should be presided over by one teacher, not two. This gives us a criterion for the selection of that teacher. She should be one who has naturally much the same

attitude toward the world as the children have. She must be able to see the world as they see it if she is to assist them.

The second period extends, usually, from about the beginning of the third grade to the beginning of the seventh and is characterized by an interest in the organization of imagery on the basis of the adaptation of means (mostly physical) to projected ends The child has learned to hold his purposes, to project them into the future, and to organize or adapt his activities so as to reach them. It is the period of technique when the child is interested in *how* a thing is done. Here, again, the attitude of the child gives you the criterion not only for the selection of the teacher, but for the selection of subject-matter as well. The teacher should stay with the pupil more than one year, and should be able to see the world as he sees it. The technique phases of the different subjects should here be taken up: industrial history, industrial geography, the technical side of reading, writing, spelling, the organization of the arithmetical processes, the development of the various elements of the English sentence, the use of literature as an aid in the projection of ideas and ideals in life. All this gives both the superintendent and the teacher something to fall back upon, some standard and guiding principle for their work, so that they do not need to confine themselves to a narrow path dosed out each month from an office somewhere. They both become free because they know the law of the thing they are dealing with.

The third period is ushered in by the coming of adolescence, or pubescence, and is characterized by a desire to organize the activities and images on a social basis. The child now becomes dimly conscious of his relations to the race and to society about him. His desires have outrun his muscular co-ordinations and he struggles to adapt himself to this new relation. Things are now seen in their larger and more scientific systems. Here again, we have the criterion for our selection of subject-matter. The social side of geography is commercial, of history is institutional, of literature is that which deals with the relations of members of society one to another, of science are those larger general truths which form the background for the organization of all the sciences.

Some such larger and more psychological organization as is indicated above will make it possible to meet the various intellectual needs of the pupils and still keep them free from the possibility of arrest by asking them to assume an attitude toward the world which they have not yet reached.

W. H. ELSON, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.—We have gone a great way in the solution of this problem when we have the problem stated, as we have had so well done in the paper this morning. We have also had a good statement of the attempts that are making thruout the country in the most progressive schools for a modification of school organization in such a way as to adapt instruction to the needs of these varying groups of children, and in the moment that I am occupying your time I shall review only one or two of these points.

We have first the mention of the method approached by the selection or separation of defective children. That is a splendid step, negatively, in providing for the brightest children. Something is doing in the grouping or segregation, or separation, of the backward children, which I thoroly believe in as one of the ways of solving this problem. Doubtless with both these groups provided for we have yet the problem of adapting the instruction, modifying the work that is presented to these children, best to meet their needs and requirements. Mr. Kendall has suggested a plan for the separation of children that are going to the high school.

We have before us another possibility and another problem that will come up this afternoon for discussion, which resolves itself into two or three possible things about which none of us knows very much, perhaps, and about which we want to proceed somewhat slowly and yet to move forward; that is, Whether or not our schools shall attempt further groupings? With, we will say, the segregation of the defectives and the segregation of the

backward children, we shall have perhaps 90 per cent. of the children left — reasonably capable children, able to work fairly well together. Some of these children are going to the high school and some of them are going to college, most of them are going to work. Perhaps we all agree that in the grade instruction of these children there is needed a larger element of industrial work. Probably we would all agree with that, and perhaps also to some clipping and limiting of the course and to a better adaptation of academic subjects to the real needs of the children. We know the waste is great beginning with the fifth or sixth grade; whether or not these children are all to have more industrial work, with perhaps a modified and better adapted academic work; or whether we are to segregate some of these children and give them vocational instruction; or again whether we are to segregate children that are going to the high school and, perhaps, to college—these are questions that local conditions must determine. Those of us who have the problem of the foreign child and the foreign district know that in our own schools the widest possible range of adaptation is needed. Here is the one school which is distinctly foreign; difficulties of language are there, narrow and limited experience. The home life is to be taken into account. Those children need a modification of the course of study—very much modified from the group of children that are predominantly American; children that come from homes where there are books, opportunities for travel, and the widest possible experience. We know that in this one type of school the waste is very great.

I said to the principal of a school the other day: "How many first-grade schools have you?" He said: "I have ten." "How many fourth-grade schools have you?" He said "I have five." "How many fifth-grade schools have you?" He said "I have three." "How many eighth-grade schools have you?" He replied "I have one." Merely one showing in a school of forty teachers, or forty schools, a tremendous waste. That school offers a problem in itself.

In another school that I visited a few days ago, I found two and one-half second grades in the school. I found two eighth grades—an American school in a fairly comfortable community. I went to the office and looked up the records and found that this school had in it fifty children, only, out of one thousand, that are at all behind their grade; that is, behind their normal year's standing.

Now, these two schools present distinct types and the problem is entirely different as to how we are going to meet this modification. I do not know that any one knows; but it is sufficient to say that something is needed in the way of grouping and modification. Perhaps the suggestion that Mr. Kendall made for the segregation of children that are going to high school is well adapted to some conditions, perhaps to some cities, and certainly to some schools in certain cities.

Then we have this other problem as to where industrial work is needed. In some cases, to learn how to earn a living is a matter of much greater significance to the children than some other things. Here a peculiar type of instruction is certainly needed. I would suggest with reference to the industrial phase of it, particularly to the vocational phase of it, that we need to go slowly, particularly in that part of it which relates to the direct work of the elementary school.

SYMPOSIUM: THE PLACE OF INDUSTRIES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

I. *DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION; EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR ALL*

JAMES E. RUSSELL, DEAN OF TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

It is a commonplace of political history that our government is the resultant of contending forces in our national life. What the common man perceives as party policy or sectional issue, the scholar understands as a manifestation

of conflicting ideals of social control. Autocracy at one extreme is met by democracy at the other extreme. The practical outcome at all times has been an oligarchy more or less concerned with the welfare of all.

The conditions of life in a new country do not favor democracy. Men who can lead will lead and must lead. In times of peril the necessity of conserving each unit of force and directing it unerringly from some point of vantage is too obvious to admit of question. Such government is oligarchic. Such was the government of the American colonies and of every new state that has won its way into the Union. The ideal oligarchy is an aristocracy, the rule of the best. When an oligarchy becomes inefficient, when the few in control are not the best, then the progressive state must train up better leaders and reform its government. The record of our national efforts in these directions is the history of American education and American politics.

Our earliest schools and colleges were avowedly institutions for the training of leaders—leaders in church and state. It was vocational training maintained by the few in the interests of an aristocracy. In Harvard College, for example, down to 1772 the students were enrolled according to the social standing of their parents and the severest penalty that could be inflicted for infractions of college discipline was loss of social rating on the college register. The aristocratic lineage of the colonial school is perpetuated today in the professional course beginning in the secondary school and ending in the university. It embraces not only theology and law, but medicine, engineering, architecture, agriculture, dentistry, teaching, commerce—every vocation in which trained leaders are required. It is the choicest part of our educational system. On it we have lavished our wealth and to it our ablest educators have dedicated their lives. If it be aristocratic, we console ourselves that it recruits an aristocracy of which we need not be ashamed—an aristocracy not of birth and breeding, but an aristocracy of those best equipped for service to their fellow-men.

But there is another tendency in our national life, a force making for democracy. It found its initial impulse in the Puritanic conscience, and it has been augmented by each successive immigration of the oppressed and heavy laden of other lands. The political philosophy of eighteenth-century Europe found ready acceptance in the American colonies. Our Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, documents written under the storm and stress of social revolution at home and abroad, declared unequivocally the rights of man as man. On this foundation our fathers established a government dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. We, their children of the third and fourth generation, are still striving to realize that grand dream of liberty, equality, fraternity. That utopia has not been attained and may never be attained. Men are not equal today; they were not equal when our Constitution was written; nor yet when Puritan and Cavalier began their conquest of this new land. But what was true when our fathers first invaded the wilderness and began to build their homes and carve out new states was *equality of opportunity*. It is the basic principle of our

national life. However much we glory in our achievements as a people, and in the honor that has come to strong men made great by doing great deeds, the finest flower of the past century is the deepening of our faith in the brotherhood of man and the increasing of our devotion to the ideals of democracy.

Meanwhile, as always, progress comes thru education. We have realized the justice of making our schools accessible to all and we acknowledge the necessity of compelling the attendance of those who might otherwise become a menace to society. But we are slow to appreciate that a course of training designed for a favored few puts the many at a serious disadvantage.

Our education system is unfair in that it does not do what the founders of this republic meant that it should do. It does not give equality of opportunity to all. This may seem surprising, particularly as we have been boasting for a century of our American liberty, fraternity, and equality. It is the boast, too, of most Americans that our great public-school system provides alike for every boy and girl taking advantage of it. This is half true—and dangerous, as all half-truths are. The fact is, the American system of education grants equality of opportunity to those who can go on to the college and the university. It takes little account of the boy—and less still of the girl—who cannot have or does not wish for a higher education. The ten millions of those now in our elementary schools who will be compelled to "drop out" to earn a livelihood will have missed their opportunity. But why? Do we in America have need only of professional men and "men of affairs"? Are those who pay the taxes and do the rougher work of life to be denied opportunity for self-improvement? Are only those who can afford to stay in school to reap the advantages of education? In a word, what are we doing to help the average man better to do his life-work and better to realize the wealth of his inheritance as an American citizen? These questions raise the problem of vocational training for those who must begin early to earn their living. It is, in my judgment, the greatest problem of the future, and one which we may not longer disregard and yet maintain our standing as a nation.

Our schools must grant equal opportunity to all. In most other countries, the school system is deliberately intended to keep some down while helping others up. So long as our mode of government endures we cannot shut the door of opportunity in the face of any citizen. It is the greatest experiment the world has ever seen, and while there are many who would gladly see it fail, it is our bounden duty to make it succeed. It would be presumptious to say, after only one century of trial, that success is already assured. This is only the beginning. We are just coming to realize some of our blessings, as we see more clearly for the first time some of our dangers.

How can a nation endure that deliberately seeks to rouse ambitions and aspirations in the oncoming generations which in the nature of events cannot possibly be fulfilled? If the chief object of government be to promote civil order and social stability, how can we justify our practice in schooling the masses in precisely the same manner as we do those who are to be our leaders?

Is human nature so constituted that those who fail will readily acquiesce in the success of their rivals, especially if that success be the result of "cuteness," rather than honest effort? Is it any wonder that we are beset with labor troubles? We are, indeed, optimists if we see no cause for alarm in our present social conditions; and we are worse than fools if we content ourselves with a superficial treatment of the ills that afflict us. Legislation may do much to help us out of trouble, but it is only education of the right sort that can permanently keep us from ruin. There never has been a time when we were more in need of sound education, and in the struggle for existence that is yet to come we shall need a better education than we conceive of today.

There is one educational principle that is peculiarly American. It is that every man, because he is a man and an American citizen, should be liberally educated so far as circumstances will permit. A man, according to our Magna Charta, is entitled to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. The first business of the schools is to make life worth living, liberty worth striving for, and the pursuit of happiness something for which no man need be ashamed. We need, in my opinion, one more article in our educational creed. It is this. In making a man, make him good for something. It is a practice easily recognizable in the history of our universities and professional schools.

The next step is to see that the common man is equally well provided for. A beginning has been made in the enrichment of the course of study in our elementary and high schools, thus giving a choice of studies and better preparation for life if the pupil knows how to choose wisely; in the introduction of the natural sciences, manual training, and the domestic arts, thus giving some acquaintance with the industrial processes underlying our civilization if the subjects be well taught; and finally, in the differentiation of the school courses and school work whenever future vocations of the pupils are definitely known, as in the negro schools of the South, the county agricultural schools of Wisconsin, and the trade schools of some of our eastern cities.

But all this is only a beginning. At best but little can be done before the age of fourteen, but that little can be of the right kind. If nothing else is gained from the elementary school than a wholesome respect for man's industry, a good basis is afforded for participation in man's occupations. The serious preparation for practical life begins for the great majority of us at the age of thirteen or fourteen, on leaving the elementary school. The most dangerous period in the life of a boy or girl lies just ahead—say up to the age of nineteen or twenty. This is the time when the average boy must learn to be self-supporting, and when the girl must fit herself for domestic duties. It is the time, too, when technical training counts for most. I contend that every American boy and girl is entitled to practical help in this time of greatest need —and at public expense, too, if the state maintains high schools, universities, and professional schools for those who aspire to leadership in professional life. My reasons for this contention are these:

1. Anything that will contribute to the greater efficiency of the workman

is a contribution not only to his own well-being but to the wealth of the nation.

2. Anything that will lead the workman to take more pride in his work tends to make him a better citizen and a more conservative member of society.

If it be possible to make each man, no matter what his social standing may be, an honest leader in his own field, a workman who is not ashamed of his handiwork, then we need fear no criticism of our colleagues across the sea, nor need we as an industrial people fear the competition in the world's markets. More than that, we need never lose faith in the righteousness of American ideals or dread the consequences of our social democracy. If there be those who say the task is impossible, I answer in the words of General Armstrong, when some one doubted the possibility of negro education, "What are Christians for but to do the impossible?"

II. *EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY CAN BE SECURED ONLY BY PROPER RECOGNITION OF* (A) *INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN NATIVE CAPACITIES AND IN SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT,* (B) *THE REQUIREMENTS OF VOCATIONAL EFFICIENCY AS WELL AS OF* (C) *GENERAL INTELLIGENCE AND EXECUTIVE POWER*

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, WIS.

The preparation of my brief contribution to this afternoon's discussion of this important topic of the place of industries in education has been carried forward with no inconsiderable apprehension. Upon first inspection the main proposition, with its several corollaries, seemed to be so axiomatic, and the character of an existing opinion regarding industrial education indicated in general such unanimity, as to render any effort at demonstration as simple and useless as shooting at the classic "barn door." A more careful examination of this apparent axiom, and a more critical analysis of the implications of contemporary educational opinion, revealed a series of problems of more or less difficulty and intricacy. Thereupon the whole question quickly changed its cloak of simplicity for one of complexity.

At the first step of our examination and analysis, we are confronted with a sharp distinction between the *theory* and the *practice* of our system of public education. The land resounds with exclamations of loyalty toward a genuinely public education—an education *for* and *by* and *of* the people; yet how few and far between are the parents, the teachers, the communities ready and willing to make the change of educational creed and to offer the financial sacrifice demanded by their seeming loyalty. There is, I believe, a fairly reasonable explanation of this chasm between words and deeds.

The American public school rests upon the basis of the performance of a *political* and not an *economic* function. The cabalistic symbol of democracy—equality of opportunity—has possessed meaning for education only when attached to the political life. The history of the whole social movement for democracy, which has found its best expression in and thru the public

school, is the history of a more or less conscious attempt to make a *politically* efficient people. The mediocrity of our success in the maintenance, thru education, of the condition of equity in political opportunity seems to have hastened the employment of the symbol of democracy for the maintenance of equity in *economic* opportunity. And with this has come the dim recognition of the probable insufficiency of the whole formula of equality. The problem of equality of religious opportunity in education has been solved by complete elimination; that of equality of political opportunity by a method of superficial inspection; that of economic opportunity by the fantasy of anticipation.

In fact, "equality of educational opportunity" bears every stamp of academic and philosophic abstraction. It never was, nor never will be, an ideal capable of realization. What we have, and shall attempt to bring about thru our public school is an *equilibrium*, a balancing, of educational opportunity. Equality is significant of similarity, identity, of reward. An equilibrium of opportunity implies that grade of reward commensurate with capacities, whether those capacities are of the endowments of nature, of the acquisitions of training, or of the fullness of family coffers. The maintenance of such an equilibrium of educational opportunity will result in giving to industry its rightful share of competence, and give to education for vocation its rightful share of social respectability; neither of which may be said to obtain today.

Viewed largely, four forces may be said to contribute to the drafting of individuals into industry and to the selection by individuals of a vocation. The social, concerned mostly with artificial distinctions of social grade and rank; the economic, dominated alone by material reward; the personal, guided by indistinct individual interests and desires; and the educational, directed by ancient traditions of intellectual discipline. Each operates consciously or unconsciously; with few exceptions unconsciously, and this unconscious mode has ever been favored by formal education.

The chief argument in support of the main proposition that some definite preparation for vocational activity, especially industrial, within our scheme of public education, may be derived from the necessary improvement of the acknowledged selective function of the school. At the present moment, the distinct tendency is toward horizontal stratification of individuals into social classes, instead of a vertical selection according to specific efficiency. Vocational industrial education for all is no more likely to yield larger social results than the traditional, pseudo-cultural, static education of the present, unless it becomes consciously selective, unless it consciously fits the square industrial worker into the square industrial hole, the round worker into the round hole, the triangular worker into the triangular hole.

All educational reform passes thru four stages, the stage of stress, the stage of investigation, the stage of propaganda, the stage of reorganization. Of these, the stage of investigation is by far the most difficult of passage. What is needed today, before we can proceed with saneness thru the stage of propaganda on to the stage of rational reorganization, is investigation; facts,

"Gradgrindian" facts pertaining to industry and to children. We need to determine, first of all, the extent of the demand for trained workers in specific fields of industry; we need to determine the character and the quality of the specific interests and capacities needed by specific industries. Above all, we need to determine the extent, actual and potential, of the individual possession of these specific interests and capacities. Here opens an entirely new field of activity for the study of social needs, and for the study of the pupils of the public school.

This study of social needs, this evaluation of industrial conditions, can be carried on successfully according to projected plans by a comparatively few trained scientists and skilled investigators. But the study of the individual vocational intelligence and interests, ideals and capacities, motives and necessities of the American boy and girl must be carried on, in the largest measure, by the school. Yet the school dare not assume the responsibility for such study, until there is raised up a new generation of public-school teachers—especially in the elementary schools—who know how to detect, to classify and to direct the potential industrial powers of the child. Even given such teachers, this goal is not possible until we begin to rid ourselves of the factory, piece-work system of education of our graded school. This of itself is an almost sure preventive against knowing very much about any individual pupil. The sum total of the superficial observations of eight or a dozen teachers, each of whom has an opportunity of studying and knowing the child merely thru one-half of a year, or at the most, thru a whole year, will not equal one-tenth part of the insight that a skilled, observant teacher might obtain, did the machinery of the public school permit close contact between pupil and teacher, thru several years.

Until we possess reliable data upon which to base a rational scheme of reorganization, the public schools cannot hope to become instruments for "industrial determination;" neither will they cease to prevent the present positive misselection of individuals for their proper station of efficiency and happiness. For a rightful selection must precede and underlie the maintenance of the educational equilibrium of democracy.

III. *THE MOST URGENT NEED OF OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IS AN ADEQUATE PROVISION FOR THE VOCATIONAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN DESTINED FOR INDUSTRIAL AND DOMESTIC PURSUITS*

JAMES F. MC ELROY, CONSULTING ENGINEER, CONSOLIDATED CAR-HEATING COMPANY, ALBANY, N. Y.

A study of the attendance in the schools in the cities of the state of New York shows a very rapid falling off in the enrollment in the grammar-school[1] grades, of which the records of the city of Albany may be taken as an example.

[1] The term "grammar-school" evidently includes all of the usual eight grades below the high school.—EDITOR.]

The enrollment in	1st	year of	grammar	school	is	1551
"	"	"	2d	"	"	"	"	"	1242
"	"	"	3d	"	"	"	"	"	1317
"	"	"	4th	"	"	"	"	"	1448
"	"	"	5th	"	"	"	"	"	1252
"	"	"	6th	"	"	"	"	"	1088
"	"	"	7th	"	"	"	"	"	720
"	"	"	8th	"	"	"	"	"	551

Thus it will be seen that the list of pupils that complete the grammar-school work amounts to only 35 per cent. of the total number enrolled in the first year of the grammar-school grades. This falling off in the enrollment is a serious matter and calls for careful consideration.

The manufacturing industries of Albany may be assumed to represent the usual trades found in cities of this class in this state. To determine the educational attainments of some of our operatives, I have had inquiry made of over one hundred workmen composed largely of machinists and hence representing a grade of intelligence higher than the average. This inquiry has developed two facts in which we are concerned at this time: First, out of 102 men there was not to be found a single graduate of a high school, nor a person who ever attended as a pupil in a high-school course. Second, out of 102 men I found only seven who had completed the course in the grammar schools. From this it appears that the education of all of these mechanics was limited to such education as is furnished by the grammar schools and that 93 per cent. of them belong to that class of pupils that drop out of school before completing the grammar-school course. On inquiry of other people interested in manufacturing, I am informed that approximately the same condition of affairs exists among people engaged in trades in their employ.

The ordinary mechanic in our manufacturing institutions is indebted to our school system for teaching him to read and write and for some instruction in mathematics, but outside of these elements of an education the schools furnish him practically nothing that is of value or helpful in the struggle which he must maintain for the rest of his life. The course of study in our schools is based upon the theory that the student will continue thruout the entire course and graduate from the high school, and this course is designed to prepare the student for admission to college. This course of study, it seems to me, is unjust, unfair, and unreasonable so far as it relates to over 65 per cent. of the total school population.

At the age of boys in the grammar schools they are fascinated with the study of mechanics and with all kinds of machines for generating or applying power. At this age a boy is much more impressed by doing things himself than by being told by other people how things are done. If our schools furnished him the opportunity that he longs for, there would be little tendency to shirk his duties and the services of the truant officer would not be required. There would also be no temptation on the part of parents to take boys out of schools in order that they may learn something practical elsewhere. The way to keep

boys in school until they are sixteen years of age is to give them a course of instruction that will interest them and fire their ambition. As it is, you cannot keep boys in school until they are sixteen years of age, not even when your school authorities are backed up by the truant office and the police force. The boy knows better, and my feeling is that the boy is nearer right than some of you would be willing to admit.

Young men, destined for industrial pursuits, not only do not receive in the schools a proper education for their life-work, but after leaving school they find no place where they can receive instruction in the trades which they may select. Our manufacturers cannot afford to maintain industrial or trade schools, and it is not their business to do so even if they could afford it. This is work that properly belongs to the public schools. Of what interest is it to the manufacturer to establish trade schools when the mechanic will leave his employ and go off elsewhere to work the moment his trade is learned? It is to my mind clearly impracticable for the manufacturer, with a more or less changing list of employees, to carry on a system of instruction of apprentices. As you know, the apprentice system is a thing of the past. A young man cannot be bound to a manufacturer for a certain number of years of service as in the old apprentice system, but he leaves the employ of the manufacturer at will and if he has gained a good knowledge of mechanics and has become a good machinist, he readily gets employment elsewhere at good wages.

Under existing conditions, a young man learns his trade in a haphazard way and under great difficulties. The knowledge he gains comes to him a little at a time and from varying sources. Some of the knowledge is erroneous and not always consistent with things he already knows. He is not always able to distinguish error from that which is true, the wrong way from the right way. Things which he ought to know he does not learn at all. In the shop the good mechanic does not give to the poor mechanic the knowledge and results of the training which distinguish the two. The trained mechanic does not readily impart information to the beginner which would make the beginner a competing mechanic. It is under such a handicap as this that the average young man gains the simple knowledge with which his life-work is to deal. Not helped in the schools, held back and kept in ignorance by those already skilled, the result is that his knowledge at best is meager, unclassified, unsystematized, and unsatisfactory.

There is a demand for a radical change in our system of education for girls as well as boys, for the girl who is to become the mother of the household as well as the boy who is to earn the living for the family. How few graduates of our high schools or of our girls' colleges are proficient with the needle and understand the principles of cooking and the preparation of foods for the sick as well as for those who are well? What foundation is laid in our common schools for the knowledge which the mother must have in the care of her family and in the direction of her household affairs? This knowledge should be furnished by the schools at the proper time and in the proper way.

The employer of labor in this country suffers from the inefficiency of those upon whom the success of his undertakings most depends. The successful employer must have efficiency in the shop as well as in the office, in the service of manufacturing as well as in the service of management, and he is willing and ready to pay his employees in proportion to the efficiency of their service. It is for the interest of both employer and employee that men should be intelligent, as intelligence is the basis of efficiency. The characteristic feature of industry today is the demand for ability to do things, to get at results accurately and directly without unnecessary cost or loss of time. It is this ability which results in high wages to a certain class of employees and in profits to the manufacturer. It is the lack of it which causes a large class of employees to produce work that is unsatisfactory and without profit.

The question arises as to how can the difficulties of this situation be best met? I do not believe that the best results will be obtained by what are known as trade schools, that is, schools with a course of instruction necessary to develop skilled workers in a particular trade. I believe that instruction should be much broader and that young men should have a working-knowledge of several trades. We should recognize the fact that changes in our industries have taken place in recent years in the systematizing and classifying of labor, in specializing, and in the use of automatic labor-saving machinery, all of which prevent a mechanic from getting wide experience and general knowledge of all kinds of work. What a young man should have as a result of the common schools is a broad idea of the arts and processes, and of kinds of machinery by which processes are carried out. He should know much of the nature of materials, and this should be on a broader ground giving both wider knowledge and experience than that which would be gained in a school of a particular trade. This should be so broad that a young man would have a good preparation for any one of a number of trades and not be confined to instruction in a particular trade. A young man may study metals and metal-working and be prepared to do efficient and valuable work in forging as a blacksmith, but that would not fit him for running a lathe or a shaper as a machinist. If he learns blacksmithing he may know how to harden and temper metals, but not know how to cut metals, which would be the work of an ordinary machinist. Schools, in my judgment, should give a broad intellectual foundation, not only in the working of metals as done by the blacksmith, not only in the shaping and tempering of tools for cutting particular metals which is the trade of the toolmaker, but in the actual cutting of metals and the evolving of forms out of metals as is done by the machinist, and in the fitting and designing of parts of mechanism which he will be called upon to do.

He should have instruction in school in a variety of activities, because in the practical work in factories the division of labor there found necessary has a tendency to confine him narrowly to the particular trade in which he is employed. The routine work of the shop does not give him breadth of view nor broaden him intellectually, so that a man without a trained mind or one

equipped with a general knowledge of facts finds, within the narrow place to which division of labor assigns him, that he is not in a position to understand fully all of the operations of a manufacturing business.

Some people seem to think that our technical schools are educating men as mechanics in the industrial work of the country. In my opinion such is not the case. The manufacturing of this country is not done by technical graduates and never will be. The technical graduate will never be satisfied to spend his life as a machinist drawing $3.00 to $3.50 per day, and whilst some of our railroads have required that technical graduates entering their employ shall work in the shops for a certain length of time, the technical graduate enters the shop as an impractical theorist who has the shopwork all to learn and whose work, on account of the lack of experience in the shop and lack of knowledge of shop practice, is inferior to that of the uneducated mechanic. Our technical graduate gets out of the shop as quickly as possible and secures a position of more pay and less arduous work. Whilst I do not altogether share in the severe criticism which is at times made upon the technical graduate and of his usefulness in the world's work, I do, however, believe that his work is elsewhere than at the lathe and planer. I am clearly of the impression that it is useless and impracticable to consider that our manufacturing industries are to be supplied with mechanics who are graduates of technical schools, or who are graduates even of high schools.

The manual training high schools do not meet the necessities of this case, because, first, boys must enter upon their life work in the industries before such a course in the high school can be completed; second, financial conditions of those who must spend their lives in the industries of the country make it impracticable for the great majority of them to complete the manual-training high-school course; third, the work of the manual-training high school fits young men better for foremen than for positions as mechanics. This instruction is important, but it is of a higher grade than what is required for the great majority of our laboring class.

I have therefore come to the conclusion that the great need of our system of education is the provision of industrial schools that receive children at the ages at which they now drop out of our grammar schools, and that the work of these industrial schools should be completed when the pupils reach the age of about sixteen years. These industrial schools should be supported as a part of our public-school system and should provide instruction for practically the whole of our school population. Admission should be from the industrial schools to the high schools for those that desire to take that course. These industrial schools should give a working-knowledge of several trades and particularly of trades peculiar to the community should be represented in the course of instruction. The instruction should be given by practical men, not theorists. These schools should be opened as night schools where instruction could be given those not able to take the course in the daytime.

DISCUSSION

WILLIAM E. ROBERTS, supervisor of manual training, public schools, Cleveland, O.—One of the most significant facts established by school statistics is the large number of pupils behind their grade. Of the boys who entered the sixth grade in Cleveland last year 15½ per cent. were of, or older than, the age at which they should have graduated from the eighth grade. What figures do not show so clearly is the reason for this loss of time. A careful analysis, however, leaves little question that a large percentage of loss is due to absence of those mental qualities which respond readily to the demands of the elementary-school curriculum, particularly to the complex work in arithmetic and technical grammar, and a consequent distaste for school work. The elementary-school courses fix arbitrarily a standard of culture and a means of development toward that standard to which all must conform, rather than offering opportunities for development along lines for which pupils are temperamentally fitted. Personal experience and experiment convince me that there must be a differentiation of work in the grammar grades to meet more fully the varying needs and capabilities of pupils whose powers are manifestly in the direction of manual expression. There must be provided courses, beginning with the sixth grade, preferably in separate schools, which boys may take, directed by the judgment of the school authorities and with the consent of parents. In these schools at least one-third of the time should be given to hand work upon which the greater part of the other school work should have a direct bearing.

The whole course should be so unified that the usual division into subjects would be almost impossible. I would have the mathematics confined to the simple rules, with direct practical bearing upon industrial work and experience in daily life, avoiding problems designed for mental gymnastics; reading selected to include history and geography, related largely to the industrial side of the work, and to civics; language and spelling with the thought of intelligent expression in speech and writing; penmanship sufficient to acquire legibility; drawing, both freehand and mechanical, particularly emphasized.

The manual side of the course should for at least two years be based upon general principles underlying industrial work, which in the final analysis are reduced almost wholly to work in wood and metals. The manual work of the third year could be devoted to specialization determined by the development of capabilities exercised in the first two years.

Such a school would have many outlets. It would save many pupils to the technical high school; it would lead directly to the trade school; it would prepare for apprenticeship; it would better prepare this type of pupil for life in general. It looks to the time when the elementary schools shall recognize a standard of culture not dependent upon examinations in intricate arithmetical problems and technical grammar.

That such schools are needed is indicated by the fact that so many pupils are kept in school, in spite of the loss of time, until they are practically forced out by stress of years.

I have used boys as illustrative. There is no reason why a similar course cannot be provided for girls.

HOWARD D. BRUNDAGE, Stout Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.—The industrial school, in order to provide most efficiently for the vocational needs of children destined for industrial pursuits, must be so organized that each pupil feels himself an integral element in the work. He must exhibit a due amount of self-consciousness. He must not only feel, but actually have responsibility. He must realize that the value of the things produced in the school depends on him, and that the value of his services to his future employer depends on his personal character and on his judgment and skill as a workman.

In such a school there should be few instances where the worker can say, "This is not for actual use, and I need not be so particular." Such conditions are detrimental to his advancement and he is not breathing "shop air." This kind of school life must ring with reality.

The school should set high standards in the kinds of work done and constantly encourage their attainment. Thoroness and quality should be the immediate aim, speed and quantity the final aim.

However, the pupil should have clearly in mind that there are various grades of goods on the market and business contracts are made for first- and second-class jobs of work; but that the best workmen and the highest skilled mechanics are engaged in the production of the highest grades of goods and in the performance of the first-class jobs of work.

Also it is necessary for him to understand that an employer's business agreements and contracts vary in their requirements regarding the quality of materials, the form of construction, and the perfection of finish, and that the workman as a producer must consider these, and accordingly endeavor to use material and means that will please, and fulfill the business requirements of the contract and at the same time conserve his employer's business interests.

This is surely a practical standpoint, and to be practical a workman must learn the essentials and nonessentials in his vocation. Where to be, and where not to be, particular. How to perform work quickly, yet thoroly. How to cut corners legitimately. Understand the tricks or "kinks" of the trade. How to produce the grade of goods or perform the class of work required, and this to his employer's profit and thereby do his part as a workman in giving an "all round square deal." In other words, the aim should be to show himself approved, a workman that needeth not to be ashamed, rightly divining the truth.

Therefore, I claim that the pupil in the industrial school must be an intelligent and real worker who produces the goods. He must be a vital factor in the work, a transformer, a positive not a negative force, and have an active not passive interest in his surroundings, where he is being prepared for life's work. This formative period of child-life spent in the right atmosphere and under proper training is what produces the "self-made" quality of stuff in the man, so essential to the individual and to society.

To create these conditions lies with the organization and management of the institution and the time has come in the life of this nation when immediate steps must be taken by its body of educators to meet the urgent demands of its citizens in making adequate provision for this great social and industrial need.

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS, Department of Domestic Economy, Teachers College, Columbia University.—My remarks regarding vocational educational needs will be confined to the case of girls and women. Present education does not prepare for earning a living. Miss Addams' report in last weeks' *Charities* on seventy-eight New York girls who left school for work, repeats the story: nearly all in unskilled, unprogressive work; only two factors in day-school training found useful—skill in sewing and skill in business penmanship. Half the girls had sought supplementary training in city evening schools, but no real vocational help was found there.

In considering the case of vocational education for women and girls, two points of view must be regarded as fundamental: Woman's relation to self-support, and woman's relation to the home.

1. *In regard to self-support.*—The time is not far away when every girl will learn a specific piece of remunerative skilled work, just as we expect boys to do; this does not mean that married women will follow a vocation outside of the home save in exceptional cases. The American family and home will never encourage that. It does mean that girls will generally earn a livelihood in some skilled work for the three, six, or eight years prior to marriage, and will do so to their own good and the good of society; that this earning power will raise the standards of living in their parents' families, and give the impulse to a higher level when the girls marry and start their own homes; and it means, further, that this possession of skill in remunerative labor will, after marriage, afford protection and support, when families lose their male head. In the United States one married woman in

five is a widow and is responsible, as was her deceased husband, for her own support and usually for that of children.

Woman's present relation to remunerative employment in the United States is shown by two facts: (1) Of women over ten years old, 18.8 per cent. were in 1900 engaged in remunerative employment. (2) Of the 377 lines of employment for men and women listed in the census, women had in 1900 entered all but seven, in greater or less numbers. Women are wage-earners then already, and if men's training is to be considered, women's must be also.

2. *Vocational training, as affected by woman's relation to the home.*—Of American women over twenty, 65 per cent. are married and inferentially responsible for a home and the rearing of children. Material conditions have changed and the business of directing a home has become one of the most complex, as it always has been one of the most significant, of human tasks. A single instance—the care and feeding of infants involving milk modification, observation of conditions, and the application of varying formulae, is a matter made plain only by instruction, which ought to be provided for every young mother. . Somehow, then, opportunities for training in home management, and all that that implies, must be provided.

Another phase is the training of girls and young women for remunerative domestic work. One thinks at once of the servant question, and who knows but that some day we may have trained servants. Already, on a higher level, college women are being trained for domestic administrative positions in hospitals, dormitories, and other institutions. On all levels, professional domestic training can be given and it is one of the economies of the situation that if a trained woman leaves employment and marries, she takes her skill into the management of her own home. One instance again: in every large city, thousands of girls, fourteen or fifteen years old, take as their first employment "minding the baby" of a neighbor at two dollars or thereabouts a week. It would be possible at once to provide a nurse-maid's course for these little girls, either in day or evening schools, which would professionalize their tiny tasks, give them skill in bathing, feeding, and caring for little children, raise the level of their present service, and unconsciously prepare them for their own home life later.

Woman's educational needs from this partial, vocational point of view are, then: First, vocational training for self-support; second, a preparation, incidentally in early years, and directly when the need arises, for the duties that fall to the direction of a home.

IV. *CONSTRUCTIVE ACTIVITIES AS AN ESSENTIAL AND IMPORTANT FACTOR IN THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL COURSE*

MISS EUPHROSYNE LANGLEY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

"Constructive Activities in the Elementary School"—that is my topic, and any discussion of it must be prophecy rather than history, for as yet the elementary school has had no constructive activities. Ten years ago a wave of criticism to the effect that the schools were impracticable and could not hold the children led to a widespread determination to put in manual training. That was to be the specific for the ills diagnosed by the critics; but our specific, it is now said, has failed to work a cure. And why? For the very good reason that though the manual-training prescription was duly written out, the medicine was never actually administered to the patient. I cannot find a school in this country where shop-practice for boys and girls is found thruout the elementary school.

The name "manual training" appears often in courses of study, but when analyzed into its actual constituents it is, outside of shop-work for boys in the seventh and eighth grades, hardly more than a chaotic assemblage of various forms of "busy work," relieved now and then by a bit of knife-work for boys, sewing for girls, or, for the younger children, a dip into the realm of the aesthetic in what Mr. Veblein calls "clay-muddling." Few subjects have been so handicapped as manual training; at the outset there was little in the way of equipment, no kilns, no looms, no benches. There was no time, the subject being superinduced on an already overcrowded curriculum. There was no pedagogical experience. There was no real understanding of the place of handwork in the educational state, and, at the best, manual training has never been more than an unnaturalized foreigner *in* the body politic, not *of* it.

Can handwork be made an effective part of the elementary school? Yes, but there must be a new point of view. We must be ready to put into practice what the best psychological theory has given us. There must be an entire reorganization of subject-matter. The handwork must not be a new subject elbowing out space for itself and squeezing up the other subjects. No subject must be allowed to stand isolated. We must break down the pigeon-holes into which kinds of knowledge have been separately bunched. The three R's, tho hoary with respectability, are not the pivots on which the educational system turns. No child has an intellectual appreciation of the value of reading, writing, and arithmetic as such. They become of importance to him only when they are the means thru which he attains some desired end. Take a child in the first grade. Give him the simplest forms of constructive activity; let him build a playhouse, make jelly or dry apples, dye wool and weave tiny rugs. The wooden house, instead of being "so big" by hand, is a definite number of inches on the ruler. The materials that enter into the making of jelly are weighed and combined in definite proportion. The weaving of rugs demands careful laying-out of spaces before the design can be put in. Thus thru the actual making of things, number work, in terms of measurements and weights, is levied upon by each activity. The record of the work in the child's own notebook turns into reading and writing. In a perfectly natural, simple fashion, the child reaches out thru his social occupations to the more formal studies, which, under such circumstances, cease to be formal or even formidable.

As the three R's become the tools which express and reinforce the activities, on the one hand, so, on the other, history, geography, and nature-study, a group in which each is the complement of the others, should form the industrial and social background from which the activities themselves spring. It is illogical and arbitrary to tear apart subjects which rightly belong together in order to build a series of separate coops in which to house a curriculum.

Constructive activities demand a constructive method, and a constructive method insists that the order of introducing handicrafts should be from the kindergarten up, rather than from the eighth grade down. A right construct-

ive method also implies that the handicrafts should not follow along a line of prescribed models arranged from the point of view of the tool and of the adult organizing mind, but should be based absolutely on the subject-matter taught and should be vitally related to each other.

One of the effects of such reorganization is a saving of time. With such fusion of studies as I have briefly indicated, all the formal subjects usually taught in the grade, plus actual shop-work in *all* the handicrafts, can be adequately taught without the expenditure of an extra half-hour of time. The cost of such reorganization would be chiefly the initial expense in the way of additional space and equipment, and the permanent expense of perhaps two additional teachers in a school of average size. And finally, to make such reorganization effective, there must be mental organization on the part of both grade teacher and special teacher, and the special teacher should add to a broad pedagogical outlook, a sound technical training.

What would be the effect of such school work on children? The most startling assertion concerning the elementary school is that of those who enter the first grade 80 per cent. do not reach the eighth,[1] an educational leak which, if paralleled in business, would mean bankruptcy. It is my belief that no possible agency could so effectively hold a child in school as a right readjustment of the elementary course on the basis of handicrafts, and I say put the handwork in from the kindergarten up, because the children fall out chiefly in grades 3, 2, and 4, and in that order. Consider for a moment the agencies which the modern feeling of responsibility for the child brings into co-operative guardianship around the third-grade boy who wishes to play truant. A recent report lists them for us: The truant officer, the factory inspector, the probation officer, the charity worker, the sociologist, the social settlement worker, the woman's club, the teacher, the principal, and the humanitarian—all these to make one boy stay in the third grade. And yet he slips through the meshes of the educational system and escapes to his true school, the street. This small boy has more ingenuity and more energy than the school in its present organization can use, an ingenuity and energy certain to be destructive unless we can make them constructive.

If the money spent, and now necessarily spent, on restraint, constraint, reformation, were turned over into the school funds and expended on prevention, children and communities would be immeasurably the better therefor. That constructive activities would hold the child is clearly apparent from our truant schools, where the most difficult children are so held, and the report of their desirable activities comes with pathetic emphasis to the good little boy who has no such opportunities. We can quite understand the inoffensive little chap who in Chicago was found deliberately throwing stones at windows that he might be sent to Bowmanville (the parental school) "where they make things."

Now if we do succeed in holding the children thru the eight grades our

[1] Statement made at the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, Chicago, 1908.

educational problem is practically solved. It is because we have not been able to do this that the manufacturers have come forward with their remedy which is to push the trade ideal down into the grades. Appalled at the lost 80 per cent., at the mass of raw material not converted by the school into marketable stuff, dismayed by their own inability to get skilled workmen, they say, give us the child at the earliest possible moment, at the place where you no longer hold him; let him select a trade and we will at least make a tolerable artisan of him. There can hardly be a movement more significant and more important than to have the proverbial apathy of communities toward educational questions broken in upon by the alert interest of business men. They are progressive, practical, accustomed to see a weakness and remedy it without any beating around the bush. They command money and influence. What they ordain is almost certain to come to pass. I heartily agree with their plan of establishing trade schools. They are an imperative need. But I am strongly of the opinion that the trade school should not begin its special work till the close of the elementary school. In other words, I do not believe in two sorts of elementary schools, one bent to fasten on to a trade school, the other bent to fasten on to a "culture" school. Handwork in the elementary school should be the same whether the child is destined for the carpenter's bench, the professor's chair, or any of the vast range of occupations lying between these. Differentiation can seldom come wisely into play in the elementary school. Vocational selection, if imposed upon the child while still in the grades, is likely to be a disastrous mistake. No teacher, no parent, even, holds the divining-rod whereby may be discovered the secret springs of a child's best future activity. Even if voluntary, early vocational selection is not to be trusted. It is liable to be whimsical, uncertain, determined by temporary influences. If the kind of occupation fervently chosen by every boy of ten were to reach mature realization, the army and the navy, the police force, and the livery business, would be steadily overcrowded. It is hardly reasonable to expect a child of ten or twelve to select out of the great industrial forces of the world that particular line in which his contribution to those forces should run, nor should it be the purpose of the elementary school to urge such selection.

Courses in the elementary school should be planned with the idea of giving to each child the utmost in the way of general development possible to him. It is on this basis alone that constructive activities should be put into the first eight grades. I think of the child as at the hub of a wheel. All his studies and activities are the spokes that connect him with the rim, or the world in general. And he must be led to look along each spoke to each section of the rim. Each handicraft, each subject, should be considered as a means in throwing what Browning calls "films of connection" between the child and his environment. If you set him too early in an appointed groove, you unduly narrow his experience—you compel him to look along one spoke, to one section of the rim, instead of to all; you strengthen one film of connection at the expense of the

others. Every child, whether he is to be later in trade or in scholastic life, has a right to the widest opening-out of his personal resources, the most varied activities, the most freely experimental stretching-out of tentacles, that the best-planned, best-equipped elementary school can offer. By all means give every child a chance at a trade, but first give him the opportunity of being a developed individual.

Reorganization such as I believe in, a reorganization called for by two expert opinions, that of the business man and that of the small boy who plays truant at the third grade, would, I am confident, serve even the manufacturer's need better than his own method, which, indeed, he does not purpose as ideal but as a practical meeting of a present situation. Business statistics are as relentless as those of the schools and show that boys who go directly into some trade at fourteen to sixteen usually come to the limit of their advancement by eighteen, while those who can get more training are the ones who go on to higher positions.

To sum up: I believe in handwork in the elementary school, from the kindergarten up. I believe not in one or two activities, but in all the activities, taught in real shops, in a workman-like manner, from the standpoint of industrial history, to both girls and boys. I believe that the result of such training will be a product of greatly increased value to trade, to the college world, and to life in general, and I believe that this ideal can be wisely accomplished only when the business man and the pedagogue make it their common problem.

DISCUSSION

FRANK M. LEAVITT, assistant director of drawing and manual training, public schools, Boston, Mass.— The only procedure consistent with American ideals of free public instruction for *all* is the following-out, in some fashion, of the program which Miss Langley has indicated.

The public school is on trial and to hold its place in the esteem of the American people it must grapple with and solve this all-important problem of vocational training, and not hand it over to some other agency. Failing in this, the public school stands discredited and condemned.

There are three factors in the problem of industrial education: the manufacturer's or business interests, the educational interests, and the labor interests, and I place, in naming them, the educational interest between the other two, because that is just where in fact educators should stand. Between the demands of business on the one hand and the obstructions of labor unions on the other, the agency of public education should stand, holding the balance of power and turning all forces to the betterment of the condition of children. That the business interests cannot be trusted to deal with this question in a disinterested way can be all too clearly shown if we but recall for one moment the condition of child-labor as it exists in America today. That is another *story*, but let us not forget, however, the 2,250,000 children under fifteen who are wearing their lives away today in factory, mill, and mine, sadly degrading the next generation.

Some maintain that *all industrial training* must be given in special schools and that such schools should not admit children under sixteen years. If we accept Miss Langley's deduction that public instruction should provide *equal* opportunity for all, tho not necessarily the same opportunity, I do not see how we can refuse a considerable amount of constructive work—manual training, industrial training—call it what you will, to large

numbers of our children who will surely take their places in the *ranks* of the industrial army. Such children need more manual training and a different kind of manual training from that which is given, for its "cultural" value, so called, to those children who expect to enter business or the professions.

To be somewhat dogmatic—for the time is short—I believe that the program for a large city system must be somewhat as follows, in some sections of the city, at least.

Beginning with Grade VI, the children should have a chance to elect (or their parents to elect for them) admission to the "industrial class." (Let me say that this is not entirely visionary. We are actually doing it now in Boston, experimentally.)

In this "industrial class," five hours, at least, should be given to manual training—the time to be taken from drawing, physical training, and arithmetic. The work done in these classes, and the conditions under which it is done, should conform as closely as possible to actual industrial work in real life. The product should be not only useful, but should be put to use, preferably by the city. The articles made should be those which may be produced in quantities. The methods should be practical, and both product and method should be subjected to the same commercial tests, as far as possible, as apply in actual industry. What is it hoped to accomplish? To turn the attention of the children to things *industrial;* to give them an appreciation of *values*—value of materials, of time, and of modern industrial methods; to prolong the school life of the pupils while enhancing their chances for industrial success.

It is impossible to give an adequate idea of the Boston experiment without going into details, especially as regards methods, teacher, observed interest, increased efficiency, and disposition of work. Call it what you will, I believe it to be real *industrial education, in the public schools.* I believe that it is needed, that it will be welcomed by the parents, and that it should be in the public schools and nowhere else during the compulsory school period.

V. *AN INTERMEDIATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL BEGINNING AT THE SIXTH SCHOOL YEAR*

CHARLES H. MORSE, SECRETARY AND EXECUTIVE OFFICER OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

There should be no real industrial education, as I understand the term, undertaken before the child is fourteen years of age or at about the end of the ninth school year.

The term "industrial education" has been used by the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial Education for nearly two years to mean trade education. But this does not mean a trade education as understood by some to signify the instruction given in a school which teaches a degree of manipulative skill in the shortest possible time without regard to a thoro preparation for a trade. Neither should manual training be regarded as industrial training.

In the majority of cases in this country, manual-training courses are given by men or women who have never learned a trade of any kind, and they deny with much feeling that their courses should be treated as other than cultural.

Manual training should be given in all the school grades from the kindergarten up. But do not let us deceive ourselves. Such courses are no more industrial courses than the penmanship courses or the drawing courses now given in our elementary schools are industrial courses.

If I must plan a course which will ultimately lead to a trade, beginning with

boys at twelve who are residents of a city, the course for the first two years would not materially differ from the work which would be given in a well-conducted grammar school for children of the same age.

I would have the child at that age study, in connection with other subjects, the manufacturing establishments of the community. He should know their business organization and general methods of management, their history, the sources of the raw materials used, the geography of the regions from which the raw materials come, the transportation facilities, and, in a general way, the various processes of manufacture. The markets for the finished product should be studied; also the special qualifications required of the employees, the wages for beginners, the average increase of wages, and the possibilities for advancement for an earnest, intelligent worker, as well as the hours of work and the steadiness of employment for each industry.

All this would be given as work in English, geography, and history. These investigations of industries must needs be conducted under the guidance of a teacher who could understand the bearing of such study upon the boy's mind. All of this work should be comprehended in every grammar-school course.

If such studies could be carried on under a broad-minded and well-equipped teacher, the boy's point of view would be quite different from that of the fourteen year old boy as educated today, and he would be prepared to choose an occupation more wisely. I look upon such study not as industrial education, however, but as a line of general education of value to every boy.

Last summer I visited a school in Cork, Ireland, which should be seen by every American teacher. Each classroom was completely surrounded by cases with glass doors, containing Irish manufactures in every stage from the raw materials to the finished article. And yet the school was not a trade school.

At fourteen years of age the industrial training begins. The boy should be given courses in woodworking and iron-working for one-half of each school day. This should be supplemented with other subjects, including drawing, arithmetic, simple bookkeeping, industrial geography, and industrial history, as well as a continued study of local industries. At the sixteenth year, such a boy would be prepared to study his chosen trade, having a foundation for that trade which could not be obtained in any shop in our American industries. These last two years should be taken either in a school, under shop conditions, one-half of the time in the classroom and one-half in the school shop, or by a combination of part-time in the school and part-time in a commercial shop. In the former case, the boy should remain in the school eleven months of the year, eight hours per day, except Saturday, when the school should close at noon. There should be no protracted vacations other than the month of August. One-half of the time should be given to shop-work, and the balance to the study of such subjects as have a direct bearing on the chosen trade, such as its history, drawing, mathematics, chemistry, and physics; and, in addition to these, citizenship should be studied.

Under the part-time system the boy would take these latter courses along

with work in a commercial shop, by working in the industry for a week and then attending a continuation school for a week. Thus the theory and practice of the trade would go on hand in hand, and the boy would also be helping to support himself and his family. By such systems of trade education our boys would ultimately contribute more largely toward the prosperity of our country than is possible under our present method of trade education. Such courses of instruction are proving eminently satisfactory in numerous European schools, and the graduates of such schools are in demand after a shortened apprenticeship and are receiving the highest prevailing wages.

The problem for the boys who will conduct our farms is somewhat different from that just stated for the boy who intends entering the manufacturing industries. That he should be given preparation for his life's work in an agricultural school, and not in a high school with some agricultural courses attached, I have no doubt. During the past week the farmers of Massachusetts, thru the State Grange, appeared at the state house in opposition to a bill providing for agricultural and industrial courses in the existing high schools. Many of the superintendents of schools of the state argued in favor of the bill. The farmers said most emphatically, "This is not what we want." They said, "Give us independent agricultural schools."

We would all agree that some instruction in mechanical trades should be made a part of the work of an agricultural school. Much farm machinery must be cared for by these boys, and farm carpentry should not be neglected.

In these independent agricultural schools the girls should take many of the agricultural courses, together with domestic science and home dressmaking and millinery.

The school must be planned as a finishing school for the future farmers, but provision should be made for those who can continue their education. Such schools should fit the boys for the state agricultural college and both the boy and the girl for the state normal school.

For the city girl who must, at an early date, begin to earn her living, the problem is most difficult. We are informed by those who have made a study of this question that the average time a girl remains in productive industry is about five years. The question of educating a girl, therefore, for the industry in which she is likely to remain for so short a time must be considered as a distinct problem. These girls are destined, in the large majority of cases, to become the wives of our mechanics and the mothers of the coming generation. I can but feel that the school training these girls to earn their own living for five years should be accompanied by a large share of instruction which will fit them for the work of home-making which they are to pursue for the forty additional years of life.

An interesting problem is now being tried in the city of Boston in a section where the residents are very largely from Italy. At the request of their parents, fifty girls about thirteen years of age have been selected, who attend the upper grades in the grammar school during the forenoon. The

entire afternoon session is devoted to hand and machine work in a separate and independent school provided thru private subscription. Here about two hours per day are devoted to sewing and dressmaking. The work cannot, however, be fairly classed as industrial work. I am informed that several of the girls who have become fourteen years of age since entering the school have continued in the grammar school that they might attend the afternoon classes. This work is in charge of enthusiastic women who are seriously studying this problem. We shall look forward with much interest to the result of this experiment. Certainly, the choice of all would be to retain these girls in school for a much longer time and give them a thoro preparation for home-making and also for a trade corresponding in thoroness to that suggested for the boys; and I sincerely hope the problem may be worked out with such a course as the ultimate aim of the girls' school.

I regret that ten minutes does not give me sufficient time to present this subject as it should be presented to this audience. I have confined my remarks to what I consider the essentials.

VI. *A TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL*

GEORGE H. MARTIN, SECRETARY OF MASSACHUSETTS STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASS.

In a complete system of industrial education the place and function of a technical high school may be summarized as follows:

1. Such a school will have an avowedly vocational purpose. This will exclude the so-called general courses and also manual-training courses for culture which aim only to offer new intellectual feeding-grounds to boys who do not care to browse in the old academic pastures.

2. The vocations for which such a school would prepare are not the professions. Hence, courses especially designed to prepare for the colleges and for the normal schools would be excluded, tho these are really vocational courses.

3. Technical high schools may be commercial, agricultural, or mechanical. Mechanical high schools may be as varied as the manufacturing industries for which they are to prepare. A school may prepare for a single industry, or it may be polytechnic in its character, offering a variety of courses adapted to local needs.

4. In the age of its pupils, in the length of its courses, and in its preparatory requirements, a technical high school should correspond with high schools of other sorts. This would call for four-year courses following the completion of an eight- or nine-year elementary course, and would include pupils, roughly speaking, from fourteen to eighteen years of age.

5. Being a technical school, its distinctive function will be to develop economic efficiency, but in common with all public schools it must aim also to develop intellectual and moral character. Each of these aims is both individual and social.

6. The work of the school will be threefold: (*a*) To furnish technical knowledge and technical skill; (*b*) to promote intelligence, breadth, and refinement of a cultural sort; (*c*) to develop a sense of civic obligation.

7. For the first purpose there should be drawing, mathematics, and science, in kind and amount according to the needs of the industry for whose technique the student is preparing. Thus for agriculture there would be needed a larger proportion of chemistry and biology than of drawing and mathematics. For the mechanic arts, the course should be strong in drawing, mathematics, and physics. The course in chemistry would be different in agriculture from that in tanning or dyeing or household sanitation.

8. Technical skill in mechanic arts can be acquired only in a shop, so that shop practice must constitute a large part of the work of the technical school. It may be gained either in a school shop or in a commercial shop. Which is better the experience of the world has not yet determined. Both are in operation and each has its advantages. Undoubtedly a good school shop is better than a poor commercial shop, but a school shop to be good must contain the essential features of the best commercial shop. Its instructors must be shop-trained men, its hours and discipline must be those of the shop, and its product must be a salable commercial product. Whether the product should be sold or not is another question. What is true of the shop-work is equally true of the farm-work.

9. In order that the student may become a useful citizen as well as a skilled workman, the school course should include history, economics, and civics. Time also should be provided for thoro physical training, including personal hygiene and organized athletics. English should be cultivated thruout the course by composition and forensics. Opportunity should be offered to those students who might find relaxation and aesthetic pleasure in the study and practice of vocal and instrumental music.

No attempt has been made in this brief outline to indicate the sequence of these studies nor the distribution of time among them, nor have I undertaken to discuss the mode of administration or financing or the governmental relations of the school.

It will be seen that I do not believe in throwing away the existing high school nor in turning it into a shop nor in substituting a shop for it. This whole work would be destructive of the most cherished American ideals if, while teaching young men how to get a better living, the schools failed to teach them how to live a better life.

GREETING FROM THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO

SEÑOR EZEQUIEL CHAVEZ, UNDER-SECRETARY OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, REPUBLIC OF MEXICO

(As interpreted by Mr. Branch, inspector of English in the public schools of Mexico)

Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen: Of all human interests, that of social organization is most important. Thru progressive organization men

have passed from the fortuitous associations of society in prehistoric times, and from tyrannical governments, to modern, republican forms of government. Among the various works of organization, some have the immediate future as their end whilst others have in view, if we may be permitted to say so, a permanent future. Some engage a small group of men; others, all the men of a nation. Those forms of organization that have in view the permanent future of a nation are the works of co-ordination and preparation for the future; and this is the work of national education. Schools need a preparatory work which consists in organizing and co-ordinating their efforts. This is what is realized by associations such as the National Education Association of the United States of America.

This is an immense work, because it forms the ideals of every nation. It snatches these ideals from the depths of the past and works them out in the lives of the children, perfecting them so that the co-ordination of the work is to a certain extent prophetic, because thereby they anticipate the future of not only a small group but of a whole people, by bringing that people nearer perfection.

In the midst of this work in which you are engaged, a stranger arrives from beyond the Rio Grande, from the sister Republic of the South, and knocks at your doors. He greets you. In greeting you, he says: "Remember, gentlemen, that while you are preparing the future of your own nation you should also consider that of the other adjacent nations of the continent. Many men have but short range of vision. They are the illiterate and are like children. A cloud covers the land beyond the limits of their own country and prevents their co-ordinating their efforts with those of other countries. Remember that one of the means of perfecting the American national spirit, admirable and admired by all nations, is to make it more capable of understanding the soul and spirit of other nations, in order to concert with them in the future of the whole world.

And now, gentlemen, for your cordial attention in listening to me, receive my heartiest thanks. The fact itself that I am here in your midst sharing your ideas proves that you think, as we Mexicans do, that it is necessary to co-ordinate our efforts so that in the spirits of the children there shall grow up an ever-increasing cordial spirit which shall at length break all barriers and unite all men in one great brotherhood, under the one flag of the great blue sky.

AGRICULTURE, INDUSTRIES, AND HOME ECONOMICS IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

WILLET M. HAYS, ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Our country has come to recognize that changed economic conditions, an increase in technical knowledge, and newly devised forms of school work have made it necessary and practicable to broaden out our educational machinery so as to give a large place to the industrial vocations. Existing schools

must enrich their courses of study along these new lines so vitally connected with the thought and work of the people, and the newer types of schools especially fitted to the industrial life of the people must be developed so as to meet the new conditions in the largest and best way. The volume of the new work is very large. No one class of schools can do all of it. The question might be raised whether it is better to adapt existing schools to do this teaching or to develop new schools for this purpose. Manifestly we shall get on all too slowly, even if we utilize both plans.

Generally speaking, one-third of our menfolk are in agriculture, and one-third in the non-agricultural productive industries; while two-thirds of our women are in the vocation of home-making. Thus at least two-thirds of all our people enter the vocations of agriculture, the mechanic industries, and home-making, and nearly all these receive their only schooling in our public schools. The percentage of the whole of our workers engaged in agriculture has decreased in a century from three-fourths of the whole population to one-third, and the indications are that it will decrease to one-fourth. As this percentage decreases the proportions become more nearly static, and those leaving the farm for the city are replaced by those leaving the city for the farm. Under conditions in which only a very small part of the population move from the farm to the town and only an equal number move from the city to the country, the rural community should have for the higher grades in its schools strong vocational courses, and the education for the city youth should close with courses related to the city vocations. There should be also easy methods of transit from the country life schools to the city schools and vice versa. All will agree that there should be in the city schools some agriculture both as a culture-study and as a means of interesting those peculiarly attracted to and adapted for the life of farming or the work of specialists in lines related to agriculture. All will agree, also, that the school in the rural community should have some instruction in mechanics because of its general educational and its vocational value in farming, and because it may enable those youth with pronounced mechanical instincts to find and develop their peculiar talents. And all will agree that the girls in all public primary and secondary schools in country and city should study home economics.

The expense of developing strong agricultural courses in city public schools is prohibitive, because even with state and federal aid few cities would be able to support courses for all the vocations in their own districts. Agricultural secondary schools, consolidated rural schools, and the small district rural schools, for a similar reason, cannot offer courses in mechanic arts, commercial business, and other city vocations. Large highly differentiated schools covering all fields might be devised, but they would not be near the people where the pupils can sleep in their parents' homes.

For those who cannot secure in their home schools vocational training along the lines they desire, special vocational schools are necessary. For the non-agricultural industries these schools may best be located in large

centers of population, so far as practicable, in the atmosphere of the vocation for which preparation is sought, and near the homes of a large portion of the pupils, each choosing that school which best meets his needs. For the agricultural industries these vocational schools should be in the country, preferably near a town or city. Those experienced in agricultural secondary schools designed mainly for young men and young women who are to remain on the farm, or are to change from city to country life, are unanimous in the belief, so far as I know, that these schools will not succeed so well as annexes to city schools as when separate and on large farms. As the school of art, theology, literature, or science needs an environment, an atmosphere of its own, made possible by a strong special group of teachers and students in a large institution, or in a separate institution, so the finishing industrial vocational school secures advantages from being distinctive as a separate school or as a strong unit in a large school. Weak industrial departments in schools mainly devoted to non-industrial subjects, are being developed pedagogically, and as the industries become better organized so as to increase the amount and regularity of employment, these industrial departments will oftener than now succeed, whatever the school environment. But it will always be true that the schools highly developed for special work in agriculture, in the mechanic industries, arts, and trades, and in home economics, will establish the highest standards in education in these respective lines. The trend seems strongly to the development of large secondary mechanic-arts schools and large secondary agricultural schools as parts of our public-school system, and to include home economics in both. There are, however, none so narrow as to limit instruction in these practical lines to these large special secondary schools. The industrial studies are finding more and more room in the academic public secondary schools in cities; and especially in the secondary schools of villages, towns and cities not large enough to support separate technical schools. Even short trades courses are finding favor in the public schools of some smaller towns where there is need for expert tradesmen in specific industries, as well as in large centers of population. And even the primary schools of our cities are giving more and more attention to mechanical and home-making vocational work.

A most powerful movement has set in to place agriculture and home economics in our rural schools. The efforts have been fairly fruitful in devising ways of successfully installing at least the beginnings of these studies in the one-room district school. But modern conditions have decreed that the little red schoolhouse shall live in blessed memory, and that gradually the consolidated rural school shall take its place, and shall grandly combine the general and the rural vocational subjects into a broader, richer, and more useful course of study. Here is the most promising of all fields for vocational school work in relation to the productive industries and to the homes of the community.

It is worthy of note that there are already established, or being established,

thirty agricultural secondary public schools out of the 300 needed to place one in each group of ten of our 3,000 agricultural counties. Even more significant is the fact that 600 consolidated rural schools have taken the place of 4,000 little district schools and that two-thirds of our district rural schools seem destined eventually to give way to the consolidated rural school. It seems clear that the great bulk of all instruction in agriculture and country home-making will be given in the consolidated rural school. The agricultural secondary school will set standards for the consolidated rural school and provide its teachers, and the graduates returning will make possible its excellence. The colleges of agriculture, the state experiment station, and the federal and state departments of agriculture will each serve most important purposes; but they will do their largest work thru the consolidated rural school. In this neighborhood school two-thirds of the farm boys and girls will combine school-going and apprenticeship education on the home farm. In the districts too sparsely settled or too isolated to consolidate their schools, the other one-third of our rural youth will have teachers who have been trained in the consolidated rural schools, in the agricultural secondary schools, and in the state normal schools equipped to prepare teachers to instruct in farming and home-making.

AN ARTICULATED SCHOOL SYSTEM

The United States has a system of articulated schools for non-agricultural communities well organized. The primary eight-grade schools, including simple forms of instruction in manual training and home economics, are now well defined in most states. The secondary four-year courses in academic studies, often with electives in technical and industrial lines, in technological subjects, trades, business and home economics, and the shorter vocational courses, as in trades, business, and home economics, are also being definitely organized. The same is true of the collegiate schools offering academic courses, often with many elective subjects leading toward vocations; professional courses, as law, medicine, and pedagogy; science courses, as chemistry and physics, and engineering courses, as electrical and mechanical.

For agricultural communities the one-room rural district school with six to eight grades, including wherever practicable some agriculture and home economics, is the well-defined type; and no doubt it will remain in one-third of our agricultural area. The consolidated rural school with eight primary grades, and two secondary-school grades including instruction in agriculture and home economics, is coming forward as a type of local school for all of our more productive agricultural areas. In some cases this school is combined with the village school, but in most cases it is in the open country with only farm patrons. Estimates place the number of strictly rural consolidated schools, each covering an area approximately 5 miles square, at 600. This type of school is far more advanced in type, in numbers, and in the firm hold it has taken on the rural community, than is realized by any but the few

who have especially studied this class of schools. Mr. George W. Knorr, after visiting 200 consolidated rural schools, estimates that more than 99 per cent. of their farmer patrons have become ardent supporters of consolidation. The farmers who try this form of school are as unanimously in favor of it as those who adopted the grain reaper or the sewing machine upon first trial were in favor of those implements.

The secondary agricultural school with the third and fourth high-school grades or years is coming forward to supplement the two high-school years of the consolidated rural or village school; and the little unconsolidated school with four-year secondary courses in agriculture and home economics.

Every person, so far as I know, who has really absorbed the plan and spirit of agricultural secondary schools as developed in this country, and especially those who have followed the farm boys and girls thru these schools back to the home farm or into the college of agriculture, is exceedingly optimistic concerning the future relation of this class of schools to our country life.

The college of agriculture thru half a century of struggle has gained an honorable place among collegiate institutions, and these institutions already form a crown to that branch of our system of articulated schools which is related to our country life. Buttressed by the research work of state agricultural experiment stations and departments of agriculture, the improvement of the quality of work in these institutions is going forward rapidly, and the multiplication of agricultural research and educational institutions is greatly increasing the demand for their graduates.

There is keenly felt in our agricultural education a need of such an articulation between the schools relating to agriculture and to country life as exists between all our schools and the colleges devoted to the non-agricultural professions. The farm youth has no continuous school ladder in the line of his early training, and few are encouraged to go on to our poorly filled collegiate agricultural courses. Some secondary schools are needed which along with a broad training lead farm boys forward to leadership in technical agriculture as well as into other vocations. But what is still more needed is broad secondary courses which articulate at both ends with the farm; which attract those farm youths who are to remain on the farm and specifically prepare them for their work.

Those who fear that providing special schools which would graduate annually 20,000 to 30,000 farm boys and girls in secondary agricultural schools would divide our school system into two systems need only to use arithmetic to discover how small a part these are of the three millions who annually close their school careers. The problem will still remain of reaching the several million pupils from rural homes. The establishment of several hundred strong secondary schools of agriculture, and of mechanic arts, as well as the introduction of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics into our public normal schools, will make possible the introduction of these subjects into all

our schools. The opportunity which seems to offer of installing vocational education thruout our school system seems a very large interest compared with which mere local interests are of very minor weight. Those interested in our youth will be able to make our schools even more American than they now are if the American industries have a larger recognition in all classes of our public schools.

The connection of our collegiate, secondary, and elementary schools which deal with country life with our state experiment stations, with the U. S. Department of Agriculture, and with other institutions which discover new truths, creates new values as by breeding plants and animals, and helps devise new pedagogical methods in technical studies, on the one hand; and their connection, on the other hand, with the practical management of our farms and farm homes, is of far greater significance than any relations between city and country life schools, important as they may be. The unity with the home education during school life and with the after-graduation life-education is the matter of larger concern. The few finding it well to do so can easily shift from non-agricultural to agricultural courses, or the converse, with far less loss to society than will occur from having the schools lead many into fields other than those into which the pupils are to go. The schools which today, are dwarfed as compared with the functions they have to perform, are those secondary schools or "peoples colleges" which lead to the industrial vocations where large numbers are to be accommodated.

It should clearly be recognized that the types of primary, secondary, collegiate, and graduate schools to make a well-formed American educational system are all present, and that the weakness of the system is quantitative. The secondary academic schools leading to the collegiate and graduate professional and so-called higher technical vocations are not outgrown; the schools leading to the productive industries are simply undeveloped. To articulate with the farm, the shop, and the home in a broader and more unified way the vocational studies must be magnified. While all our schools need strengthening, placing equal stress on building up all classes of schools on their present status would retain the present unequal development. The need of the hour is to build up the industrial vocational courses in our system of secondary schools.

Some conservative persons have wrongly defined the vocational school as an institution in which industrial subjects displace the accepted academic studies. The fact is that most of these courses are approximately one-third academic or literary, one-third scientific, and one-third vocational. Practically, the foreign languages and a small part of the other general studies give way to book, laboratory, and shop or outdoor studies related to the basic industries of the community or to home-making. In two ways these courses are broader than the general academic course. The student can accomplish more when part of his work is with things, and his book work is brighter and means more to him. His other studies have a clearer setting, a keener interest,

and wider co-ordinations. The more practical school leads to a broader view of life, better fitting the youth to choose a calling. It at once prevents the dreamy student from becoming bookish and holds the too practical student longer on his book tasks.

One prominent educator has expressed fear that to supplement our school system with secondary schools highly equipped for training in farming and farm home-making would peasantize our farmers. Suppose the great state of Iowa had 10 of these schools with a total of 5,000 students, and should graduate annually 1,000; suppose further that 400 of these graduates would become teachers of agriculture and home economics in consolidated farm and village schools, eventually for the most part becoming farmers or farmers' wives; 400 return to the farm direct; 100 go forward to the agricultural college, and 100 into non-agricultural vocations. How less than one trained farmer per township would peasantize the farmers of a state is not made clear. It may be supposed that the author of that statement conceived the idea that the oncoming consolidated rural school and the agricultural secondary school would be narrowly agricultural.

Those who are experienced in developing secondary courses in both of these classes of schools for the vigorous American farm boy and girl realize that the course of study is broadened by adding to nearly all the academic work ordinarily given in high schools strong, inspiring, practical subjects relating to the farm and the farm home. Since the mind is here developed along lines in which it is to have food for thought thruout life, the education is truly started for the whole lifetime.

How so changing our courses of study in the rural schools that the youth not only receives vocational training but remains longer in school and secures more of the traditional education as well, will peasantize farmers, has not been shown. It certainly is not based upon intimate knowledge of the actual effects of typical schools now in operation. That education can un-Americanize or peasantize, is truly a novel proposition.

Money can never secure the land from farmers highly trained to succeed in and to appreciate the management of farms and farm homes. Strong schools combining general and vocational education are the nation's great safeguard against peasantizing the people. Educated people rule. Our fathers installed Americanism on this rich continent, and thru a broad and efficient educational system the kings of finance are to be kept under the rulership of the people. Newly centralized commercial powers require newly organized power of the people. The productive unit—the man—must be increased in economic, social, and political power, and this requires general and vocational education.

The same author objects to building up schools especially devoted to country life, fearing that the village and city schools will be seriously injured by withdrawing from them the vigorous farm boys and girls who now attend there. Another writer insists that our republicanism depends upon educating

all classes together in one set of schools. The experience of 600 consolidated rural schools has shown their 10,000 farm patrons that this and many other objections to country life educational institutions are fallacious. In so far as experiments have gone in the mapping of counties to consolidate our rural schools, the tendency has been for more rather than less pupils to be conveyed into the schools of villages and smaller town centers. The method of dividing the districts so as to carry more to the village school, thus helping to build it up, or to carry more to the consolidated farm school more or less distant from the village so as to better insure a rural atmosphere, is a subject as yet open for investigation. Where there is a village as well as a rural community to be served, probably combining the village school and the school for the rural pupils on a school farm beside the village will oftenest best serve the largest number. But the farm school out in the country, and the agricultural secondary school, where the farm boy or girl at the age of 17 to 20 boards for two or more winters, will give a vastly broader point of view, a wider acquaintanceship and a stronger social status as well as a better preparation for the management of the farm and the farm home than is possible under the alternative plan of a little agriculture in a general course of study or of a little agriculture and home economics in existing schools.

Allowing agricultural education just to grow, or trying the impossible task of securing state money to introduce agriculture into existing secondary schools, nearly all of which are in cities, is apparently a very poor alternative. Let that education for rural youth grow as it will, but let us give specific direction to federal and state money into vocational schools to set standards for and impetus to a more practical education in all schools. All know that local tax measures of the state or city will do well to yield sufficient revenues for the academic studies. Federal and state money limited to the studies deemed too expensive by the local community, will result in a co-operation between state and locality which will provide schools including both general and vocational education.

The proposition in the Industrial School Bill now before the Sixtieth Congress has rapidly grown into wide favor. Many national and state organizations of farmers, of labor leaders, of educators, and of manufacturers have generally either indorsed this bill or have taken such action that their executive boards may properly favor this measure in practically its present form. Congressman Davis says that many members of the House of Representatives and Senate express the desire to help enact it into a law. It equitably distributes money raised by general taxation giving its share to every district in the land. It is generally agreed that the worst fault of our schools is that they discriminate against the productive industries and home-making; and correcting such a general local mistake is clearly a federal function.

Those who earlier feared that national appropriations would tend to centralization realize that taxes raised by the federal government and turned over to the localities with which to build up state institutions accumulate the

strength in the state and actually decentralize government. The results from federal appropriations for state colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts and the state agricultural experiment stations absolutely dissipate that fear. Those who feared that the present Secondary Industrial Education Bill was the forerunner to revive the movement centered years ago in the so-called "Blair Bill," which designed to put the federal treasury behind our public-school system, acknowledge that this bill adds no new principle of law to that in the Morrill Act of 1862, confining the expenditure as it does to industrial education even more rigidly than does that act.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE FIFTY-NINTH CONGRESS

The Fifty-ninth Congress passed the Adams Act adding $15,000 to the similar annual appropriation to each state experiment station; and made into law the Nelson Amendment giving to each state college of agriculture and mechanic arts $25,000 more annually. It also liberally increased the research and educational funds of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. But of equal or greater significance is the fact that at this session were introduced bills to extend federal appropriations to secondary education in agriculture and the mechanic arts. Following the meteor-like financing by private subscription which gave $800,000 to equip eleven agricultural secondary schools in Georgia, two bills were introduced along this line by members of Congress from that state. One would give $10,000 to each agricultural secondary school established in a congressional district; the other would provide a fund for a branch experiment station at each of such schools. These were followed by a bill embodying not only these two ideas, but also including funds for mechanic-arts secondary schools in all our cities. A bill to enable state normal schools to prepare teachers to teach industrial work was also introduced.

It is stated of this new bill that it simply carries out the intention of the Congress of 1862 which inaugurated education for the industries by providing for a college of agriculture and the mechanic arts in each state. It seems clear that Congress looked upon all education above the primary school as collegiate education; advanced schools not then having been differentiated into secondary and collegiate institutions. Congress had no means of conceiving the magnitude of the undertaking, nor of the resources the present and future decades can afford to devote to this vocational education; and at that time there were only vague dreams of our great Department of Agriculture or of state experiment stations.

Briefly stated, the terms of the proposed bill provide that Congress shall appropriate annually to each state 10 cents per capita for secondary industrial education. Of this sum each city with more than 2,000 inhabitants shall receive its per-capita share, the only limitation being that this money shall be used for studies in mechanic arts and home economics in schools of secondary grade. To the population outside of cities of the size named the 10 cents per

capita shall be used for studies in agriculture and home economics in secondary agricultural schools. In both the city secondary industrial schools and in the agricultural high schools thus established the state or locality must furnish the lands, buildings, and also current funds to provide all the necessary general studies to round out strong courses of study. The only restrictive provisions are that the federal money shall be effectively used for studies relating to agriculture, the mechanic arts, and home economics. Since the money is not sufficient to be applied to the consolidated rural school and to the village school where rural pupils must attend while sleeping in their parents' homes, that part provided for those who expect to be farmers and farm home-makers is directed to be used in agricultural secondary schools of rather large size. This insures that excellence of equipment and teaching force which will justify the nearly mature farm youth in expending time and money to attend.

The bill further provides that Congress shall appropriate one-fourth the sum received by each agricultural high school for a branch agricultural experiment station to be located at these institutions and requires the state to appropriate an equal sum for these stations. This branch station fund will aid the practical teachers to fully understand the soils, crops, and live stock, and the plan of farm management suited to the respective districts. It will provide means with which to co-operate both with the state experiment station and with the United States Department of Agriculture in breeding, testing, and distributing new varieties of field, orchard, and garden crops; in improving the breeds of animals; and in working out systems of farm organization, field management, soil fertilization, and crop production. The assistance these branch stations located in each agricultural district of the entire country would give to the state experiment stations and to the United States Department of Agriculture in enabling them better to do the work of creative breeding, testing, and distributing varieties of plants will, by increasing the values of our crops alone, more than pay the entire sum annually provided by this bill for practical education in city and country.

As a federal measure the 10-county district plan is far more conservative than the plan of establishing one agricultural secondary school and branch agricultural experiment station in each county. To really provide one well-equipped school in each county would cost several times as much as to equip one in each 10 counties. And even yet more expensive would be the plan of using federal money to place agriculture in existing consolidated rural, township, and village schools and in secondary city schools where rural pupils attend. Our rural township and consolidated schools are developing secondary courses. To pay out of the federal treasury for secondary agricultural studies in these schools would mean undertaking to place this instruction where all the pupils could secure it, while yet sleeping at home. The cost would be several times the cost under the plan proposed, and those who, in opposition to the pending bill, propose that alternative surely have not considered the cost to the federal treasury. The more conservative plan is to use federal

money only to produce leaders and teachers for the proposed larger secondary schools and thus to prepare the state and the locality to meet the local expenditure and to manage its home problems.

The 10-county plan provides branch agricultural experiment stations of a size which have proven stable and efficient. Districts of this size provide the needed permanently equipped experiment farm on which the state experiment stations and the federal Department of Agriculture can carry on such long-time and careful work as improving the crops and animals of the respective states by breeding, and comparing systems of crop rotation, soil fertilization, and farm management.

The consolidated rural school and especially the village school, in which the farm boys and girls begin their courses of vocational training, need the large finely equipped agricultural high school where the secondary vocational course relating to country life can be completed, where both instruction and inspiration will be given. The branch experiment station will articulate with the 10-acre farm of the consolidated rural or village school, and many of the seeds and plants and many of the new ways of doing things developed by departments of agriculture and by experiment stations can be carried by the branch station to the rural school farm and from there thru the pupils to all the farms of the country to which they are respectively adapted.

This new educational bill, under a plan of restricting the use of federal funds to industrial studies, proposes to broaden, round out, complete and make more effective our entire educational system, alike for city and for country. It will do wonders for our farm boys and girls, for our city youth of all classes, and will start our colored race on a new era of industrial interest, enlightenment and efficiency. Instead of breaking up the unity of our system, it brings about unity by unifying school education with education outside the school. This measure was written in the light of the lessons learned from the administration of the land-grant or state college and the state experiment station acts.

Following such noteworthy examples as the Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Nebraska agricultural high schools and branch experiment station organizations, 300 of these institutions would accommodate 100,000 farm boys and girls, most of whom are not seeking an avenue off the farm. Probably 20,000 would graduate annually, the majority returning to take leading places in their farm communities, a large proportion entering upon teaching as in the consolidated farm schools, in village schools, in normal schools, and in the small district rural schools, and probably 10 per cent. going to the agricultural college.

Following such splendid examples as the St. Louis, St. Paul, and Washington mechanic arts secondary schools, hundreds of non-agricultural secondary schools will accommodate hundreds of thousands of city youth, who wish to pursue courses in mechanic arts, industries, and trades, and girls who wish to have technical training along home-making lines. Tens of thousands will

annually graduate and be prepared to rapidly gain high efficiency in the expert trades or in the keeping of homes. Not a few will proceed to the engineering or other technical colleges and the graduates of these schools will eventually grow into leadership of many of our manufacturing and transportation industrial enterprises. But the great majority will take the well-paid places requiring masterful artisans, now too often taken from American youth by highly skilled foreigners. These schools, instead of being places to turn out cheap tradesmen, will supply men who, having joined scientific information, school-shop experience, and actual service in their chosen trades, will set new standards for our expert trades. Under public management, they will treat fairly both the man who has labor to sell and the man who is seeking to employ labor. They will tend to increase wages in these lines; and they will tend to increase the output from labor and to increase the remuneration both of the laborer and the capitalist. Many of the women graduates will splendidly build up the home economics instruction in all schools where girls attend, from primary to collegiate, insuring that the housewives, and mothers of our land be expert in their work. The improvement which will come thru instruction in home economics in the agricultural high schools and in the mechanic arts high schools, will repay all the cost to the federal, state, and local governments required under the provisions of this bill.

Probably the most important feature of the new educational plan in our public-school system is the extension of the school life into the youth's work period: the dovetailing of the school attendance into the entrance upon active life. The youth in the secondary course in the consolidated rural school or in the agricultural secondary school devotes alternate six-month periods to school and to the work of the farm. And during the six months out of school the work is made educational by the co-operation of teacher and parents. Likewise, some manufacturing concerns co-operate with the schools, and give the students apprenticeship training one part of the year, taking another group at another season, or the years of work at school and in the apprentice shop are alternated, or even the months or the weeks in school and in the shop are alternated. In some cases the boy's day is divided between the school and the apprenticeship shop. The evening continuation school for those who must work the whole day is still another form of joining school and practical life. General plans need to be wrought out, that the pupil may change from school to real life in a natural way, not easily nor yet too abruptly, nor in a way too strenuous for the development of full physical and mental health.

An arithmetical statement of a completed system of country life educational institutions for a state like Iowa, which is nearly all agricultural, will aid in an understanding of the new movement to give to those who are to farm an education at once broad and vocational. Iowa has one agricultural college in the central one of its 99 counties. An agricultural high school in each group of 10 counties would provide 10 of these schools. Consolidating the

130 rural schools and the half-dozen village schools of each county into 20 consolidated rural schools and six schools in which the farm and village schools are combined would provide a total for the state of practically 2,000 consolidated farm schools and 600 village, town, and city schools to which rural pupils are hauled by teams. We have thus one agricultural college, 10 agricultural high schools at which the pupils must board, and 2,000 consolidated farm schools. It may be assumed that some pupils will go from the village and city schools to the agricultural high school, but that more will go from the farm to the city, general, and special secondary schools, and that for the present purpose the village and city schools may be left out of the general figures. It may be further assumed that each consolidated rural school will have 130 pupils, 20 of whom are in the high-school course, for the most part in the first and second high-school years, and 110 pupils in eight primary grades.

A normal proportion of students in the three classes of institutions would then seem to be about as follows: Primary students in 2,000 consolidated rural schools, 220,000; secondary-school students in these 2,000 consolidated rural schools, 40,000; secondary-school students in 10 agricultural high schools, 4,000; and agricultural collegiate students in the agricultural college, 400. No doubt many would go from the largest consolidated rural schools directly to the state normal school, while others would attend the agricultural high school before attending the normal, thus to better prepare to teach in the consolidated rural school. Similar figures might be used to show the relation of the city secondary schools articulating with the engineering and other courses in the State University at Iowa City, and in the College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, at Ames; also of the agriculture, manual-training, and home economics in the village, town, city, and agricultural schools, to the State Normal School at Cedar Falls.

The bill now before Congress is open to defeat or to improvement and passage. Broadly speaking, it proposes to change our expenditure from say $4 per capita to $4.10 per capita; and to provide that this added 2½ per cent. of our school expenditure shall be placed under a plan where it can be used only for training in agriculture, in mechanical industries, and in home-making. We all know that this is the side of our educational machinery which has not kept pace with our needs. Some may be willing to take the responsibility of opposing this plan now so auspiciously started, or to load it with other propositions good in themselves but handicaps to the main proposition.

It is of interest to this assemblage of school officials to state that those officials of state normal schools and of state departments of public instruction who are promoting a federal appropriation for normal schools and those interested in securing federal support to secondary industrial education, have each recognized that the two measures represent a single movement and that they should be combined. Already steps are under way to frame a bill around which all can unite in a common movement to put industrial education into

our public-school system, wherever and in whatever form local conditions may require. In the secondary schools the studies relating to the industries will be mainly directed toward the preparation of pupils for those agricultural, mechanical, and home-making vocations into which most of them will enter; but in a less direct way these studies will be used to prepare teachers for these subjects. The normal schools, on the other hand, will use the proposed federal funds mainly to prepare teachers in agriculture, manual training, and home economics; but incidentally will add materially to the sum of vocational training, as many of their students will at most teach only temporarily.

The greatest object of education is the uplift of the whole people, the greatest good to the greatest number. But this must be done in large part by the development of leaders. Leaders must not be alone leaders of religion, literature, art, and science. There must be leaders of the community, of the everyday life, of the common work, and of home-making and social intercourse. Our existing schools are rapidly developing along many of these lines. For our industrial communities, secondary schools are needed which will produce many leaders broadly trained to be at once economic and moral leaders and leaders in social and home-making lines. The agricultural high school, with its fidelity to the truths of nature's science, its power-giving along economic and home-making lines, its uplift thru noble school officials, its opportunities for experience in social life and in working in public meetings and in co-operative students' organizations, and with its strong voluntary religious work in Young Men's Christian Associations, and Young Women's Christian Associations, and with its after-hold on its graduates, is a unique and most powerful institution for the production of country life leaders. The city high school, with studies related to the industries and to home-making, and the separate industrial secondary school, also, have great potentialities in the preparation of all-round leaders in the industrial communities of our non-agricultural workers.

This enlarged expenditure for teaching the children of our native and recently arrived Americans how to make better homes and to increase their production of commodities has the broadest possible national significance. We are in world competition with nations able and willing to make commodities at lower units of labor charge than we. We must either increase the efficiency of our labor units or be willing to sell them at lower wage prices. America has charge of the world's highest standards of wage and of living. Industrial education has a very large place beside a reasonable tariff in keeping America's dinner pail full. Let us adjust our differences, if indeed we have any, and unite on this broad plan to turn the face of our schools from its too exclusive attention to the splendid traditional studies, and let it shine upon those who work with their hands as it now shines upon the so-called learned professions. Let us try to please all except those who fear to add to the education of the boy and girl studies along the lines of the industrial work in which most of them must earn their bread and purify their hearts by the sweat of their brows.

DISCUSSION

E. T. FAIRCHILD, state superintendent of public instruction, Topeka, Kan.—To prove all things and hold fast to that which is good is the educational spirit of the hour. Custom and tradition are no longer terms to conjure with in determining the curriculum.

In endeavoring to solve the problem what knowledge and what training is of most worth new tests are being applied. The passive interest of the abstract is being supplemented with the active interest of the concrete. The strong presentment of the necessity and value of the study of agriculture and home economics in the public schools, which we have just heard is in complete accord with the general movement to recognize the other 98 per cent. in our public schools.

It is not so much a question of *what*, as of *how*, and *when*. With more than half of our people engaged in agriculture and home-making, the public has every right to demand that the schools shall train the pupils with a training that shall adapt them to their environment. When we reflect that many states have a rural population of 70 per cent. or more, the need of an industrial training becomes all the more apparent.

The question whether agriculture shall be taught in special schools, such as are contemplated in the Davis bill and such as are in operation in at least three of our states, or whether it shall be attempted in all of our high schools, is a highly important one. While I fully recognize the importance of the measure advocated by Dr. Davis and realize the great impulse such a law would give to agricultural instruction, I cannot but feel that it would be much better if assistance could reach all high schools where agriculture and home economics are taught.

In my own state, Kansas, the Agricultural College is a separate institution and articulates closely with the rural school. With a population of 1,650,000 we should have but comparatively few schools reaping the benefit of national aid. If pupils are obliged to leave home it would seem that they might with greater profit attend our large and splendidly equipped Agricultural College. I confess to a great deal of sympathy with the argument advanced by Professor Davenport in his address on "The Place of Agriculture in Our American School." Instead of special schools for a special class, let us have strong schools with a sufficient number of courses to meet the varying needs of the student body. Breadth of view, a wider outlook, and a closer understanding and sympathy with the life-work of others will follow.

The consolidated school will afford much opportunity for instruction in certain phases of agriculture, which may easily serve as an incentive to take a more extended course in the high school.

In our state we have a class of high schools that are peculiarly adapted to the introduction of courses in agriculture and home economics. Under what is known as the Barnes law, a favorable vote by any county places all high schools therein, maintaining a four-year course, and preparing fully for the university, in a position where they may be supported wholly by the county at large. At the last general election forty-three of the one hundred and five counties took advantage of this act and today more than eighty high schools are being supported by their respective counties, and forty more high schools are establishing conditions that will render them eligible to like benefits another year. As an equivalent for such county aid tuition is free to all pupils in the county. In addition to these schools some twenty counties have elaborately equipped county high schools, supported by the county.

Both classes of schools are largely supported by the farmers, and it seems peculiarly fitting that agriculture and home economics should be taught therein. It is pleasing to be able to state that excellent courses in these subjects are being offered in several of these schools, and that they are entirely satisfactory to the farmers themselves.

I have said that it is no longer a question of what we shall teach in the high school. This question has gone beyond the stage of debate. The people whose school it is have demanded that the industrial and vocational shall be recognized, and shall have a place

in the curriculum. The next step is to see that agriculture and home economics have the same place of importance and availability in the high school that they have in the college.

LORENZO D. HARVEY, superintendent of Stout Manual-Training Schools, Menomonie, Wis.—In the little I may have to say in the present discussion of the general topic, "The Place of Industries in Public Education," I wish first to express my appreciation of the forcible presentation of the subject of agricultural industries and home economics in public schools to which we have just listened. It has presented in a masterful way the arguments for the extension of educational facilities for industrial education. It has shown the possibilities thru the development of the idea of consolidating rural schools and the broadening of their curricula so as to embrace those studies of vital interest to the country boy and girl; and it has outlined an articulated system leading from the home of the child living in the country to the college, while at the same time presenting a course of instruction admirably fitting the child for the active duties of life within his environment.

I must confess that I am not as optimistic as the writer of the paper, concerning the early and general development of the consolidated farm school. The consolidation of rural schools is not a new idea. The six hundred of them now in existence do not present a large showing for more than twenty years of agitation, but their more rapid increase in later years indicates that in the coming years they will increase in number very much more rapidly than in the past. In many states practically nothing has as yet been accomplished. The present systems of school organizations in many of these states make consolidation extremely difficult, while the conservatism of the rural population where any increased expenditure of money is concerned acts as a further deterrent. Of the six hundred schools now in existence probably not one realizes the ideal which the author of the paper has in mind. It will be many years before that ideal will be realized in a large number of schools. I am not arguing against it. I am simply stating what I believe to be a fact, for the purpose of emphasizing the idea that not only the plan proposed but all other means of effort looking toward the development of a better system of instruction in rural communities should be utilized to the fullest extent.

The purpose of the Davis Bill, as outlined, is one which must commend itself to all. I trust it may be so modified that, if it become a law, it shall not operate to fix a single type of secondary agricultural schools for all communities, especially as to area of the district which such a school shall serve. I hope the bill may be so modified as to leave to each particular state the distribution of the money appropriated to that state for secondary agricultural schools to such schools as shall furnish proper facilities to a reasonable number of students without regard to the area of the district served.

Upon the general topic, "The Place of Industries in Public Education," I wish to say that while I recognize the importance upon social and economic grounds of the establishment of special vocational schools, I think the problem of industrial education is a much larger one than this. I believe all will agree that with a proper organization of the elementary and secondary school work, the longer pupils can be induced to remain in these schools before entering upon a vocation, the better for them, for society, and for the state.

I should regret to see distinct vocational schools established in such numbers and with the vocational side so emphasized as to present an inducement for children to leave the public schools earlier than they now do, or earlier than is necessary. We hear much of the different types of vocational schools in other countries and especially in Germany. We have much to learn from these countries in the organization of these schools in the United States, but I hope the time will never come in this country when the falling off in attendance of pupils in the public schools shall equal that of Germany as these pupils pass from their thirteenth to their fourteenth year. Up to the thirteenth year practically the entire school population of Germany is to be found in the public schools. In

the fourteenth year the number has dropped in many cities of that country to less than 10 per cent. of the children of that age. If in school at all, they are in the continuation or trade schools.

In this country manufacturers do not want apprentices at fourteen years of age, and at that age they are not sufficiently mature to do the best kind of work in the preparation for a vocation. In our larger cities it is unquestionably true that many children are of necessity compelled to leave school at an early age, and that the continuation school or the trade school must be provided to meet their needs.

The report of the Massachusetts commission shows that a very large percentage of the children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen in the public schools have not withdrawn from them because of necessity, but because they were not interested in the work which was offered them, or because their parents did not see in it anything which appealed to them as of value in increasing the industrial efficiency of their children.

I believe it is entirely feasible to modify our elementary and secondary courses of instruction in our public schools by the introduction of handwork, so that the work offered will appeal, on the industrial side, to these children and to their parents.

It is argued in some quarters that manual training is in no sense a preparation for industrial efficiency; that its purposes are cultural rather than vocational. I should rather put it that its purposes are both cultural and vocational, and that the work should be so organized as to serve both purposes. It is not a question of what has been or is being done in the way of manual training in this or that public-school system. It is a question of what can be done and what purpose it may be made to serve.

In the acquiring of any trade, I care not what it may be, there are two distinct stages. During the first stage the learner is concerned with finding out the *what* of each particular process which must be mastered, the *how* in performing, coupled with the performance of the process under the guidance and control of the attentive mind. During the second stage the learner is occupied in developing skill in the accurate and rapid performance of each particular process and in the correlation of these processes to meet the demands of the shop in which he may be employed. This skill is developed through the repetition of that which at the beginning of this stage he could perform reasonably well when done slowly and with the closest attention to every detail of the doing, continued until the process is performed accurately and rapidly with little mental effort beyond that involved in initiating the motor activity demanded by the process.

In the statement of the scope and character of work demanded in the first stage, it should be observed that there are three steps in the mastery of any one process: first, the determination of *what* is to be done; second, the determination of *how* it is to be done; third, the doing for the accomplishment of the *what* thru the application of the *how*. It must be observed further that the necessary knowledge of the *how* requisite for the proper performance of the process may not be acquired in advance of any effort in doing, but the learner must have in mind how he proposes to perform any act he regards as necessary in the process before he begins the action. The result of the action may show him that the manner in which he attempted the doing was wrong and that he must revise his conception of the *how*. But always the knowledge of a *how* must precede the doing; the doing modifies the *how;* this modification reacts upon the doing until the proper standard of correctness is reached

The first stage is one thru which every learner must pass in the mastery of a trade before he can properly enter upon the second stage, during which skill in processes and their use is to be developed, no matter whether the trade is learned in the shop, in the school, or in both school and shop.

This is not the time to discuss the educational principles which determine the place, scope, and character of manual training in the elementary and secondary courses of study for training purposes other than for industrial efficiency. But I venture the assertion that the three steps which characterize the first stage in the mastery of a trade must

also characterize every phase of work in a manual-training course which requires an intelligent use of tools and materials in constructive processes, in accordance with sound educational principles. Therefore, it follows that the first stage in the mastery of trade processes, in its rudimentary form at least, is found in all manual-training courses based on sound educational principles and adequate in scope, and that, with proper equipment and competent teaching force, manual training may be extended so as to apply the work of this stage to a considerable number of trades. The second stage may be completed in the shop, in the trade school, or in both.

Manual training in its earlier stages must of necessity be carried on without direct reference or relation to the development of skill in any particular vocation. The training which it gives in close observation of an object to be produced from any given material or as the result of effort in the construction of that object, or determination of wherein the effort has failed and what must be done thru further effort to remedy the failure, the training of the hand to execute mental judgments, furnish a preliminary preparation of high value as a basis for intelligent workmanship which employs the hands later on.

In the later development of manual training it may be so organized as to bear a very definite relation to certain processes largely employed in the industrial world, and at the same time to secure the kind of mental training needed for the proper development of the individual. In a general way it may be said that the following things are essential for industrial efficiency in the workman:

1. Habits of close observation.
2. A high ideal as to what constitutes honesty in workmanship.
3. Habits of accuracy in work.
4. Comprehension of what is good in design as related to use in connection with the work in hand.
5. Knowledge of materials best adapted to different forms and types of construction.
6. Knowledge of construction processes in the treatment of materials.
7. Skill in the care of tools and in their use in industrial processes, and skill in using machinery.
8. Skill in freehand and mechanical drawing.

The foregoing statements are general, but specific applications may be made of them so far as they apply to any particular industrial process or trade.

The practical problem for any community in organizing work in manual training in the public schools so that it may bear the most direct and immediate relation to the industrial efficiency of the boys on leaving school is to consider, first, the manufacturing industries of the community where skill in operation is required and which are likely to furnish employment for the boys upon their leaving school; and then to determine the kind of training thru which the boys will make the greatest progress toward skill in the special industry or industries.

In case there are no manufacturing industries in the community in which the school is located, and it is still desired to give training which counts most largely for industrial efficiency within the particular trades or skilled industries which are likely to prove most attractive to the boys of the community, those trades or industries are to be considered.

With the incorporation of a properly organized manual-training course as a part of the work in the public schools, greater inducements to pupils to remain in school will be presented than exist under present conditions; and as a result pupils will remain in school longer, will get a broader training, and in acquiring every one of the eight requisites I have enumerated as essential for industrial efficiency in the workman they will have made some progress, and in all subjects except those in which skill in the use of machinery is considered they will have made very decided advancement.

NURTURE AND PROTECTION OF PHYSICAL WELLBEING OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PUPILS

I. HOW CAN THE SCHOOL MAKE CONTRIBUTION OF PERMANENT VALUE TO PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT?

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During the past century and to an ever-increasing degree within the past quarter-century the school has had thrust upon it a fundamental, new problem and a new responsibility; fundamental, because education is not worth while if it is secured at the sacrifice of health; new, because only recently has education come to dominate the great bulk of the child's waking time. If the permanent result of these new conditions is not to be the uprearing of a generation of physically undesirable citizens, the school must see to it that the health interests of the pupils are as energetically and as efficiently looked after as are any other parts of the school work. This involves the creation in each school system of a department of school hygiene or some other organization for the adequate care of this set of needs.

Among the reasons for the organizing of a Department of School Hygiene within each department of education the following may be stated as a fundamental principle:

The great increase in the length of the school year and the changes in the character of the child's physical environment, make attention to physical health necessary now as it has never been before.

The schools do not differ from other institutions of the time in having undergone profound changes during the past century. One hundred years ago, 5 per cent. of the people of the United States lived in cities of 8,000, or over, population; now 36 per cent. of the people live in such cities.

Then, few children had more than three months' schooling per year; now, city children have ten month's schooling per year.

Then, the recesses were out of doors; now, only a limited number of city schools have space in which the children can take such outdoor games that were possible in the old school yard.

Then, practically all the pupils had to walk considerable distances to and from school; now, city children have to walk a few blocks only.

Then, there was a large variety of outdoor muscular work for the children to do on the farm—aiding in doing the chores, milking the cows, getting the horses, caring for the poultry, tending the garden; now, the bulk of the work is done by machinery. It is no longer possible for a large percentage of the city children to do their needful muscular work by helping their parents.

Then, in the schools there were taught chiefly the three R's; now, because of these changed conditions of daily life, it has been found necessary to introduce into the schools muscular exercises, manual training, nature-study, cooking, dressmaking and the like.

Then, a considerable territory had to be drained to get enough children to make the small country school; now, in the thickly settled areas of cities great school buildings

are erected on nearly every block. The constant hearing of noise, the lack of quiet, the lights in the houses, and on the streets at night—these are all relatively new and evil.

Then, we had children helping their parents; now, we have child-labor.

All these make a profound contrast between former conditions and those which obtain now.

We are told that 25 or 30 per cent. of the school children have eye deformities sufficiently serious to interfere with their school progress. It is the general opinion that this condition is directly related to the unwise treatment of the eyes in school life.

It has been discovered that a very considerable percentage of the children have such difficulties with the nose and throat as to interfere with proper circulation or proper respiration. A very large number of children do not have such care at home as insures their coming to school cleanly in person. The hearing of quite a number of children is below par, so that they fail to take advantage of much of the oral instruction that is given. Some of the children develop crooked backs, or scoliosis; occasional cases of chorea have been discovered. Sensational stories have been told with reference to the malnutrition of city school children. Allowing for all the exaggeration that there may be, it is undoubtedly true that there is a remarkable number of children who, because of unwise feeding or of insufficient feeding, are in a condition of vitality too low to profit by the school education. More than half of all the children in the schools have sufficiently decayed teeth to account for many of the neurotics and for a great deal of the malnutrition.

From 30 to 40 per cent. of all the children in the middle grades are one, two, or three years behind their grades. This in many cases is due to some physical cause.

To help remedy this situation, there needs to be a Department of School Hygiene.

Attention to the physical wellbeing of school children would result in great and immediate economy.

In all of our great cities, a considerable proportion of the school children is above the normal age for the grades. According to the report of the city superintendent of schools of New York City for the year ending July 31, 1907, the number of children in the public schools above the normal age on June 30, 1907, was as follows:

First year	9,073	Sixth year	22,862
Second year	19,039	Seventh year	13,502
Third year	26,514	Eighth year	6,412
Fourth year	30,251	Special D	4,289
Fifth year	30,813	Special E	13,769
		Total	176,524

It is difficult to estimate the direct money cost to the school system of these over-age pupils. Some of them are only one year over age, while many more are two, three, four, and even five years older than they should be for the grades they are in. For safety let us estimate that only 50 per cent. or 88,262

such children in New York are behind their grades on account of defects which might be remedied. At the average cost of tuition last year—$30—the loss to the city amounts to $2,647,860, for each year that these children fail to make progress.

A further and important consideration is that if the number of backward children was reduced by half, the necessity for part-time classes would be done away with.

The Americanizing of the large alien population involves their receiving new ideals and new habits of life with reference to health and the care of their own children.

A large fraction of the children who are in our city public schools either themselves come from non-English speaking countries, or are the children of those who come from those countries. How large a proportion of the population of our great cities is made up of persons of foreign parentage is not generally realized. The facts as told in the late census in regard to some of our leading cities are as follows:

POPULATION OF NATIVE AND FOREIGN PARENTAGE IN 1900

City	Per Cent. Foreign	City	Per Cent. Foreign
Boston	72.2	Newark	82.8
Chicago	77.4	New York	76.9
Detroit	77.4	St. Paul	72.6
Jersey City	70.5	San Francisco	78.1
Milwaukee	82.8		

The public schools are a primary factor in the development in these persons of ideals and feelings that are basal to life in this republic. The training with reference to efficient living, right ideals of health, and the care of children need to be given to these children as they do not need to be given to the native-born American citizen, whose social heredity carries such basal information.

This education can best come thru the example of a Department of School Hygiene in its care of physical health.

The present state of medical knowledge allows us to aid in educational matters in a way and to a degree never before possible.

During the past generation medicine has been becoming scientific. Our knowledge of preventive medicine has developed almost entirely within this generation.

By means of this new medical knowledge it is possible for the skillful physician to discover and remove many conditions prejudicial to health and education, which were beyond our reach a century or so ago. Boards of education should avail themselves of this new development of medical science.

Problems before us indicate the need of expert medical counsel. Some of the problems are as follows:

Posture.—The tendency of the children to acquire bad habits of posture—malposition of the spine with resulting interference with circulation, respiration, and digestion—seems

to be inevitable so long as the present hours of sitting still remain. Thus, school furniture of a proper character is important.

Vision.—It is not enough for us to discover the cases of ocular deformity which are occurring in the schools. What we need to know, if possible, are the exact causes of such deformities.

Nose and throat.—There seems to be a great increase in the number of children having difficulties with the nose and throat. Is this due to general disability, to dust in the school rooms, to malnutrition, or to any other removable cause? What are the best ways of handling these difficulties?

Nutrition and growth.—We believe that there are many children who fail to profit by their education because they do not have enough nutrition.

Nervous diseases.—Many children have the beginnings of nervous diseases which interfere with their school life, and which are more or less serious in their subsequent meaning. We need to know the causes of these diversions from the normal and the best means of meeting them.

Fatigue.—What are the conditions for the most efficient study on the part of the pupil, i. e., can a child do more in eight hours than in seven? Can he do more in seven hours than in six, or the reverse? We have no accurate information in answer to these questions, nor can such information be secured easily. It demands the most expert work and wide acquaintance with what is being done elsewhere.

In the modern scientific business life the technical expert has a permanent place. The erection of the modern city structure involves a co-operation of engineering and architecture as never before. The electrical and mining work being done involves groups of experts, each connected with some special phase of the subject. The same applies to business. The general business man has vanished; his place has been taken by experts in various lines. The school boards have had thrust upon them new problems, as have business and science. The erection of school buildings has involved the work of skilled architects. The size of the timbers that will support the roof of a given span, the strength of the structure in relation to its height—these are technical questions of architecture and engineering.

Questions of stress and strain of material have thus come within the purview of one of the subdivisions of the work of boards of education. Similarly, boards of education have been pushed into the business world in the purchasing of their supplies. The hundreds of different kinds of material used in all the grades in all of the schools, the coal for fuel, and the like, involve for their wise purchase and administration the same buying expert that is demanded for any business house. Questions as to the purchasing of coal and other commodities are not questions of psychology and pedagogy, but are questions of business. In what quantities, and what to buy, and when to have delivery made, what systems of auditing and accounting to adopt—these are technical questions and they must be met by the technical business expert.

It is my opinion that the group of problems centering about the health of school children demands technical treatment of a nature similar to that required for the departments whose duties I have just sketched. If the children's eyes are becoming defective because of lack of wisdom in the choice of type, the

length of line, width of margin, the spacing between lines, it is of fundamental importance that something be done to procure proper textbooks and thus remove the cause of the eye deformity. But for this, the advice of the technical expert is needed. It is not a matter of untrained common-sense—any more than the question of the stress and strain in a building is a matter of untrained common-sense. If the present modes of sitting in the public schools are responsible to any degree for the crooked backs that we sometimes see in children, we should know it, and then change the habits of sitting. This, again, is a matter for the trained orthopedic surgeon. It is not a question of psychology or pedagogy—at least not until after the diagnosis and treatment have been decided upon.

How much home study shall children of a particular age be allowed or required to do? This, also is not a question of psychology or pedagogy; it is a technical question for the physician. What lessons shall children study at home? This is a question of pedagogy and school administration; but the number of hours for home study, or the time when a child may do his best work—these are biological problems. These are problems that are capable of more or less exact determination.

Such facts as these lead us to believe that there should be co-ordinated with the other activities of boards of education, a department composed of men who are technical experts on the various questions of health in relation to school life.

The school will make no contribution of permanent value to physical development till it seriously attacks this series of problems with the implements of science.

Is it not obvious: (1) That the detection of contagious disease in the schools, involving daily visits and the power of the law to act, belongs in the nature of the case to the board of health? And further (2) that the care of ventilation, recesses, lighting, seating, exercise, hours of home study, is the business of the board of education?

The general principle involved is that where the object is the protection of the community the board of health is responsible, and where steps necessary to the proper education of the individual are concerned, the Board of Education is responsible. If these propositions are true they leave but one division of the topic open to discussion namely:

Who should conduct the examination of school children for defects liable to interfere with proper growth and education, such as adenoids, defective eyesight, and hearing?

Whoever does this work, it is further obvious that such records must follow the child from grade to grade and also from school to school; that they must be considered by the class teacher and, most important of all, that each case must be consistently followed up so that in so far as is possible such disabilities may be removed. That is, they are an important part of the school records and must be so made and administered as to be available to the school authorities. So

that the Board of Education must at least be one of the active parties in such a medical examination.

Further than this there is as yet no general agreement. But as an individual it seems to me that this work should be done by the board of education because: (1) it is done for educational purposes; (2) it must be constantly and intimately connected with school records and activities; (3) it does not need to be connected with the other work of the board of health; (4) it differs in kind from the inspection done for the detection of contagious diseases.

III. *MEDICAL INSPECTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AS CONTRIBUTING TO HEALTH AND EFFICIENCY*

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It is now more than sixteen years since Boston started the agitation for the medical inspection of schools in order to harmonize the two great duties which the state owes to its children, namely, education and the preservation of health. Prior to the introduction of medical inspection into the public schools of Boston (1894) every state, having upon its statute books a compulsory educational law, was in the position of compelling by law the children of its province to go directly into the midst of dangers to their health. Unfortunately some states are yet in that same indefensible position. That these dangers are real and a menace to the individual and to the community no one denies today; that they can be almost entirely avoided or removed is beyond dispute. How far medical inspection of school children may contribute to health and efficiency by pointing out the prevalence, the causes, and the means of the removal of those factors tending toward mental stagnation and physical retrogression is the problem which I have been asked to present to this association.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Peter Frank, of Austria, issued his *System of Complete Medical Police*, setting forth the duties of physicians to schools. In 1832 the number of lessons was diminished in Sweden for reasons of health, and in the same year France issued regulations concerning medical inspection in schools. Many of the scientific congresses of Europe in the third quarter of the last century discussed the need of medical inspection of schools. School physicians were appointed subsequently in different cities of Sweden, Austria-Hungary, France, Egypt, Belgium, and Holland, as well as in Japan, Chili, Argentina, Switzerland, Russia, Roumania, Servia, Germany, England, and the United States.

The progress was not without opposition. First came the distrust on the part of the teachers that such additional authority established in public schools would give rise to friction, confusion, and over-emphasis of the sanitary and the hygienic factors in school life. Then the argument of the municipal authorities that the financial expenditure involved was not justified by the existing state of health of the school children; the attitude of the medical

profession that the private practice of physicians might be injured thru the measures employed by school inspectors; and lastly the anxiety of parents lest meddlesome interference might destroy the rights and the authority of the home. Then, too, the impatient pressing forward by zealous advocates and the jealous warding off by honest conservatives added much to the confusion and disturbance incidental to the introduction of all new public measures, as well as in changing fixed traditions. Gradually, however, these fears subsided and the opposition passed into mingled feelings of indifference, incredulity, or ridicule.

Little was then known of the great possibilities in preventive medicine. Tuberculosis was an inherited disease, spinal curvature was due to a "fall," deaf children were heedless or disobedient, measles and scarlet fever were diseases which every child should have, diphtheria was "quinsy," unless it "turned into croup" from which "no one ever recovered." The child suffering from defective vision was the dunce of the schoolroom until, growing too large for the grade, or driven from school by ridicule and shame, he found peace in the truant school or in the shop and factory where his defects became a menace to limb and life. The many statutes on law books the world over, having for their object the prevention and regulation of child-labor, the enforcement of compulsory education, and the disposition of juvenile truancy and misdemeanors, all find their greatest field of application among children whose discontent at school led to the violation of these laws. Necessity for the wage-earning assistance has been, and is, no doubt, often the cause for many parents' sacrifice of their children's education, nevertheless if the voice of those matured today who were forced to leave school at an early age could be recorded, many thousands would, I feel sure, attribute the former rather than the latter as the real cause of their limited schooling.

The idea that medical science had any relationship to the problems of public school life was not entertained prior to the great awakening in preventive medicine during the epoch 1880–90. During this remarkable period Robert Koch discovered the bacillus of tuberculosis; Eberth, the organism of typhoid fever; Klebs and Loeffler, the bacillus of diphtheria; Lavaran, that malaria was transmitted by mosquitoes; Fehleisen, the streptococcus of erysipelas; Kitasarto, the bacillus of tetanus, all discoveries that transferred tuberculosis from the class of diseases supposed to be inherited, and placed it in the category of diseases preventable and curable; that proved diphtheria to be a specific, communicable disease, and not a filth disease; that suggested that skin affections may be contagious, that lockjaw may be epidemic; and that night air is as healthful and as free from disease as day air.

In such a renaissance it was but natural that attention should center upon those affections which for ages had been known to be communicable and most prevalent at the earlier periods of childhood. The legal authority to carry out such an investigation was the Board of Health; the most likely place to find the facts was in the aggregation of children in school. Thus originated

the first scientific basis for medical inspection of schools. This was at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1892.

The relationship of public-school life to medical science since this introduction of medical inspection is one of interesting evolution. First came the movement to prevent the schools from becoming centers of infectious or contagious diseases; then followed the attention to such hygienic problems as schoolroom environment, proper seating of the children, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of school buildings; next came the examination of each school child in order to ascertain his physical asset for the life mapped out for him and the removal of remediable causes of handicap or a modification in the school program and extra school life of the child in order to avoid possible shipwreck. This was followed by the scientific study of the development of great groups of children in order to obtain accurate data of their physical and mental growth, so that the factors of heredity, age, sex, race, environment, and nutrition might be properly estimated in their bearing on pedagogical progression and racial deterioration. The later stage in this evolutionary process has to do with all those measures tending to the promotion of the physical health and the corresponding growth of the individual child and is embraced in the term "school hygiene." These stages are best considered separately.

I. BOARD OF HEALTH INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS

This was a method inaugurated in this country at Boston, Massachusetts, in 1894, and has been followed more or less closely by the cities in this country and abroad. Briefly, the plan adopted has been as follows: The city is divided into districts and a physician appointed by the Board of Health has been assigned to each district. These physicians are both agents of the Board of Health and inspectors of schools. They are all engaged in private practice. They are required to visit each school in their respective districts daily, and to examine all pupils referred to them by the teacher and who in the judgment of the teacher are ill. If any pupil is found to be suffering from any contagious disease, or is otherwise too ill to remain in school, the inspector advises the teacher to send him home for temporary observation by his parents or family physician. The inspector does not prescribe for the child, nor advise or criticize anything beyond that which pertains strictly to the isolation of the child, and he carefully avoids any word or act which might be construed as an infringement upon the rights of the family or the attending physician. He is not required to give a diagnosis even. He is concerned more in the protection of the other children at school than in the treatment of the ill child. In his capacity as agent of the Board of Health, the inspector receives daily all notifications of communicable diseases reported by physicians and he visits the homes of those so reported residing within his district for the purpose of examining the places and plans of isolation adopted by the family. He reports to the board of health his approval or disapproval of such plans, and he visits the patient as often as may be necessary to inform himself of the con-

tinuation of the isolation adopted. No case will be discharged from this quarantine until the inspector certifies that recovery is complete and that all danger of contagion has passed. This plan has been modified somewhat by local conditions, and its administration has been effected by the school authority in a few localities.

Medical inspection under board of health supervision prevails at Buffalo, N.Y.; Camden, N.J.; Chicago, Ill.; Des Moines (west side), Ia.; Detroit, Mich.; Elgin, Ill.; Evansville, Ind.; Hartford, Conn.; Kansas City, Mo.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis, Minn.; Montclair, N. J.; Newark, N. J.; New Haven, Conn.; New York, N. Y.; Ogden, Utah; Philadelphia, Pa.; Plainfield, N. J.; Providence, R. I.; Salt Lake City, Utah; Syracuse, N. Y.; Washington, D. C.; Waterbury, Conn.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Baltimore, Md.; Cincinnati, Ohio; Mount Holly, N. J.; Cleveland, Ohio; New Orleans, La., as well as in twenty-three cities and forty-seven towns in Massachusetts where medical inspection of schools is a state law. The board of education appoints the inspectors at Ann Arbor, Mich., at Paterson, Atlantic City, Passaic, Englewood, Orange, and Asbury Park, N. J.; as well as in ten cities in Massachusetts. At Grand Rapids, Mich., and at Jersey City, N. J., the medical inspection is done by nurses appointed by the school authorities. A detailed account of the work as carried on in the different cities of this country has been furnished to me by the several superintendents of schools. I desire to thank these officials for their valuable aid and co-operation in compiling these data.

In many cities the system is in an experimental stage; in a few it has been abandoned on account of municipal financial curtailment; in some places its workings have won commendation; while in other places it has been severely criticized even while its adoption has been urged. These criticisms are against the method and means of administration, not against medical inspection *per se*, and have given rise to much confusion. An important fact in the method of medical inspection under the Board of Health is that the detection of cases of contagious diseases among the children is done by the teacher and not by the medical inspector; if the latter confirms the suspicion of the teacher, the child is excluded from school; if the inspector does not agree with the conclusions of the teacher, the child returns to its classroom. Non-agreement is very frequent, and it requires exceptional perseverance for a teacher to hazard the chagrin of a second mistake, yet disastrous consequences might result from such hesitation. In Boston during the year 1905, 21,111 children were referred to the medical inspectors; 9,241 were found free from any disease. In London between 20 and 30 per cent. of the cases submitted by the teachers were not suffering in any way. The greatest criticism against this system of inspection is that it lacks uniformity; that it excludes pupils and does not provide any means of "follow up," nor any guarantee that the child will receive medical care; that the duties of the inspector as an agent of the Board of Health brings him in contact with much contagion in the homes;

and finally that the dual duties and divided responsibility are not conducive to the best in health and efficiency of school children.

Within recent years medical inspection has widened its scope beyond the detection and isolation of communicable diseases among school children, and has come to include all questions of physical defects and mental backwardness of children. A recent act of the Massachusetts legislature requires cities and towns to provide medical inspection for all pupils in the public schools. The following excerpt indicates the scope of the new law:

> The School Committee of every city and town shall cause every child in the public schools to be separately and carefully tested and examined at least once in every school year to ascertain whether he is suffering from defective sight or hearing or from any other disability or defect tending to prevent his receiving the full benefits of school work or requiring a modification of the school work in order to prevent injury to the child or to secure the best educational results.

There are many causes of ill health and mental dwarfing which are seldom, if ever, acute and requiring immediate inspection. On the contrary, they are detected by their effects on the daily school life of the child, and are not diseases dangerous to the public health. The problem, then, is one of pedagogy pure and simple. The advantage and the necessity for data such as this latter form of inspection alone can furnish is beyond measure. Future progress in physical and mental growth depends almost entirely upon these data.

There are in the United States today not less than 150,000 persons so feeble-minded that institutional care is advisable, yet the latest census gives the number in institutions as 16,500. More than three-tenths (30.2 per cent.) of these have one or more physical defects; 77.2 per cent. of all admissions to institutions for feeble-minded persons occur before twenty years of life have been passed, and the admissions at the ages of fifteen to nineteen years are more than twice as numerous as in the group twenty to twenty-four years. It is important to add here that the percentage of foreign born inmates is much smaller than among the native white population. If to these figures we add the 17,000 supposedly feeble-minded among the inmates of almshouses, and the 40,000 children in reform schools, we have a population in this country not equaled in any civilized country or age. Almost 11 per cent. (10.9 per cent.) of the insane in this country are physically defective. More than 30 per cent. of the children in the elementary grades in the public schools are over the normal age of the various grades.

Science today has proven conclusively that the blunting of the moral sense has a distinct anatomical or functional stigma which in many cases is removable. Few teachers in cities where attention to defective eyes, throats, and ears has been directed have failed to witness the transformation, mental, physical, and moral, following the correction of refractive errors, the removal of adenoids causing deafness or oxygen starvation and abnormal metabolism.

The extent of physical defects in children may be concluded from the results of the examination of 200,000 children in New York between the ages

of five to fifteen years; 60 per cent. were under-nourished, 66 per cent. needed medical and surgical care, 40 per cent. had bad teeth, 38 per cent. had enlarged cervical glands, 31 per cent. had defective vision, and 18 per cent. had enlarged tonsils, while 10 per cent. had adenoids.

It has been estimated from the result of a recent investigation among school children in New York City that there are in this country 12,000,000 children having physical defects more or less serious that should receive attention from parents and family physicians. There is no evidence that the percentage of children suffering from physical defects is any greater today than it was fifty years ago. Medical experience and vital statistics indicate the contrary, and any attempt to charge physical deterioration to the present-day school life must fail from lack of evidence. The only possible exception to this statement is defective vision. Time alone can prove whether all the defects of vision recorded today are permanent.

Thus the problem in relation to physical defects becomes one of prevention and remedy. How can these be accomplished best? The question is plainly whether the inspection of school children is a part of the duty of the Board of Health in its protection of the general public health, or whether its object is to ascertain and determine the fitness or unfitness of the child for education at school, due regard being given to the nature of the work imposed as well as to the child's capacity and environment. If the detection of infectious diseases among school children is the object and aim, as well as the limitation of medical inspection, few will deny that the agents of the board of health should have exclusive right upon all premises, schools included, and that it is the duty of these agents to exercise preventive measures whether they relate to the child, the school, the home, or the workshop. Any number of foci of infection found and eliminated, however small, justifies the existence of the agencies employed in affording this protection to the individuals; yet the actual number of cases of communicable diseases found among those pupils thought to be ill is surprisingly small, less than 15 per cent. The diseases classified as communicable and coming within the legal scope of the health department are detrimental to the health and efficiency of the child, only so far as they become complicated by possible sequelae. Assuming that teachers are not trained to detect these sequelae, the presence or absence of such complication should form a part of the notification blank which permits the child to return to school after exclusion. The general law requires that the child be free from contagion liable to affect the other children before being permitted to return to school. In some cities it contains the additional statement that "the child has recovered fully" from the disease. If the attending physician or the agent of the Board of Health would furnish to the schools data of the child's physical condition after an attack of contagious or infectious disease, the necessity for further inspection would be greatly reduced, and the child's health and efficiency would be promoted immeasurably. Today these defects form the basis of the great need of medical inspection in schools. With such infor-

mation before her, the teacher would have a guide by which the school work of the child could be regulated so as not to aggravate nor cause physical defects.

To summarize, then, the value of medical inspection under boards of health, it can be said:

First, that the inspection has its greatest value as a part of the general preventive duty invested by law in that department;

Second, that 85 per cent. of cases of exclusion from school are due to causes over which the health department has no exclusive jurisdiction.

Third, that no child should be given a certificate of health after an illness demanding exclusion from school until a careful examination has demonstrated that such illness has not left a defect which in all probability will be a hindrance to his health and efficiency.

Fourth, that any defects thus resulting should be made known at the time of his entrance or return to school.

Fifth, that dual responsibilities and duties, as carried out in school inspection under the Board of Health, must necessarily result in confusion if not inefficiency, and it does not relieve in the least degree the responsibility imposed by law upon school authorities.

Sixth, that something more adequate than board of health inspection is needed to follow up and relieve the results of inspection, and to secure data upon which may be built a rational system of education having for its basis the physical well being of the individual child. This plan I have called

II. MEDICAL SUPERVISION OF SCHOOLS

It was my privilege to point out in an address before the Boston Medical Library Association in February, 1907, the antithesis, "Medical Supervision *versus* Medical Inspection of Public Schools." Since that date the School Committee of Boston has established a department of school hygiene having for its basis such supervision in its broadest sense, a plan which it is believed will make for the greatest health and efficiency in school children.

It is no new theory to assert that mental development without a true physical equivalent is unstable and undesirable; that individuals differ as to capacity and capability of mental acquirement; that the standard of a nation's health depends directly upon the physical state of its children—its future citizens, men and women. Physiology and psychology have for years pointed out the correlation and intimate dependency of mental and physical growth; that race, heredity, age, sex, climate, nutrition, period of growth, season, environment, former diseases, etc., are all factors, often the predominating factors, in deciding the fate of the individual.

Ancient and fixed as these truisms are, modern educational institutions seemed to be indifferent if not oblivious to these lessons. Individuals in large numbers have been sacrificed, races have struggled against deterioration, nations have been heavily burdened. Mental instability and physical degeneracy have vied with each other for the mastery of the being. Crime, depravity, and pauperism have resulted. Legislature and private philanthropy contented itself with ministering to the result rather than toward finding and eliminating the cause. Pedagogues have given the subject scant notice and have been satisfied with the development in the child of the greatest amount of mental strength. This they have considered their special duty. Money, energy, and

time have been wasted in trying to make all children equal, in trying to continue a machine-like method of instruction until finally the waste products so clogged the wheels that investigation for the causes became necessary.

The results found were startling. At Copenhagen, 18 per cent. of the boys were sickly on entering school. This percentage rose to 30 after two years of school life and reached 40 per cent. at puberty. Among the girls in the same school the sickness increased from 12 per cent. to 32 per cent. during the first three years of school life, and during the period of twelve to sixteen years the ill outnumbered the well by 10 per cent. In Germany one-fourth of the number of pupils are physically below par; nervousness among children in these schools increases from 10 per cent. in the lower grades to 60 per cent. in the highest grade. The Danish commission found that 29 per cent. of boys and 41 per cent. of girls are sickly. In Sweden the percentage of illness rose from 5 in the first school years to 36 in the second year, and to 40 per cent. in the fourth year. At the thirteenth year of age the curve of sickness was 65 per cent. At Moscow, the percentage of illness at different ages was 58 at ten years, 51 at eleven years, 100 at twelve years, 61 at thirteen years, and 57 at fourteen years. Combe's investigation at Lausanne showed:

Ages..... 8	9	10	11	12	13	14 years
Boys, per cent. ill.....64	43	42	40	33	29	34
Girls, per cent. ill.....88	75	60	66	68	61	39

At Rugby School, England, 1,000 boys (thirteen to fifteen years of age) showed 36.5 per cent. under height, 47.1 per cent. below normal weight, 42.3 per cent. below normal chest measurements, 49.1 per cent. of the aggregate cases had acquired deformities, 15.7 per cent. had albumenuria. There are no data bearing on the subject in this country other than that furnished by the 1907 examination of the hearing and the vision of all children in the public schools of Massachusetts: 432,937 children examined; 96,609 (22.3 per cent.) had defective vision; 27,387 (6.3 per cent.) had defective hearing.

Medical inspection as carried on in America has done little to solve the great problems in pedagogy suggested by the above data. In the absence of a standing army with compulsory military service whereby the physical status of the whole population may be learned, it becomes necessary and essential to study closely the advancing army of school children so as to gain that information necessary for healthy development. Nothing can be taken for granted; every problem must be solved rationally; every factor of home life and school life must be weighed carefully and each given its value properly. This requires the co-operation of pedagogue and physician under a different relationship than that prevailing in existing board of health systems of school inspection. The physician should be counselor and adviser to the teachers, school authorities, and home authorities in adjusting the many questions of mental and physical correlation in school curricula. He must be a part of the school system to which the parent and state intrust the child. He should have super-

vision and control of all those questions having to do with the physical welfare of the school child and the guidance of those means best calculated to accomplish greater health. In this way only can the curative and the preventive as well as the constructive measures of health be fostered and strengthened.

III. DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL HYGIENE

The Department of School Hygiene established at Boston, Massachusetts, the first in this country, if not in the world, has all these factors. The organization provides for a director of school hygiene, three assistant directors, as many special instructors in physical training, special assistant instructors in physical training, instructors of athletics, and assistant instructors of athletics, supervisors of playgrounds, playground teachers, heads of playgrounds, helpers in playgrounds, and helpers in sand gardens, as the board may from time to time authorize; a supervising nurse and assistant nurses; an instructor of military drill; and a medical inspector of special classes. The director of school hygiene shall have general supervision and control of all matters affecting the physical welfare of pupils and teachers; of medical inspection, except that under the control of the Board of Health; of school nursing; of physical training, military drill, athletics, sports, games, and play engaged in by pupils or conducted in buildings, yards and grounds under the control of the board, or in other buildings, yards, and grounds that it may have the right to use for such purposes. In the normal school, the health of the pupil-teachers is under personal supervision of the director, who is a physician. Here as well as in the high schools a gymnasium is equipped and special teachers are provided for instruction and the physical examination of the girls. Military drill is provided for the boys. Both courses are compulsory. All high-school pupils, boys and girls, are compelled to take a setting-up drill of ten minutes' duration each day. This is given by room captains selected for the purpose. In the elementary schools and in the primary schools, calisthenics and drills in the classroom and corridors are given by the teacher under supervision of the assistant director.

From the kindergarten to the normal school one principle is emphasized, namely, that proper breathing, proper standing, and proper carriage are the three essentials of all physical training. These essentials are taught and enforced in the schoolrooms in every movement of the child, and not left to gymnasium or calisthenic periods or military drill periods alone. Instructors in athletics have a rating and a certification similar to regular teachers, and after written and practical examination. Selected teachers in the elementary schools act as play-teachers for the children of these schools after hours daily, and on Saturdays and holidays, extra compensation being allowed for this work.

School yards in crowded districts are being equipped with suitable apparatus for playgrounds for younger children. The season is to run from May 1 to November 25; matrons, janitors, and teachers are furnished by this depart-

ment. On large playgrounds belonging to the Park Department, as well as at the public baths, arrangements are made whereby instruction in athletics, swimming, games, and play may be carried on under school supervision, thus offering the best means to make these activities a source of better health to all the children rather than a spectacular exhibition by the few. A specific appropriation amounting to more than $50,000 annually is provided for these purposes by legislative act. This appropriation cannot be used for any other purpose.

The nursing division of the department is under the direction of one supervising nurse who has at present thirty-four assistants. The division is provided for by an additional special appropriation of $25,000 annually. Rooms are equipped at schools in each district, and each nurse has an assignment of approximately 2,700 pupils. These nurses are appointed from a certified list similar to that of other employees in the service. The following report of the first twenty nurses appointed under this department for the period September 11, 1907, to February 1, 1908, shows the work possible under this adjunct to health and efficiency:

Diseases of: Ear, 1,492 cases cared for; *Eye*, 6,078 cases cared for, including 3,649 suffering from defective vision; of these 1,131 were corrected by oculists; *Nose*, 2,602 cases, of which 1,405 had adenoids, 423 of whom had the obstruction removed; *Mouth*, 1,765 cases including 1,686 who had carious teeth; *Throat*, 1,695 cases, including 683 of hypertrophied tonsils, and 608 of tonsilitis; *Skin*, 10,139 cases, all of which were followed to their homes and the parent or guardian instructed how to care for the same.

In addition to the above 2,563 pupils having abrasions and wounds received 9,144 dressings; 2,034 miscellaneous affections, including 350 septic wounds, 312 suffering from renal disease, 121 having rachitis, 207 suffering from malnutrition, 227 with epilepsy, 126 with chorea, and 548 with bronchitis, anaemia, and heart disease were treated; 3,120 excluded pupils were followed to their homes; 3,293 were taken to family physicians, resulting in 3,202 being cured and returned to school at the minimum of absenteeism; 4,772 were taken to hospitals on request of parents; and 3,223 of these were cured and returned to school; 7,559 home visits were made for the purpose of instructing or advising parents concerning the children, or in order to persuade the parents to seek proper medical or surgical aid for the child. There were also 2,882 affections looked after of which there is no classification. These do not include the specific infectious diseases.

The nurses are not permitted to visit homes of contagious diseases. The great advantage of having a nurse under the school jurisdiction who may look after the minor ailments in school life and who visits the homes of children, giving advice and assistance to mothers, and in harmonizing the fixed customs and traditions of a great alien population with our habits and standards of living is solving many vexatious problems of the past and forms a link between the school and the home not possible by any other means. It does not seem possible to conceive a more satisfactory arrangement nor a more effective piece

of school machinery than nurses under school supervision. With a corps of medical inspectors under this same supervision, who would conduct a daily clinic in their respective school districts, there are no problems connected with the health and efficiency of school children which could not be quietly, rationally, economically, and effectually solved. Until such an organization is perfected in part or in whole, little progress can result from the efforts to promote the health and efficiency of our school children.

I append the result of medical inspection under the Board of Health at Boston and the number of cases reported from the schools since the introduction of school nurses under school supervision:

Year	Diphtheria	Scarlet Fever	Measles
1895	77	28	116
1896	26	8	59
1897	30	31	100
1898	8	16	26
1899	13	5	85
1900	23	23	121
1901	9	9	25
1902	7	2	69
1903	32	29	121
1904	11	10	264
1905	1	9	16
1906	13	13	70
1907 (Sept. 11 to Feb. 1, 1908)	392	407	167

IV. DUTIES OF OFFICIALS

Assistant directors of school hygiene, special instructors in physical training, special assistant instructors in physical training, instructors in athletics, assistant instructors in athletics, supervisors of playgrounds, playground teachers, helpers in playgrounds, and helpers in sand gardens, shall perform such duties as may be assigned to them by the director of school hygiene.

The assistant directors of school hygiene shall be entitled to four weeks' vacation in each calendar year, to be taken at such time or times as the director of school hygiene may appoint.

The supervising nurse shall, under the direction of the director of school hygiene, have general supervision of the assistant nurses, be responsible for the efficiency and character of the service rendered by each nurse, and perform such additional duties as the director of school hygiene may appoint.

She shall determine, subject to the approval of the director of school hygiene, the hours of service to be rendered on school days, and on Saturdays, and during vacation, by the assistant nurses.

She shall inspect the work of the assistant nurses, instruct them in their duties, and see that the time spent in each district by the nurse assigned thereto is regularly recorded.

She shall make requisition for the necessary supplies for each nurse.

She shall make such reports as may be required by the superintendent.

She shall be entitled to four weeks' vacation during each calendar year, to be taken at such time or times as the director of school hygiene may appoint.

The instructor of military drill shall, under the direction of the director of school hygiene, have charge of instruction in military drill. He shall make such reports as may be required by the superintendent.

The armorer shall, under the direction of the instructor in military drill, have general charge of the military equipment provided for the schools.

The medical inspector of special classes shall perform such duties in connection therewith as may be assigned to him by the director of school hygiene. He shall make such reports as the superintendent may require.

1. It shall be the special duty of the assistant nurses to assist the medical inspectors assigned to the public schools, to see that the directions given by the inspectors are carried out, and to give such instruction to the pupils as will promote their physical welfare.

2. They shall receive from the supervising nurse the following information: (*a*) The schools in which they are to perform their duty. (*b*) The hours for visiting each school. (*c*) To whom they shall report in each school.

3. They shall be provided with a place in which to work by the principal or teacher in charge of the school or district.

4. They shall report in person to the principal or teacher in charge immediately upon their arrival each day.

5. They shall arrange with the medical inspector assigned to the school or district a method of daily reports of cases to be visited and treated.

6. They shall keep a record of the time of arrival at and departure from each school.

7. They shall keep a record in such form as the superintendent may determine of the name, age, address, disease, and treatment of each pupil examined in school. Also a separate record of all excluded pupils and pupils to be visited.

8. They shall obtain daily a list of all excluded pupils.

9. They shall visit excluded pupils at their homes; *provided*, that such visits shall not be made in cases of smallpox, scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, whooping cough, or mumps, and shall keep a record of all visits made by them, and the outcome of each case.

10. Revisits shall be made from time to time, if necessary.

11. They shall make personal visits to homes to give necessary instructions or suggestions, and may demonstrate the treatment of pediculosis. In the case of diseases that cannot properly be treated at the home by the nurse or parents, the services of a physician, or treatment at a dispensary, should be urged.

12. Cases of trachoma shall not be treated by the nurses. All such cases should be excluded from school, and the pupil returned only on the certificate of the medical inspector, stating that all danger of conveying such disease by the pupil has passed.

13. If from some unforeseen cause an assistant nurse is unable to attend to her duty, she shall notify the supervising nurse or the superintendent at once by telephone, telegram, or special messenger. This notification shall be followed within five hours by a written application for leave of absence. Before returning to duty after leave of absence exceeding one day for any cause, an assistant nurse shall report in person to the supervising nurse, and shall furnish a certificate from her attending physician, if one has been employed by her during her absence, if the supervising nurse shall so require.

14. Each assistant nurse shall be entitled to four weeks' vacation during each calendar year, to be taken at such time or times as the supervising nurse, with the approval of the director of school hygiene, may appoint.

V. SALARIES (1907–08)

Director	$3,756.00
Assistant Directors, first year $1800; annual increase $120; maximum	2,400.00
Medical Inspector, special classes	1,008.00
Instructors in athletics	1,116.00
Instructor in military drill	2,004.00
Armorer	1,050.00

NURSES

Supervising Nurse, first year $924; annual increase, $48; maximum	1,116.00
Assistant Nurses, first year, $648; annual increase, $48; maximum	840.00
Temporary and substitute Assistant Nurse, per day	2.00

PLAYGROUNDS

Supervisors of playgrounds, men, morning session	$4.00
Supervisors of playgrounds, men, afternoon session	2.00
Heads of playgrounds, men, one session	2.00
Heads of playgrounds, men, two sessions	3.00
Heads of playgrounds, women, one session	1.20
Heads of playgrounds, women, two sessions	2.00
Assistants in playgrounds, one session	.80
Assistants in playgrounds, two sessions	1.25
Assistants in sand gardens, one session	.50
Assistant in sand gardens, two sessions	.75
Janitor, morning session	1.00
Janitor, afternoon session	1.00

PHYSICAL TRAINING

Special Instructor, first year, $900; annual increase, $72; maximum	1,188.00
Special Assistant Instructor, first year, $612, annual increase, $72; maximum	900.00
Teachers on playgrounds, after school daily, per day	2.00
Teachers on playgrounds, all day Saturday and holidays, per day	6.00

DISCUSSION

E. C. MOORE, superintendent of schools, Los Angeles, Cal.—A health program is needed for all schools. For years our ideal of education has been wrong. It must be not a sound mind in a sound body, but a sound mind making and keeping its body sound. The mind in control in the school, and the minds being trained there, must make and keep the bodies of the students sound. There is no other way. As Dr. Allen has put it: "When the state for its own protection compels a child to go to school it pledges itself not to injure itself by injuring the child."

Shall the board of health or the board of education undertake this work? A part of it must be done by the board of health. Combating contagious diseases falls naturally within its province. School funds should not be used for that purpose, but the best health officer is one who is present all the time and ever-watchful of the welfare of the child. That ever-present health officer is the teacher. She must in the main be the guardian of conditions to see that they are hygienic and she must develop the cardinal physical virtues of breathing, sitting, standing, and walking properly.

There are other conditions which immediately affect school work which she may detect but which she cannot of herself remedy. Some of them are caused by the schools. All of them affect school work and in the very degree in which they obtain they render school work impossible. For this reason it belongs to the schools to do all in their power to remedy them. In so doing they are treading on the well-established preserves of the physician, and the physician is apt to regard their encroachment with distrust and concern. The situation is a delicate one. A line must be drawn between what school authorities may undertake and what properly belongs to the province of the medical profession I believe that it is a safe principle to lay down that the schools must not undertake to do what other social institutions, the home, the hospital, the clinic, the settlement, the medical profession, stand ready to do and can do perhaps better than the schools.

It may be easier to hire a surgeon to do the operative surgery that should be done to give a certain number of pupils their chance, but I am convinced that it is better to employ the agencies already existing to get the work done.

This principle would limit the medical work of the schools to inspection and even that must, it seems to me, be limited and of a superficial sort. Certain defects go uncared for because their presence is unknown. In every schoolroom some of the pupils cannot see well, cannot hear well, cannot breathe properly, have uncared-for teeth, or irregular heart action. If parents but knew of these conditions, they would in most cases see to it that they are remedied and if they will not on their own initiative, they can be persuaded

or coerced to have them cared for. The program of medical inspection with which I am familiar aims to concern itself with defective eyesight, defective hearing, defective teeth, defective breathing, and defective heart action. It is in the charge of a health laboratory with a director and three assistant physicians. With this laboratory the teachers of the schools co-operate. It is the duty of each class teacher to test as carefully as possible the eyesight and hearing of the pupils in her class. The physician in charge of eye-examining tells me that the teachers make the preliminary tests in a very satisfactory manner. All the more difficult cases are sent to the laboratory for examination and all the examinations which the teachers make are under the direction of the laboratory staff. Reports of all examinations which show conditions which need care are sent to the parents with urgent recommendations that the case be taken up with a specialist or with the family physician. There is a follow-up system to see that the proper steps have been taken.

MISS SADIE AMERICAN, executive secretary, Council of Jewish Women, New York City (founder of Vacation Schools in Chicago, Ill.).—There is one point that I specially desire to emphasize. It is the necessity for providing more fully for our girls, in play, in athletics, and in vocational or industrial training. Not sufficient regard has been paid to the girls, not sufficient careful study has been given to conditions and to their needs. Those of you who have had anything to do with reformatories for girls must know the appalling number of girls between the ages of ten and sixteen who are in such institutions. It is my firm belief that many of them are there because of the insufficient provision for play, for physical activity, for amusement, if you will, for desires perfectly legitimate, but which have not been satisfied. If we properly provide for our girls the dance halls will not be filled and the well-known consequences of the dance hall may be lessened.

A second point that I desire to make is the necessity for educating the parents. A friend of mine—a teacher—recently showed me the following note: "Dear m'am. I don't want Mary to spend her time in no dancing. If I want her to jump I can make her jump myself." This is typical of the attitude of many more highly educated than was this mother whose Mary would probably have learned to dance in some less favorable place. Along the line of Dr. Gulick's paper another experience comes to my mind of an educated mother who resented her child being sent home from school with a note advising that the adenoids be removed. She felt that she knew what was good for her child and did not wish to be interfered with. We have much to do not only to secure proper medical inspection and the school nurse, but to make parents of all groups and grades understand the intent and the need and the meaning of such innovations as medical care of school children and as play.

A third point is that we need *school playgrounds*, no matter whether there be municipal playgrounds or park playgrounds or settlement playgrounds. We need these playgrounds out of doors next to the school if we can have them, and if not, then in the basement, or on the roof, or wherever else it is possible, for not until we learn to associate in the mind of the child the school with his play, will we have less of a truant problem. The school should be the center of the life of the child, next to the home, with which he associates his joys and his pleasures as well as his work. Alas, in the tenement districts, to many it must be instead of the home. But when he does associate the school with his play and with his work of the hand as well as of the head, the school will become the influence and the lasting influence which it should be.

And finally let me say that we have passed the theoretic stage in regard to the effect of work with the hand in addition to and in connection with work for the mind, whether we call this industrial training or vocational training or manual training.

The vacation schools of Chicago have proven that such hand work holds the children purely by their desire to come, and the police of that city testify that juvenile arrests are at least one-third less in the districts in which there are vacation schools, than there were in these districts when there were no such schools. Juvenile arrests, I say, and not juvenile

crime, for there is great difference between them, and that which is called mischief in the home of the well-to-do and where there are larger spaces for play may be interference with law or ordinance and cause arrest and send a boy—yes, shove a boy—along the criminal path.

ADDRESS AT THE RECEPTION AT THE WHITE HOUSE

PRESIDENT THEODORE ROOSEVELT

[*Stenographic Report*]

Gentlemen and Ladies:

Of all the bodies of citizens that I have received here at the White House, there is none which occupies a more important relation than yours. I am tempted to say none has come that has occupied as important a relation to the nation, because you men and women who deal with education, who represent the great American policy of education for all children, provided by the public as the prime duty of the public, bear a relation to the family, a relation to the future of our whole people, such as no other like number of individuals can bear. I own six of the children that you educate, and I am prepared to extend cordial sympathy to some of you.

Seriously, friends, it is idle for any man to talk of despairing of the future of this country, or feeling unduly alarmed about it, if he will come in contact with you here, and with the forces that you represent. Fundamentally this country is sound morally, no less than physically. Fundamentally, in its family life, and in the outside activities of its individuals, the country is better, and not worse, than it formerly was. This does not mean that we are to be excused if we fail to war against rottenness and corruption; if we fail to contend effectively with the forces of evil; and they waste their time who ask me to withhold my hand from dealing therewith. But it is worth while to smite the wrong for the very reason that we are confident that the right will ultimately prevail. You who are training the next generation, are training this country as it is to be a decade or two hence; and, while your work in training the intellect is great, it is not as great as your work in training character. More than anything else, I want to see the public school turn out the boy and the girl who, when man and woman, will add to the sum of good citizenship of the nation. It is not my province, nor would it be within my capacity, to speak about your pedagogic problems. You yourselves are far better able to discuss them. But, as a layman, let me say one or two things about your work.

In the first place, I trust that, more and more, our people will see to it that the schools train toward and not away from the farm and the workshop. We have spoken a great deal about the dignity of labor in this country, but we have not acted up to our spoken words, for in our education we have tended to proceed upon the assumption that the educated man was to be educated away from and not toward labor. The great nations of mediaeval times who left such marvelous works of architecture and art behind them were able to

do so because they educated alike the brain and hand of the craftsman. We, too, in our turn, must show that we understand the law which decrees that a people which loses physical address invariably deteriorates, so that our people shall understand that the good carpenter, the good blacksmith, the good mechanic, the good farmer, really do fill the most important positions in our land, and that it is an evil thing for them and for the nation to have their sons and daughters forsake the work which, if well and efficiently performed, means more than any other work for our people as a whole. One thing that I would like to have you teach your pupils is that, whether you call the money gained salary or wages does not make any real difference, and that if, by working hard with your hands, you get more than if you work with your head only, it does not atone for it to call the smaller amount salary.

The term, "dignity of labor," implies that manual labor is as dignified as mental labor; as of course it is. Indeed, the highest kind of labor is that which makes demands upon the qualities of both head and hand, of heart, brain, and body. Physical prowess, physical address, are necessities; they stand on a level with intellect, and only below character. Let us show that we regard the position of the man who works with his hands as being ordinarily and in good faith as important and dignified and as worthy of consideration as that of business men or professional men. We need to have a certain re-adjustment of values in this country, which must primarily come through the efforts of just you men and women here and the men and women like you thruout this land.

I would not have you preach an impossible ideal; for if you preach an ideal that is impossible you tend to make your pupils believe that no ideals are possible, and therefore, you tend to do them that worst of wrongs—to teach them to divorce preaching from practice, to divorce the ideal that they in the abstract admire from the practical good after which they strive. Teach the boy and girl that their business is to earn their own livelihood; teach the boy that he is to be the homemaker; the girl that she must ultimately be the homekeeper; that the work of the father is to be the bread-winner, and that of the mother the housekeeper; that their work is the most important work by far in all the land; that the work of the statesman, the writer, the captain of industry, and all the rest, is conditioned; first, upon the work that finds its expression in the family, that supports the family. So teach the boy that he is to be expected to earn his own livelihood; that it is a shame and scandal for him not to be self-dependent, not to be able to hold his own in the rough work of actual life. Teach the girl that so far from its being her duty to try to avoid all labor, all effort, that it should be a matter of pride to her to be as good a housewife as her mother was before her. Sometimes the kindest and most well-meaning mother, sometimes a kind and well-meaning father also, do as much damage to the children as the most thoughtless and selfish parent could, by bringing them up to feel that the goal of their attainment should be the absence of effort instead of effort well directed. We have all of us often

heard some good but unwise woman say, "I have worked hard; my daughter shan't work;" the poor woman not realizing that great tho the curse of mere drudgery, of overwork, is, that it is not so great as the curse of vapid idleness; and it does not make any difference whether the idleness is that of the hobo at one end of the scale or the gilded youth at the other. Do not waste time in envying the idler at either end of the social scale. Envy is not the proper attitude toward them. The proper attitude toward them is a good humored but thorogoing disapproval of the man or woman who is so blind not only to the interests of society as a whole, but to his or her own real interests as to believe that anything permanent can be gained from a life of selfish and vacuous idleness. Such idleness is the poorest investment in the long run that can be imagined; and there is no surer way to forfeit all chance of real happiness than to set deliberately to work to treat pleasure as the only aim after which to strive. Teach the boy and girl to work; teach them that their proper duty is in the home; their duty to one another and toward their neighbors. Then teach them more; teach them to build upon this as a foundation the superstructure of the higher life. I want to see our education directed more and more toward training boys and girls back to the farm and the shop, so that they will be first-rate farmers, first-rate mechanics, fit to work with the head and to work with the hands; and realizing that work with the hands is just as honorable as work with the head. In addition I want to see a training that will make every boy, every girl, leaving the public schools, leaving the schools of the nation, feel impelled so to carry himself or herself that the net result, when his or her life has been lived, shall be an addition to the sum total of decent living and achievement for the nation; and have them understand that they are never going to amount to much in the big things if they don't first amount to something in the little things.

The effort should be made to teach everyone that the first requisite of good citizenship is doing the duties that are near at hand. But, of course, this does not excuse a man from doing the other duties, too. It is no excuse if a man neglects his political duties to say that he is a good husband and father, still less is it an excuse if he is guilty of corruption in politics or business to say that his home life is all right. He ought to add to decency in home life decency in politics, decency in public life.

So my plea is not that the homely duties are all sufficient, but that they are a necessary base upon which to build the superstructure of the higher life. Our children should be trained to do the homely duties in the first place, and then, in addition, to have it in them so to carry themselves that we collectively may well and fitly perform the great and responsible tasks of American citizenship.

DESIRABLE UNIFORMITY AND DIVERSITY IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

ANDREW S. DRAPER, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, ALBANY, N. Y.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I can scarcely begin without mention of the fact that my entrance into the affairs of the National Educational Association was twenty years ago, in this month, in this department, and in this city. It was the beginning of personal, professional, and official relations which have been a constant satisfaction to me. I had the temerity to present a paper on determining the qualifications of teachers. It took ground for state regulation, for the subordination of local methods to a state system which would at least protect every district against the relatives, and dependents, and supporters, and adherents, of school officials, unless they could pass examinations and teach; but it stood for the freedom of all who could stand up among men and women and exercise freedom without harm. If anyone should recall that it was a bit crude, he will at least do me the favor of remembering that the speaker was then very young. Crude or not, it started an intellectual and pedagogical ruction in the department. But what provided the basis for a very earnest discussion then is everywhere accepted now, unless it be in isolated sections which I lack the hardihood or the courage to mention.

The next year at Nashville I became president of the department. The record sets forth that sixteen votes were thrown for me, that fourteen went for Mr. Moffett of Alabama, that there were eight scattering, and that an open resolution, without a ballot, was required to effectuate my election. Mr. Moffett was considerate enough to join in the conclusion very heartily, and I held the office. The next year, with a much larger attendance, I was continued with every expression of unanimity, and the New York and Philadelphia meetings of the department are among the grateful memories of my association with the doings of the schools. I should therefore be false to much that I cherish, and I should attain the heights of ingratitude, if I were not to respond heartily to your invitation to present this address.

GROWING UNIFORMITY

In the last twenty years the growth of uniformity in the plans and policies of the schools has been marked. We all know the reasons. In part they are internal and in part external. We are good travelers and great readers. We are all moved by the same ambitions. We would have as efficient and progressive schools as any people has. We are moved by the very uniform, and certainly the almost universal, advances in the thinking and the doing of the country. We have gained in bigness and in weight, and the inertia which oppressed us before there was a great ball to roll has given place to the new difficulty of safely applying the tremendous energy of a mighty ball in motion. Rejecting the attitude of a wise old man apprehensive about something new,

and without pessimism, of which I have not a grain, I am going to query, tonight, whether our information is not more general than our discrimination in its applications, whether the diversity in our situations ought not to play a freer part in the determination of our policies, and whether we ought not even to be upon our guard against a uniformity of educational organization which may either overreach or fall short of the educational need of imperative situations. And, notwithstanding the difficulty of the task, I am going to try to reason out and lay down some propositions upon which we may stand concerning desirable uniformity in the logic, and diversity in the instrumentalities, of American education.

ILLUSTRATIONS IN UNIFORMITY

A dozen years ago the president ot the University of Illinois had some small part in securing the appropriations for a fine new library building, and then indulged in some pardonable reflections about where it should stand. It was his first experience in the matter of placing buildings in Illinois. He reasoned that it might well be placed so that it would "quarter" a little upon the course of the sun, so that the rather plain stack-rooms in the rear might be as unobtrusive as possible, and so that the front, when taken in connection with other buildings, might present a sort of crescent to the main entrances to the grounds, and add a little oneness and warmth of feeling to what the architects call "the ensemble." He figured it out, had the plat staked out on the exact ground where all this might be accomplished, and made it all very graphic by causing ropes to be strung around the stakes, so that none could lose the effect. He procured the governor to come and look, and the great head of the state said that it was "good." He led the Board of Trustees to the scene and exploited to them the sentimental magnificence of the prospect. He could not fail to observe that they appeared to have some latent doubts about the matter, but he noted with satisfaction equal to his appreciation of their goodness, that their skepticism was suppressed by their consideration for himself. Returning to the council chamber, they too, in formal resolution, pronounced it all "good." Then at high noon of the next day there was an alumni feast which was attended by revelry and mirth and much freedom of talk. In the midst of the hilarity one unsubmissive unregenerate got up and said only this and nothing more: "Before the trustees break ground for that library building, it is to be hoped that they will have sense enough to pull it around square with the world;" and the uproarious acclaim which he evoked drove the information into the soul of the president that his ambitions and ideals about landscape gardening and architectural effect were being quickly prepared for a peace offering to the Illinois reverence for the cardinal points of the Illinois compass. His later information was correct. The ceremony was marked by sympathy for the sacrifice, but by entire firmness and determination; and that building stands upon an exact east and west line with its beautiful face squarely turned toward the mathe-

matical but evasive great north pole, with what seems to me a serious and worried look because the curvature of the earth defeats its eternal effort.

Yet it was well. It is seldom that anything in which we are interested is as important as it seems to us at the time. It was better that the building should conform to common and harmless thought, than that it should for all time be obliged to encounter the universal standards of its owners about the fitness of things.

There are some things that are not likely to be changed. The highways of New England will always follow the streams, seek the easy grades, wind about the mountains, and be grateful for the woods; no matter how long, or how crooked, or how heavy, the road may be. The highways of the prairies will always be as straight as an arrow, exactly a mile apart, both north and south and east and west, and they will never get in conflict with magnetism nor with mathematics. But in each case they advance on lines of least resistance, and adjust the advantages of the situation to the uses of the people. There are usages or whims, as well as mountains and streams, which cannot be changed. In the cemeteries about my New York home the graves are laid with reference to the size of the lot, and the trees that are upon it, and the number who are to occupy it, and without much thought of where the sun rises; but about my Illinois home the dead are laid on east and west lines, with the head to the west, so that when the trump of the archangel shall sound, the sleeper shall look to the east upon rising, lose no time in the bewilderment of turning around, and suffer no prejudice in the preferences of the eternal kingdom. It is better to conform to it than to be distressed by futile attempts to reform it. Preaching is a good thing, but much of it is wasted because irrational, unspiritual, or aimed at the unchangeable. Uniformity is often a good thing, but it will find its match in the manufactures of Connecticut. Multiformity is often a good thing, but diversified agriculture will not stir enthusiasm among the wheat growers of Minnesota and the eastern Dakotas, the corn growers of Illinois and Iowa, or the cotton growers of Georgia and Alabama.

Ignorance is unpardonable. Information comes easily. But what is well depends upon conditions. Reason must deal with facts. Policies must adapt themselves to situations. No matter how informed one may be about a movement which has somewhere been successful, no matter how contagious is his enthusiasm, no matter how good the motive; it is all wasted if the thing cannot go where it is to be tried, or if it must cost in one way or another more than it can come to. If time is of no value, if energy is not occupied, if novices or geniuses are only wandering in intellectual forests and wondering about game, there is no harm: there may be possible good. But seasoned and intensive lives cannot wait upon mere possibilities; certainly not upon those that are too remote. Even discovery and invention have come from lives that were balanced and intense, that evolved theories that were rational, and that followed probabilities that were at least within the realm of realization. And no matter how much we owe to research, to discovery, or to invention, the

world's work has been borne and the world's advance has been made by men and women who are able to see *what may be done*, and who have the force and the discrimination which can do it.

NO OBSTACLES TO EDUCATION

Education comes pretty near being the American universal passion. All the people believe in it. If that is not literally true it is so near it that no one can disbelieve in it without ostracism. If one is indifferent to it, it is because he is a mental toper or an intellectual degenerate. All the people believe in all the people having all they will take of it. If there is one who does not it is because he is un-American, out of sympathy with the fundamental philosophy of the nation. All the people believe in all kinds of education for all the people. That belief stirs some troubles of its own. Some do not stop to think whether the kind of education will go in a particular place, whether it will profit a particular people, whether it will make misfits or whether it may break the intellectual and industrial equilibrium of the country, and therefore impair the individual happiness and the moral and economic strength of the nation.

Now do not infer too quickly that the speaker may be lost in some sort of a wilderness, may have become blinded to the lights of a lifetime by some stupefying and profane influences. Every boy and girl, every man and woman, in America, is to have the utmost of educational opportunity that the country, having regard to the national unity and the rights of all, can provide. Everyone is to be helped to the attainment of any distinct purpose which he may acquire. Everyone is to be given aid in forming his purposes, and cheer on the road to their realization. We are in no danger of ever thinking that lowly birth may be an obstacle to intellectual greatness. We shall be nearer right in thinking that high birth is a greater obstacle. We shall never think that one kind of training is good for one class, and that the people in another class are not to be allowed to partake of it; or that there is another kind of education which is suited to one class, and that none in another class can ever want anything to do with it. The suggestion is so repugnant to the thinking of the country that it merits neither refutation nor consideration. The democracy, the very atmosphere, of America dissolves social sets, redistributes professional and business inheritances, and intermingles the wealthier and the working classes, very quickly. The boy of poor parents has about as good a chance as any other boy to be the rich man of tomorrow: the child of the wage-earner has as much prospect of intellectual conspicuity or commanding influence in the next generation as has the child of the president of a university, or the president of the nation. Indeed, we carry our philosophy to such an extreme that it often puts an undue handicap upon the child of momentary prosperity. Fortunes in lands and securities, and in mental acquisition and in political preferment as well, are not much transmitted, or they are so much divided in

the transmission, or are so dissipated by the inheritors, that they count but little. The exceptional legatee has burdens and troubles of his own.

Not much but work counts. It may be by the hand, it may be mental, it may be moral. It counts most if it embraces all. It must be adapted to qualities and environment. It must reckon with conditions and possibilities. It must be incessant, sustained, disciplined, progressive. The worker must regard other workers: the work must articulate with other work. There must be ideals, but they must be rational. It matters little what the work is, if it is of a kind which the world wants done, and if the one who undertakes it really does it. It matters much if it is of no account, or if the one who undertakes it has no habit of taking care, no interest in the process, no pride in the finished product. If it is well done, no matter what it is, the world will appreciate the work and regard the man who does it. And more than by inheritance, more than by situation, more than by favor or by chance, the qualities and the worth of the man are determined by the measure and the fineness of his work.

The efficiency of the worker, the fineness of the work, the consequent worth of the work to the country, and the reflex influence of the work upon the worker, turn very largely upon the free and natural, rather than upon the constrained, selection of work by the worker. To assure the results which are desirable he must choose for himself. Of course he must have incentives and inspirations; of course he must have lights and opportunities; but he must be left to his internal inclinations, tastes, and gifts, as well as to his external inspirations and opportunities, to choose the work which he wants to do, if there is to be much promise that he will do it well enough to be happy in the doing of it, and thus make it of some account to other people and therefore of more account to himself.

I make bold to raise the query whether the educational system of America has not had an overwhelming trend which has taken away much of the freedom of choice and naturalness of selection which are necessary to the best individual and public results from the adaptation of people to work. I suggest a question as to whether we do not have an abnormal, indeed an alarming, number of misfits between workers and work. It might not be amiss to go even farther and raise a question as to whether there is not something in the common thought and common ambitions of the country, and as a consequence something in the prevalent theories and plans of the schools, which actually leaves us with great quantities of work to do which goes undone, and also with great numbers of men and women who are not doing what they might do, and not doing much of anything anyway, when the very unfolding of their humanity depends upon the number of those who do tiring and productive work.

Perhaps the difficulty, if there is a difficulty, may be expressed more clearly, and possibly a remedy may be signified, in this way. There are great, powerful, and productive nations where the overwhelming and successful policy is to keep the masses down. The laws are so made, the professions so guarded,

the expression of political opinion so obstructed, the political assemblies so unrepresentative, and the social classes so incrusted and segregated, that the door of opportunity is practically or completely closed to a child of the people. The thing is definitely fixed and steadfastly maintained in a way which will enable the few, and their children for indefinite generations, to enjoy privileges which they never earned, thru the political subordination and the physical labor of the multitude. We hold all that in abhorrence in this country. Our political fathers, no matter where our natural parents lived, determined that any law or usage which affected or continued such conditions must go down wherever the flag of the Union should signify the thought of the nation. We have not departed from the attitude of our fathers. We have worked out their philosophy in a largeness of fact and thru a wilderness of difficulties of which they never had the slightest expectation or conception. We are now committed to that philosophy, not only because it was the philosophy of the fathers, but because it has gained strength thru the difficulties it has experienced, and shown its beneficence thru its practical applications. We have undoubting confidence that we have the brains and whatever physical strength may be necessary to work it out completely, no matter how wide the territory over which the flag floats and no matter how many or how diverse the people who live beneath its beautiful folds. And we surrender no tithe of all this when we raise the question whether, in the severity of our determination to avoid the subordination of the many to the few in other lands, we have not gone too far toward the other extreme and advanced conceptions which, acting upon the susceptible and ambitious temperament of the people of the United States, have led too many to think that they can succeed by wits without work, and can manage the business of other people before there is evidence that they are able to manage their own.

In our rhetoric and declamation every American is a king. This is idealistic but very often it is misunderstood. For any practical end it lacks the necessary discrimination between kings and between people. On the whole, it must be admitted that the kings have been rather a poor lot, and on the whole it must be said, if we say anything about it, that we have plenty of people who are kingly in that sense alone. In the theory, the intent, and the outworking of our pure democracy, every man stands equal with every other man in the making and the protection of the law. But that is far from all. The rest depends upon himself. As to the rest, he is unequal with other men. And the rest is largely in liquid state until it is given form and consistency in the schools.

The schools are filled with fallacies. The boys are pointed to the millionaires, to the inventors and discoverers, to presidents of banks and railroads, to military and naval heroes, and to the presidency of the nation. One who lacks ambition for these places is deemed to be hardly worth the counting. Ambition, training in the culturing studies, wits, and luck are thought to be the stairs to eminence and glory. Yet the men who have reached altitudes

by such means are rare in the extreme, and with rare exceptions they have been unsubstantial and unreliable when they got there. The men who have attained eminence and held it securely have been hard, severe, long-continued, uncomplaining, and unrelenting workers. The sign boards at the cross-roads in the courses of the schools have pointed the boys to professional occupations. The road to these seems easy to a boy, and it is a rare boy that will not choose the easier thing. Yet, as a good friend, a natural lawyer, an honored judge, and a senator of the United States, wrote in my autograph album when I was a law student, "The successful lawyer, above almost all other men, must earn his bread in the sweat of his brow." The physician who is not a systematic, joyous, seasoned laborer, is a dangerous character to have about your house. It is so with clergymen and engineers and bankers and merchants and all the rest who make any real impression upon life.

The schools not only overlook or undervalue the processes which are essential to any success worth talking about in commercial, professional, and political life, but they are exceedingly undiscriminating about the situations in life which are of most account to the particular liver, as well as about the studies and processes and the hard labor by which they are to be reached. The man who has a craft, and comes somewhere near being the master of it, is to be envied in comparison with the man who has got into a bank or a printing office and cannot get to the fore in it. And the man who has developed a farm, with all of its interesting and inspiring attributes, is a veritable king when compared with those who have taken rooms in the basements of the professions. Neither the successful craftsman nor the efficient farmer has to ask special favors. Both grow balanced and hardy thru the demands and the limitations of their work, and both are doing work which the world has to have. Both are as independent as need be, and independence makes for influence and respect in the common life.

But the control and direction of children have been much relaxed, and we have had a pretty hard attack of something which has attacked educational values, rejected known roads, indulged in novel speculations which can neither be demonstrated nor disproved, which points to everything and gets nowhere.

The trouble with the schools, certainly the lower schools (and there is trouble with the lower schools, at least) is that they lack definite aims, unless they are aims which ought not to appeal to more than a moiety of the people. They do not train into the child the habit of taking extreme care, and they do not demand clearness of process and completeness of result. They do not sufficiently recognize the imperative demands of labor and exactness as the essential basis of a national system of education. So much must come first, in any event, and after that there may be free choice when the child is old enough to make a choice. There is not only the lack of the essential foundation, but also of the opportunity for the subsequent free choice. The overwhelming influences of the schools are all in the direction of a superficial culture, altho sustained and successful work is the instrument of all true culture;

and of professional and managing vocations, altho the places are over-full. Children have to leave the schools to escape their trend. If they do not leave for that purpose, they certainly do leave because it is not made worth while for them to stay. But one-third of the children in the elementary schools continue to the end. Only a part of these go to the high schools, only one-third of those who go to the high schools remain beyond the second year, and only one-sixth to one-tenth of those who go continue to their graduation. All the rest drop out along the way, because the need of the children's help to earn the family support is pressing and because they think that it is more to their advantage to have their children leave school than to remain.

It is not saying that a child should not have his free choice in determining what he shall do; nor is it implying that he shall not be helped to any opportunity for which he wants to try, to say that there is exclusiveness and repression in such a situation, and that in the outworking of our democracy in our education the forcing of children to such an alternative as that must disappear.

Freedom of choice does not imply that all our children shall have a literary or professional training; it does not demand that in all parts of the country there must be the same kind or the same grade of schools; it does not demand that in its name children shall be guided into vocations that are overstocked, or for which they are not adapted; it does not demand, most certainly, that children shall be led into vocations that misfit them, or given the alternative of going without training for a vocation which they might want, and which it would be profitable for the country for them to have. The demand of our democracy is for equality of opportunity. We have gone too far or we have not gone far enough. We cannot avoid the question. We cannot escape the attitude of the Constitution: but perhaps we may understand it more perfectly. The demand of the economic situation and of common justice, that there shall be schools suited to the needs of all people and leading to all manner of vocations, will have to be heeded.

The fact is that we men and women of the schools keep close track of one another. The news of the schools is all printed and we read it. We travel a great deal. We each undertake to keep up with all the rest. The discussions have all been of the same general character, and the projections have all been in one general direction. We have each added whatever subjects of a culturing curriculum the people would stand, and brought in all the incidental novelties the conventions could suggest. The school boards have been almost paralyzed. Obstacles to education are not allowed in this country; but may not some obstacles to some education in some places be healthful? There has been skepticism, but no one has felt just confidence enough in his skepticism to say bluntly, "Pull that building around square with the world before we go any further about it."

SCHOOLS TO SUIT CONDITIONS

We are eternally conforming and standardizing. What we want is not schools that are alike, but principles that are fundamental and schools as

diverse as the conditions are. Of course, all schools must have standards, but they must be standards of sense, standards of character, standards of information, and not standard or uniform courses, or uniform methods, for all the schools of a state or of the country. The universal comparisons between state systems and between city systems, and the universal effort to have as good as any other state or city has, lead to results which are as remote as can be imagined from the needs of the greater part of the constituencies of the schools. What is needed is to bring the teacher and the parents and the children near enough together to make it possible for them to understand the needs and make the most of the possibilities of one another.

For years the tendency of one enthusiast after another in the community has put more and more upon the schools. There are societies to effect everything that ever developed in a dream, and an average school superintendent or an ordinary school board is a weak defense against the onset of a society of enthusiasts, particularly of women enthusiasts. Politeness and platitudes have to suffice, where policemen and fortifications are necessary. Newspapers agitate, just as a matter of "newspaper policy," which means a policy which will sell more papers. A mere sentiment comes to be a cause of the people, and that which confuses and takes from the concentration and efficiency of the schools gains a place in their curricula.

Authorship and the publishing business play a part in the multiplicity of studies, and a worse part in prolonging and attenuating studies beyond their right. The school life of the child is within limits of age. It is none too long. It is precious time. Whatever takes more than its right subtracts just so much from something else that is vital to the rounding-out of the child's life to its utmost. Whatever does not give him added power to do makes for insipidity and saps his strength. Say all we will, and say it truly, about a child needing a complex education to fit him for life in a complex civilization, the fact remains that the things which make for complexity should not be permitted to begin so early as to endanger his imperative need of oral and written language and of the simple processes of mathematics.

We are a considerate and tolerant people. For a score of years good people whose minds seem to live in an inflated atmosphere have pretty nearly monopolized the attention in the schools where teachers are prepared. In the colleges and universities—their proper field, if they have a proper field—their doctrines and propositions are rather sharply resisted by other departments, and the zone of their research and confusion is healthfully circumscribed. But "researching" in the normal and training schools has few limitations, and the consequent uncertainty attains a density that brings average minds to prostration. The effect upon the young girl teachers is pathetic. They are not only called upon to do more things than they can do, in order to meet the demands of enthusiasts, but they are invoking the aid of occult sciences, and feel obliged to accomplish ends by constrained methods and devices which are destructive of that freedom which is the essence of effectiveness in teaching.

Useless illustration and exploitation consume time, if they do not obscure the point and defeat the end. Out of it all the children do not have trained into them the ability to do some particular thing. The parents are confounded. The school boards have become pretty nearly helpless. The general public is restless and anxious.

It is imperative that there be a closer adaptation of schools to situations, and that schools have more and longer control over children and move forward to definite ends. There is being much said now, and it is necessarily said, about the development of technical and trade schools in the towns. But that is but one manifestation of a wider difficulty.

The schools must meet the needs of a particular people, whether these needs are high or low, academic, professional, commercial, agricultural, or manufacturing. We cannot expect the people to adjust themselves wholly to schools. We must adjust the schools in very considerable measure to people. For some reasons it is better to describe a farm by saying that it is in the northern half of Section 20 in Township 9 in the north range No. 3, west of the 6th prime meridian, as they do in Nebraska, than it is to say that 83 acres, more or less, are in the town of Aroostock in the county of Skowhegan, and bounded by stone fences or lanes, monumented by a blazed tree, a deer's antlers, a fox's hole, or a red heifer, as they may do in the Maine woods. But one system will have to prevail until a better one comes in, and there are more important things than prime meridians in locating boundary lines, when the lands go down in the family, and you don't have to give, and nobody wants to take, a mortgage upon them. It is well if a people have got far enough to need and to support high schools and colleges, but if they have not, there is even greater need that they shall have elementary schools suited to their exact needs, and whether they have or not, their elementary schools must be adjusted to their conditions and look forward to their work, or the bottom will fall out of the high schools, or there will come an educational cleavage which is repugnant to that theory of government which has been the backbone of our prosperity and is the hope of our future.

We hear a great deal about consolidating schools and carrying children long distances to central schools in order to have graded schools and finer buildings. It is well where the people with such lights as they have, or will have, want it so, but there is no pedagogical reason why it should be forced upon them. There are difficulties about children being carried several miles to school, and there are pretty strong reasons why it is well to have a school within walking-distance of every home. Graded schools have troubles of their own. A school does not have to be a big school in order to be a very good one. The teacher who has to reckon with the life of the family and the outlook of the child, may be, and often is, doing much better teaching than the teacher who is bent upon conforming her processes to the creed of a training school or the philosophy of the books, without such an understanding of doctrine as will enable her to know that dogma is not of much account where

it fails to meet situations. The percentage of strong and balanced characters who come out of the country schools, where the teaching is more personal and direct, is greater than of similar characters growing out of schools where classification is imperative and the teaching necessarily more impersonal and indirect. Modern conveniences are lessening the difficulties of the country schools. There is no overwhelming advantage in huddling people or pupils together more than they do it themselves under the necessities of the case. And it is a great pity that there is so much educational confidence or courtesy as to keep some doctrines about conformity in education from meeting with something like the frigid reception which bulls about conformity in religion would encounter in the General Assembly of my church. Sweeping generalizations are as inapplicable in one field as in the other.

This principle holds as good in the upper schools as in the lower ones. Some are "standardizing" American universities just now. You cannot standardize American universities any more than you can standardize the color of American apples, or the height of American women. There are apples that command the top of the market even tho they are not red, and there are women who are mighty, even tho they do not approach the altitude of the Broadway squad of the Metropolitan police. So there are colleges and universities which are first-class, even tho they have less than a thousand students and do not attempt many things that the larger ones make much of; and there are others which are second-class or third-class with two thousand or three thousand students, who are offered everything that can be named in an educational bill of fare. Classifying and standardizing are difficult and often dangerous processes in this country. They are impossible in American education. If it is a mere matter of association or congeniality, none will object, for that is a harmless matter of feeling and of tastes. If it is a means of educational helpfulness, it might well use better descriptive words. If it is a process of discrimination, of exclusiveness, of depreciation, then it must end where all meanness in education eventually does. There is no conclusive argument against the big college or the little college, the rich college or the poor college, the classical college or the industrial college. It is a question of fitness and efficiency, of adaptation and of accomplishment. No matter what other attributes it may have or may lack, that college is of the first rank in America which sends its flag farthest into the ranks of ignorance and meanness by turning out the largest percentage of true and productive men and women.

A few years ago Harvard University put the entrance requirements at the schools of law and medicine upon the basis of an approved baccalaureate degree. That was well. The schools suffered somewhat in attendance, but advanced scholarship gained by it. Then other universities discussed it, some attempted it, and a small number accomplished it. It was all well enough. But there was an assumption in the discussion that a move which might be a good one at one institution must be good at another. That is not

necessarily true. By far the greater number of professional schools could not exist upon that basis, and it is desirable that such of them as are honest and doing the best they can shall exist. All intending professional students cannot follow a prescribed course of scientific training until they are twenty-six or twenty-eight years old before they are allowed to begin practicing a profession, and all people cannot afford to pay the fees which professional men so trained feel entitled to exact. You may tell me that I am standing for the lower rather than the higher ideals in scholarship. No, I am standing for the rational, the serviceable, and the fruitful ideals in scholarship. I am standing for schools that can serve the country. I am glad that some institutions are reaching the highest altitudes, glad that the time has come when students no longer need to go to foreign universities for the very best instruction. But every school is to have its chance, and every student is to have his chance. You may well believe that the time will never come when all or nearly all of the great men in any profession will be enrolled in the alumni of a single professional school, no matter what its admission requirements may have been. A full proportion of the great men will always come from small or weak schools in which there is some ordinary teacher who fires their lives. Schools are to meet situations that exist, and uplift constituencies of their own. They cannot do that by merely copying or conforming.

LACK OF AIM AND EFFICIENCY

The advanced schools, or their departments, have become so much differentiated that each has a very definite aim. By the time students are old enough to enter them they have gained rather clear purposes, and they select the school and the department which can do for them just what they want to have done. That is so in some measure, though much less so, with the middle schools. They are too often afflicted with more of a desire to undertake the natural work of the colleges and the professional schools, which they cannot do well because they cannot have the instructors, the equipment, or the basis of preparation for it, than they are endowed with a proud ambition to do the legitimate work of schools of their grade, so that when pupils have finished, it is known that they are in possession of the information and the power to do some definite thing which can be given a valuation in the world of education and in the world of fact and of affairs. Still, the pupils who remain after the second year in the high school do begin the process of satisfying ambitions which have begun to take definite form; and if they are clear enough of vision and strong enough of purpose, they often find the helps which their particular ambitions stand in need of.

There is practically nothing of this in the elementary schools. That is a most serious and menacing fact in American education. If it is said that there cannot be because of the immaturity of the pupils, it is answered that it is not so in other great national systems of education, and that the pupils are quite as immature there as here. The only aim in our lower schools is

the grade above, and the one above that, and the road leads either to intellectual culture without any definite vocational aims, or to employments that are professional or at least semi-professional in character. As a result the multitude tires of it. The minority follows it, and, notwithstanding the steadily increasing exactions, more gain access to the professional and managing vocations than is good for them, good for such vocations, or good for the country. But the majority quit the road all along the line because they cannot see that it is going to lead to any definite acquisition that is going to make it to their advantage to remain.

It is a very common impression among the poor, and among some who are not so poor, that there is really more advantage to the child in going to work than in continuing in school. And if there was really work for them, and if they were actually being trained into it, how many of us could justly say that the conclusion is devoid of reason? But the grave fact is that the 60 per cent. of the children who drop out of the elementary schools without finishing them are not prepared for any definite work, no matter how simple, and the work they find does not lead to their improvement because it is of a kind which grinds the heart and bone out of them for the enlargement of dividends.

There are other facts associated with this one which must be mentioned but need not be argued. Any great work having relation to both sexes imperatively claims the co-operative effort of both men and women. The number of women teachers, the consequent low basis of wages, the agitation about equal pay for similar work in spite of all economic and educational considerations, and particularly the pernicious manipulation of party politics by organizations of women teachers in the larger cities, is preventing, speaking generally, the stronger men from engaging in teaching, and is forcing out some who have already commenced. For obvious reasons it is a menace to that balance in the work of the schools which is imperative to the interests of both boys and girls who are to form ambitions and find employments in a balanced world.

The doings of the primary schools in the great cities have undue influence upon the operations of the primary schools in the entire country, and this is particularly illustrated in the growing disposition to make a teacher's position a comfortable subsistence for life, protected by law, rather than an imperative and responsible instrument of common needs and of the best public opinion. Of course it has grown out of the very largeness of the system, and the unjust and reprehensible treatment which has sometimes been inflicted upon teachers by weak, or worse than weak, superintendents and boards of education. It all illustrates the difficulties which justice and effectiveness have to encounter at the hands of democratic government, and it particularly exemplifies the importance of thrusting all partisanship out of the management of the schools.

These things contribute to a situation which wastes the lives of pupils. With the unnecessary studies, the undue prolongation of studies thru a series of books in a single study, and thru the undue emphasis upon mere

methods and exploitation; with the fact that the pupils are not reaching forward to some definite thing in which they are interested; with the further fact that the home is no longer of much help because the character of the home has changed, and because the work and processes of the schools are so changed that parents are unable to comprehend them, there is little wonder that the work is often behind the age of the pupil, as it is. Then there is the further fact that there is a very common national indifference if not repugnance to enforced attendance upon the schools. So there is no lack of explanation of the wastage in the work of our elementary schools, and of a percentage of illiteracy in the United States which exceeds that of any other favored nation in the world.

"ALL MEN ARE CREATED EQUAL"

What is the matter and what is to be done? Our democracy has often been misinterpreted and misunderstood. It is not strange that it has been misinterpreted, because there has been no other democracy like it. Something very important happened in this country on the 4th day of July, 1776, and because of that, some things even more important have happened since. Our independence enlarged the freedom of a people who inherited and never gave up their full share of the liberty of the nation which had gone farther in making laws, and in defining human rights under human laws, than any other nation in the world. Independence of itself gave us some rather inflated ideas about freedom, and those ideas have been still more inflated by the rather loose thinking of the millions who have come to us with the notion that freedom was offered and exemplified by the absence of the army or of the police, more than by the free play of moral sense, the equal rights of all, not some, of the people, and binding obligations and limitations of moral as well as civic law. The trouble has been that in the prevalent thought freedom has been regarded without much thought of the foundations upon which it must rest, and the limitations within which it must operate, and the processes by which it must be enlarged, if it is to be secure or is to be enlarged at all.

For a familiar but excellent illustration of this, see the difficulty we have in getting children into and keeping them in the schools. The attendance upon school is more irregular in the United States than in any other nation with whom we would be willing to be compared. It is not merely because there are people here who are indifferent to schools. There are such in all nations. It is not because we have more of these than other peoples have. It is because the measure of control is less here than there, and because of the common misunderstanding in this country of what freedom truly is, and of how it is to be retained or enlarged. In a word, it is because public sentiment is not quick about seeing the need of, or keen about sustaining the processes for, enforcing attendance upon the schools. We hold out more freedom of choice than other peoples. Our schools attempt more than theirs. They do what they undertake more completely than we. The habit of sending all children to school is much better established with them than with us. It has been

established by law and by force. Our fallacious reasoning about freedom forces upon us a percentage of illiteracy several times larger than that of any other very well-organized and well-governed country in the world.

What is to be done? Laws and educational systems—and educational systems are one expression of laws—have to be recast frequently in order to correspond with the growth and progress of peoples. It is not necessary to conclude that our national and political fundamentals are wrong, as some seem disposed to do. It is only necessary to give those fundamentals a rational interpretation and erect a more perfect superstructure upon them.

One says, "Everybody who is well informed now sees that the declaration that 'all men are created equal' is only a glittering platitude." This is not true. That phrase was neither perversity nor a pleasantry. Far from its being mere rhetoric or bombast, it is, in my conception of the great soul of the nation, a tremendous basic fact, and I am proud of being one of the people who have confidently entered upon and successfully moved along the rugged road to its most complete realization in human history. I do not believe that the men in the Continental Congress were capable of mere bumptiousness or that they were incapable of expressing what they intended in very good English phrase. Of course, their manner of expression was of their day and generation. Within that limitation they succeeded very well in expressing the things to which they pledged their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor.

Has anyone ever supposed that, when they declared as a political truism that all men are created equal, they intended to say that men are equal in height or in width or in weight? Has anyone supposed that they intended to say that all men are equal in the tenseness of their feelings, or in the direction and the strength of their thinking? Or has anyone imagined that they intended to be understood as thinking that all men are equal in their possessions, their attributes, or their opportunities? Washington's armies fought for no such idle contention, for no such absurd ideal, as this. It was a lawyer's phrase. It was the phrase of good lawyers and it was a good phrase. The lives and training of the men who framed it, the only logical hypothesis upon which it can be made consistent with all the other things they said, and the only interpretation which makes the Declaration worth the struggle of the Revolution—all combine to make it clear that the laws of this country were to guarantee all men and women an entire equality of legal protection and legal right, that the common power should not be used to keep one down nor to lift another up, and that the laws of the land should articulate with God's justice in holding out to everyone the legal right to the equal chance to make the most of himself.

All that we have to do in order to enable our schools to promote our national ideals is to go back to the fundamentals of our political faith, square our theories with their obvious intent, and create instrumentalities which enable rational ideals to run their natural course, as the waters of the uplands follow their even channels to the sea.

Every American child is to have his chance. It is not to be thwarted by

any law of the government or any usage of the people. It is not to be long hindered by the lack of educational instrumentalities which may aid it. Of course, the large factor is in the personal qualities which are looking for a chance, which can recognize a chance when they see it, and which have wits, and force, and endurance, and patience enough to make the most of it. But these are not the only factors. A child's destiny is not settled in this country by the circumstances of birth. It is a great thing to live in a land where experience proves that riches quite as much as poverty, the city quite as much as the country, and conceit quite as much as necessity, are barriers on the roads to the elevations. But even this is not all. A child's future is not to be clouded or obstructed by any assignments which a teacher may make, by any false valuations of the prizes of life, by any fallacious theories about the kind of success which is of the most worth, by any wasting of his time in order to accommodate the rigidity of an organization, or trying out the vagaries of pedagogical speculation, or by any forced misfits which must logically follow official, legislative, or professional misconceptions of the relations of our democracy to the free opportunities of men and women. It is time to stop practicing upon children in the schools; it is time to stop implying that work with the head is better than work with the hands; it is time to stop forcing them into grooves which satisfy notions that are too common, but in most cases lead to a loss of every kind of efficiency and to ends which are alike humiliating to the individuals most concerned, and opposed to the general welfare of the nation. It is time to put the emphasis upon work, no matter what it is about; it is time to inspire expertness, no matter what in; it is time to help qualities adapt themselves to productivity, no matter in what direction. Charity is not to be confused with the work of the schools. The right to an education is inherent. With that right the child must sink or swim, and more will swim if there is no confusion about it. But the schools must reach every child, no matter whether his parent wills it or not. We must have more definite aims, and we must assure more concrete results. We may expect the complexity of the educational system to meet the complexities of our modern civilization, but in some way each school must have a simpler life which will help, and not confound, all who are concerned in it. Every American child must have an open, free, clear, legal, American chance. So far as he is constrained or guided, it must be only in aid of his own freedom and in the direction of his own best possibilities.

UNIFORMITY IN PRINCIPLES

To help everyone gain his best chance, we must know what we are after. We must have a better understanding of the principles which we are trying to make good.

Every child, everyone in the land, must be recorded, to the end that his rights may be assured.

Everyone must have an elementary education, and before everything else an elementary education must mean the power to read and write and master the simple processes of mathematics.

The school must have equal respect for every manner of work. It must know that without application and endurance there is no hope, and that with them there will be some result of just as much moment as any other result which it might have gained.

The work of the school must have definite aim, and its ends must be assured. There is too much scattering. Before a child is permitted to leave the school it must be known that he has a definite possession which can never be taken from him. The schools must carry him as far as, under the conditions of his life, the schools can be of help to him.

The schools must train for every vocation for which there is any reasonable demand, and the child must be under the control of the school until there is ground for confidence that he has some need of finding his chance, some desire and application, some fitness for employment which will enable him to begin to earn a living.

The child must be allowed his free election of vocation after he has acquired the simpler work of the elementary schools. But he must know that he is not to drop out and not to be allowed to waste his time, at least until he reaches an age or a situation where the case is apparently helpless and hopeless.

The work of each school, being simpler and more definite, must be more intensive. Unnecessary time is consumed. It is worse to waste the time of a child than to take away any other right that he may have. He must get the larger part of his culture thru his work. It will be a finer and truer culture. Culture that comes thru mere instruction is well, but it is secondary and must wait upon the essentials. The same with mere information. If he has the elements which give him the power to get it, he will get it when he needs it or when he wants it. If he does not, the public cannot help it.

All the children of the United States are entitled to be taken out of the list of the illiterates and to be taught to do some definite thing, and to be made to know that their success depends upon their doing it better than others do. Then the unexpected and the surprising successes will doubtless be multiplied, and whether they are or not, the nation will be the stronger for it.

DIVERSITY IN MEANS AND METHODS

With some reasonable agreement about the measure of opportunity which the educational activities of the nation are bound to hold out to every American child, and with our abundant knowledge of what is going on in every part of the country, there will be all of the uniformity desirable if we encourage the freest diversity and individuality in means and methods. It is not necessary that the schoolhouses be of the same height and color. They do not all have to have heating plants that balk when called upon for special effort, and forbid an open window at all times. The schools do not all need to have identical courses of study, and there is no reason why they should use the same books. The teachers need not have the same convolutions in their brains that have formed in the brains of those physiological psychologists who fall down in

their physiology and get beside themselves over their psychology. It is of less moment what one knows when he enters a school than what he knows when he leaves it. It is enough if he has the power and the will to do the work. With some reasonable promise of that, he is to have his chance. The most unpromising freshman often develops into the particular star of the Commencement morning. There are to be standards, but they are to be the standards of individual institutions. The degrees of all of the colleges ought never to be expected to represent the same thing. We are to prevent fakes and frauds. It is well for a state to protect academic terms from such abuse by fixing the attributes which an institution must have before it can hold itself out to be a high school, an academy, a college, or a university. But being within the legal requirements, and being honest, it must find its own level and abide its own doings. The pupil, the student, and the teacher, are to use the means they have or can get, in their own way, to their own advantage, and to the common good.

The glory of the American school system is in the fact that it is not to be fixed, and shaped, and determined, and limited by a minister, but by a representative government answerable to a pure democracy; it is in its flexibility, its adaptability to all conditions. This leads some to confuse the process of determination with the process of carrying out what has been determined upon; or, in other words, to confuse legislative with executive functions. We are to develop policies which hold out to everyone his chance, by the use of the best means we have, and having established the policies and appropriated the means, we are to exercise whatever of the common power may be needed to accomplish the designated ends. But we are never to forget that the worst results are likely to flow from adopting methods which cannot be adapted, and from setting up instrumentalities which do not fit situations. The sanguine temperament, the prevailing ambition of the people, may be relied upon to do its part; but if temperament and ambition be unwisely played upon, there is danger of unfortunate result. The information we have of world-education, the intellectual and physical work we have to do, the logical adaptation of people to work, the free chance for all, the obligation to reduce illiteracy to an absolute minimum and see that no child is robbed of his right, and the natural rather than the forced flow of our national life, will combine to produce an educational system which is much broader at the base than at the top, which makes the most of the child and accomplishes some definite thing for him, which makes him know that he must work, aids his choice and fits him for his best vocation, and carries him as far as he wants to go in acquiring a balanced conception of life, as well as in mastering what is in the books.

CONCLUSION

I recall a good story which President Roosevelt tells upon himself, in one of his hunting tales, of an exasperating experience with black-tail deer. At the sunset of a weary day a fine buck appeared at an opening in the woods at the sky-line of a mountain, and within fair rifle shot. He fired both barrels

and says he heard his guide heave a sigh as the deer threw up his head and trotted off unhurt. Directly another appeared at the same opening, and he grasped another rifle and gave him the possibilities of two more shots. The guide sighed clear to his toes as the deer bounded away unhurt. In disgust which words could not express the two mounted their horses and started for the cabin. After going a mile, the guide gathered his courage to offer consolation. "Never mind! I s'pose ye done the best ye could." "No! I'll be blanked if I did," was the answer. The expletive was justified. It was not the best that he could do. He has made few so bad, and many better, shots since. If we admit that we have made many mis-shots, let us believe that they have not been the best that we can do.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL IN TRAINING FOR RIGHT CONDUCT

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Few people think. Man is born into a religious, social, and political world. If his mother be a Presbyterian, he is a Presbyterian; if he is born under the Stars and Stripes he is predestined to believe in the equality of man and to shout lustily with his fellow-countrymen the battle-cry of freedom. In reality he is no more a Presbyterian than a Methodist, no more a free man than a slave. He is merely living in the atmosphere of Presbyterianism and his mental action—such as it is—is conditioned by the significance of the flag which floats over him. There may be occasional slight movements of the gray matter, but if snapshots of brain formation could be taken from time to time thruout life the pictures would be almost identical, for the activity in the brain cells is never sufficient to change the pattern of their arrangement. Whose fault is it? Largely yours and mine. But we educators think! Some of us, yes, and so did the mediaeval philosophers when they disputed about how many angels could stand on the point of a needle.

It has frequently been pointed out that the progress of civilization is not marked by a steadily upward curve, but that there are great heroic periods in which such powerful thinking has been done that the very foundations of society have trembled and the solidly built pillars and posts of accumulated thought have swayed and fallen like slender twigs. Invariably this tremendous upheaval has been the work of the few, and immediately these periods have been followed by an almost slavish idolatry of the many to the "new thought," or what is worse, by an ignorant unemotional acceptance of it as truth. Always miniature heroic periods are in progress. Always there are the few who are thinking and the many who are thought for. We educators who, like all the rest of the world, are thus classified into thinkers and thought for, fall into our places naturally, and it seems to us logically, with a certain calm conviction that because it always has been so these positions are a part

of the eternal fitness of things. We do not seem to realize that it is our function not only to think, but to think to some purpose, that purpose being the production of thought in others, whoever the others may be. If these statements are accepted even thinking educators may be thoughtless. Neither the best school principals nor the most brilliant and painstaking superintendents are altogether thoughtful; if they were they would provoke more disputation and receive less adoration.

But altho it is true that as a rule few people think, on the other hand there may be conditions physical, civic, or religious that stir into violent action even the most sluggish intellects; and then we have whole communities thinking out loud. Oregon, occupied during the last three years with the prosecution of those concerned in the gigantic land frauds of the Northwest, has succeeded in convicting more than two dozen men, among them a United States attorney, a United States senator, and a congressman. Oregon today is *thinking out loud.* And San Francisco, dearly beloved city of our Golden West, laid waste by earthquake, girt round by fire, and betrayed by her own self-chosen rulers and trusted citizens; San Francisco, the proud warden of the Golden Gate, bowed down with sorrow, humiliated, trembling with indignation, but refusing to be conquered by any combination of circumstances; San Francisco, aroused, alert, sadder and wiser; San Francisco, too, is *thinking out loud.* And all the world is listening, but, unfortunately, not to learn. San Francisco is not a bad city—as cities go; she is better today than she has been for long years; far better than other cities which have not yet begun to think. There is more interest in civic affairs, there are more "good citizens" in California today than there have ever been in the course of her history, because there are more people thinking. Bartly P. Oliver, foreman of the grand jury that indicted Abraham Ruef, the city boss, and Eugene Schmitz, the corrupt mayor, and a long list of business men and city officials for extortion, said to Lincoln Steffens:

> I don't know whether this work will have done any good to San Francisco . . . . but it has done good to us jurymen. I wish the law required twenty or fifty thousand men on a grand jury. If that many citizens could sit there as we have, see what we have seen, hear what we have heard, they would all become good citizens; citizens first, I mean, and business men and heads of families second. They would save San Francisco.

Not fifty or even twenty thousand men sat on this grand jury, but hundreds of thousands of men followed with keen interest the problems with which the grand jury were confronted, and, in following, did, perhaps, the most profound thinking of their lives. The result is even now apparent. San Francisco, knowing her sins; San Francisco, confessing her sins; San Francisco, publishing her sins; San Francisco, repenting her sins; San Francisco, atoning for her sins, is a better city to-day—God bless her!—than she has ever been before.

Let us be fair. All of our great cities are full of corruption. Not one of them would "show up" well under the searchlight of a Heney, a Langdon, a

Burnes, and Spreckels. And smaller communities are not better; they are merely untried.

What has all this to do with the subject under discussion—The Function of the Schools in Training for Right Conduct? Everything. These cities and communities are made up of men and women trained in our schools. There is no evading the question of our responsibility. To be sure we can dodge like cowards behind the high board fence of excuse and lay a large part of the blame upon the home, the church, the press, the stage, the saloon, and the community at large. These excuses may be valid enough, but it is not "good form" for us to make them. The individual continually explaining why he has not done and why he cannot do as his reason and conscience dictate is mentally and morally dead, and it would be better for the world if he were physically dead; there would be more room left for the doers. What is true of an individual in this respect is true of an institution. It goes without saying that there are excuses to be made for the failure of the schools to produce true citizens, but in the name of all that is in good taste, let us not be the ones to mention them.

The public school, then, to whom the state entrusts its children for training, is not succeeding in the *moral* training. What are we doing to do about it? That is what we have met here from all parts of our country to consider. That is what we are here to *think* about.

We cannot hope to do much in a few short hours, but may we not search out some of the vulnerable points in our teaching and aim our arrows at those points? May we not offer one or two suggestions as to method of procedure?

A. In the first place it will be necessary to agree upon a few fundamental principles. Training for right conduct means training for good citizenship, and training for good citizenship means training for social efficiency. There seems to be absolute unanimity of opinion among those who have given the subject most thought that social efficiency is the meaning of all education. All that the boy is in school, all that the man is in the world means social efficiency or social unfitness. Schoolmen, philosophers, psychologists, and sociologists are agreed upon this major premise.

B. This being true it follows that enormous emphasis should be put upon training for right conduct and that this emphasis to be most valuable should be given by the right people, at the right time, and in the right way.

1. *Who are the right people to train our boys and girls in good citizenship?* Anyone of average intelligence who devotes even an hour to the answer of this question, dwelling upon it earnestly, honestly, and thoughtfully, will know that the right people are not necessarily the holders of teachers' certificates, or the proud possessors of normal-school diplomas, or of college degrees, even if the latter contain the euphonious letters M.A. or Ph.D. We spare you analysis of the ideal teacher for the training of citizens, not, to be honest, from lack of time, but from lack of ability to do the subject justice. A few points, however, might profitably be mentioned. First, then, our ideal teacher

knows about things, knows a little about many things, and a good deal about one or two. Secondly, the right man to be a trainer of American citizens is the one who voluntarily chooses to be a teacher; he has not been driven into the teaching ranks by force of circumstances, because he has failed to make a successful lawyer, or because he hopes to make one. He is proud of his calling and embraces every opportunity to advance it. He thinks more deeply and more often upon the meaning of education than upon the logical sequence of a course of study. He is sympathetic in his attitude toward children, remembers how it felt to be a boy, and believes in what Chester W. Rowell calls "the glory of youth." He is so happy in his work that he frequently forgets he is earning a salary. He has not obtained his position by a "pull," nor does he countenance this method of placement in others. Being a citizen in a democracy he does not take upon himself the prerogatives of an autocrat. And last, but not least, he is not merely a schoolman, but a man among men, interested in the general welfare of the community, taking his part actively and thoughtfully in the duties of citizenship, never neglecting his obligation to vote for the best man. This last point is important. How can he hope to impress upon his boys the responsibilities of citizenship if he himself is indifferent to one of its most binding obligations? It is his very participation in the civic problems of his country that makes him a fit interpreter of the fundamental principles underlying a democracy. Wide awake and patriotic himself, he discusses with his boys and girls the essentials of good government in the home, the school and the state, enriching the discussions with concrete current illustrations that he can obtain only in active political life and vitalizing them by an enthusiasm, a personality, if you please, that no amount of poring over facts in the latest text books could give him. Therefore, in behalf of the state, we beseech you, principals and superintendents here assembled, when placing men in your schools to select big, honest, clean, whole-souled *voting* men.

Now let us be consistent. Statistics show that only 24 per cent. of the teachers of our public schools in the United States are men. In the New England states the proportion is much lower, about 8 per cent., and there is a steady decrease from year to year thruout the country. About three-fourths of the training then for social efficiency or, in other words, for good citizenship, must be done by women. Where are they to drink from the fountain of interest? How are they to be brought to think deeply upon questions of civic purity? How are they to widen their personalities? Where are they to obtain that subtle but essential qualification of a good teacher, prestige? Do we not say over and over that impression without expression is futile, that patriotic emotion without action is despicable? Obviously then it were better for women teachers to have no impressions regarding civic questions and no emotions. You may have observed a few such women in our public schools. Would it be surprising if it were found that they were the first to find the weight of their souls unbearable and to part company with them

at the schoolroom door; if they were the first to become infected with what Dr. Frederic Burk, in a recent essay, aptly, if somewhat inelegantly styles "the dry rot"? But this we know, present conditions of political life do not tend to make women the most intelligent citizens possible, yet women do the greater part in training citizens.

2. *Training for right conduct in the schools should be given at the right time.*—What is the right time? At a superficial glance this seems easy to determine. Beginning with the child's entrance into the schoolroom, it ends with his departure. This statement rolls off the tongue too glibly to carry with it much meaning. It is one of those dangerous ready-made, thought-destroying propositions. If the aim in training for right conduct is to be social efficiency, then its expression is manifold. Shall all the forms of conduct be taught to all of the children all of the time, or is there a development and growth in the moral life corresponding to that which conditions our action as regards the child's physical and mental life? Undoubtedly there is, and tho here is a great field for legitimate child-study, yet enough has been done to establish the general law and to give us a basis for thoughtful procedure. To attempt to give to the six-year-old child the principles of good government underlying school and family life would be nonsense, while it would be equally foolish to expect of an upper-grade boy or girl the same kind of obedience exacted of the first-grader. The adolescent period so turbulent and sensitive requires the most skillful and delicate treatment, and calls into play the teacher's widest experience of life, understanding of literature, and sympathy with youth. Each group or grade of children has its own moral problems, and each has its right time for their solving. No human being, save the teacher herself, can tell just when this time is to come, but she should know what her special problems probably will be and that there *is* a right time for their solving, and should educate herself to recognize the time and to be ready to meet it. The great point is to choose the time when the children can best be led to *think* upon the problem.

But aside from the fact that children can be grouped in the large, according to their mental development, and trained in right conduct, there are those who need individual attention. The right time for them is not in the presence of the group. Indeed most children need private conferences oftener than we realize. The mere separation from the others, and the setting aside of a special time for a personal interview emphasizes the importance of the subject, tends to arouse deeper thought, and impresses the child with the delicate feeling of the teacher. No one understands this selecting of "the psychological moment" better than the wise and tender mother of whom the heroine of *The Widow O'Callaghan's Boys* is an excellent example. You remember how, wishing to get the willing consent of her eldest son, Pat, to a plan, upon the success of which depended the general welfare of the family, but which demanded on his part a real sacrifice, she waited impatiently until evening when the other children were in bed, soliloquizing during the day as follows:

There's toimes to be spakin' and toimes to be kapin' still! Niver a word must I be sayin' till the rest of 'em's abed, and it's hard waitin', so it is. It's my belafe that's what makes some b'ys so unruly—takin' 'em at the wrong toime. Sure and b'ys has their feelin's loike the rest of the world. Spake to 'em by their lone silves when you've aught to say to 'em. There's niver a man of 'em all, not even Gineral Brady himself, would loike bein' bawled at in a crowd about somthin' that needed thinkin' over.

She speaks truly; if we want right conduct, we must first obtain the "thinkin' over," but too often the being "bawled at in a crowd" destroys the "thinkin' over," at least of the question under consideration; it has been known to start a very vigorous line of thought, however, concerning the boy's opinion of the teacher.

There is another sort of right time, a time conditioned by the needs and ideals of the age. The twentieth century has its own special virtues and vices and sins, the product of new desires, temptations, opportunities, and responsibilities. Our moral catechism, while founded upon the everlasting principles of brotherly love, is a much larger volume than is found between the covers of the little primer of *Rules for Righteousness*, written when life was largely restricted to the experiences to be found in a community bounded by a day's journey on horseback, and in which all the inhabitants lived the simple life. New conditions are arising every day, tending more and more to confuse the thoughtless and weak-minded as to what *is* right conduct, and giving opportunities for the socially unfit to riot *ad libitum* in selfishness, greediness, criminal negligence, thievery, and even murder. Partnerships of good and bad qualities, of right and wrong action in the same individual, definite partnerships entered into for the purpose of "getting on" in the world are among the most prominent evils of our day. A man entering into such a partnership with himself makes his virtues the tools of his vices. Smug respectability, certain forms of generosity, and even of fair dealing, temperate habits, and exemplary conduct as regards family life leave a man free to exercise his ingenuity in the adulteration of foods, the erection of unsanitary buildings, the manufacture of unsafe machinery, the slavery of little children, the obtaining of special business privileges, the exemption from legitimate taxation, the bribery of public officials, in other words leave him free to lie, to steal, and to murder. Professor Edward A. Ross in his brave little book, *Sin and Society*, describes for us most graphically this new American variation. He names him the criminaloid, and he tells us why we suffer him. He says:

The real weakness in the moral position of Americans is not their attitude toward the plain criminal, but their attitude toward the quasi-criminal. The shocking leniency of the public in judging conspicuous persons who have thriven by anti-social practices is not due, as many imagine, to sycophancy. . . . . It is due neither to sycophancy or unthinking admiration of success, but to perplexity.

If this countenance of immorality by the people is due to their perplexity; if the state is calling at this special period of its history for civic reformers, then the school must clarify thought and must answer the call. It must send out citizens prepared to meet the criminaloids; sane, clear-headed

fellows, honest and fearless as our Heney, who will tear away the masks of these "grafters" and reveal the hideousness beneath. But the state needs not only educated leaders, but also educated followers. Not every boy and girl can be trained for leadership, but we can at least do much to relieve the public mind of perplexity. We can teach our children to look behind masks and to call things by their right names. We can substitute knowledge for ignorance, certainty for doubt, clearness for confusion. We can teach our children to *think* upon the problems that need to be solved in their own day.

And this brings us to one of the most difficult details of the subject with which the school is confronted: that of the time for the teaching of right conduct in relation to the daily school program. Shall it have a fixed place among the other school disciplines, or shall it be taught incidentally as occasion suggests or demands? It is, of course, true that we should train for social efficiency all the day through, that each subject is but a means to this end, otherwise we may very well be educated (if one may thus misuse the word) criminals instead of citizens. This utilization of subject-matter selected apparently merely to give mental and physical efficiency in the interests of social efficiency is admirably treated in several books, published within the last five years, and it is to be hoped that teachers may not only read but heed what is said therein. The teacher who even attempted the utilization of subject-matter selected apparently merely to give mental and physical efficiency for the teaching of social efficiency could not fail to keep before her own mind, at least, the true goal of education and that would be a great point gained; for the truth is that the rank and file of our teachers, while acknowledging as a logical deduction the supremacy of right conduct as above what passes for right arithmetic or right geography, yet do not demonstrate their so-called belief in actual practice. It is probably partially due to the fact that only the best teachers are able to teach in this way. The others moralize, and—the sentence is stronger unfinished.

All teachers possess, however, that evasive, unanalyzable characteristic called personality, and the teacher's personality is with the children literally all the time, leading always toward or away from right conduct. Far more of a point should be made in the education and selection of teachers of personality. Personalities can be strengthened, widened, and made beautiful. Trainers of teachers are much to blame when they graduate weak, narrow, ugly personalities. But, taking our schools as we find them today, taught by men and women intellectually brilliant, average, and dull, technically trained, self-trained, and untrained, earnest and careless, enthusiastic and blasé, shall we recommend that training for right conduct have a definite place upon the school program; shall it be taught incidentally or shall it be taught directly at all?

To hark back to one of the first conclusions of this paper, the schools at large are not making a success of their training in right conduct. We *must* do something about it.

Mr. Frank Cramer in his admirable essay in "Moral Training in the Public Schools," says:

> Nothing like a general effort has been made as yet to formulate the requirement that can properly be laid upon the schools, or the materials and methods with which to meet them. We are standing now with our feet in the edge of the water and shivering, like the naked little boy, more from fear than cold, deterred from going back by shame and from going in by the goose-flesh conviction that we shall never be able to do it. . . . . Swimming is best learned by going into deep water. . . . .Though we are still very far from a general agreement about what things ought to be taught, how they should be taught and the order of teaching in our purely intellectual work of the schools, yet enormous progress has been made.

The inference is, of course, that the same progress will be made in moral training if only we once seriously begin. And we *must* begin with the same solemn earnestness with which we begin any great undertaking. If only we will listen to the warnings of the state, if only we will watch those who are fighting the great social evils of the world, if only we will observe the sad confusion and perplexity in the minds of our well-meaning citizens, if only we will follow the lowering of our business ideals and their influence upon our politics, surely we who have so much opportunity and ability for the righting and preventing of these wrongs for the state will not dare to wait. Of course we shall make mistakes, of course we shall make failures; but the trend of the curve will be upward. We ought long ago to have taken definite action regarding training for right conduct. When we *are all thinking*, then the actual work will begin. What I mean is to make it a great national movement, for no one is so ignorant as not to know that heroic work is being done here and there throughout the country and especially in the great cities; but it needs big supplements, the inspiration of big thought and the strength of mighty co-operation.

A form of *incidental* training for right conduct—if training it can be called and if right conduct it can be called—has always existed even in the worst of our public schools, the conduct being merely action conformable to the will of the teacher in order that his work might be made easier, and the training therefore being appeal to fear of bodily pain. The incidental method, then, tho radically different in character today, has the sanction of custom behind it, and doubtless some of the very best training for right conduct in our schools today is done in this way. Education itself is sometimes defined as ability to see and to seize opportunity; and the thoughtful teacher, alert, wise and tactful, seeing and seizing the incidents of the everyday life and turning them to account for the inculcation of principles of government and norms of conduct is fulfilling her duty nobly. The careless teacher, on the other hand, allows the "psychological moment" to pass by unheeded, crowded out by the petty details of the day's work—examinations, promotions or the best method of teaching partial payments. The dull teacher is blind—she does not see the opportunity; the blasé teacher is indifferent—she does not seize the opportunity, and the untrained teacher is crude and deals with cases requiring the

utmost delicacy so hurriedly and thoughtlessly that she does more harm than good. Indeed, the greatest adverse criticism to be brought to bear upon this method is that it does not require sufficient thought on the part of the teacher. Even those who use it most successfully are apt to depend entirely upon the thought furnished by previous experience vitalized by the inspiration of the moment; but too often this inspiration, being merely the excitement of a passing emotion, containing no life-giving quality and ready-made thought, even if it be one's own, is deadening.

The incidental method of training for right conduct cannot be universally accepted as all-sufficient, and a definite portion of the day must be set aside—perhaps the first part of a morning hour before fatigue sets in—for the thoughtful discussion of ethical questions. What ethical questions? The teacher, aided by the principal or superintendent, must decide. The discussions must never take the form of sermons, nor should the subjects for discussion be made to order for the teacher, following a logical chart or scheme. That is the way we used to teach the other school subjects until psychology and sociology taught us better. Formalism is the death-knell of originality or enthusiasm. I know a city in which the superintendent prides himself upon the fact that at any selected hour of the day every child of a certain grade is being taught exactly the same lesson; if it be the arithmetic hour the children are solving the same problems; if the language hour they are learning the same poem; if reading, they are reading the same selection, etc., etc. Could any device serve better to take the sparkle, the initiative, the very thought out of a teacher? These discussions then must not be logically blocked out; on the other hand they must not be haphazard and must fit in with the life of the child. They must be those that in general appeal to a particular group of children. They must meet the needs of the age. They must not be too hard or too easy of solution, for above all other virtues they must possess that of arousing and sustaining thought. A teacher's notebook for the jotting down of subjects based upon concrete instances awaiting their future arrangement is helpful. But it is not proposed at this point to enter into a consideration of the method of conducting these conferences, but rather to suggest that we decide to give some definite portion of the day to this work. To be sure, the careless teacher will be careless, the dull teacher will be dull, and the blasé teacher, blasé. The regularity of the discussions will, however, serve to emphasize the carelessness, the dullness, and the blasé attitude. It will bring these facts insistently to the attention of the superintendent and of the community, and may result in the removal of the inefficient. On the other hand, the necessity for having something to say will force the lazy teacher to think, the mediocre teacher to think more deeply, while the wise and thoughtful teacher will be given time to do artistically what she has been hurriedly pushing thru "between classes," and best of all, it will allow time for the children to think, to weigh evidence, to study conditions, to suspend judgments, to clear up perplexities.

3. *Training for right conduct should be done in the right way.*—If we could be sure of training for right conduct being done by just the right people and at just the right time—in every sense of the words right time—then the right way would follow logically, and we should be living in Utopia. But America is still some distance from Utopia; we cannot be certain of either the people or the time, so it is necessary to speak of ways of training.

In what ways then shall we train for right conduct? There is time to consider but a very few, but the training should be

1. In a way to arouse and sustain thought.
2. In a way to produce excitement.
3. In a way to stimulate *good* action, rather than to emphasize bad.
4. In a way to develop proper humility.
5. In a way to develop responsibility for the welfare of others.
6. In a way to form standards of conduct applicable anywhere.
7. In a way to *produce* right conduct.

1. *In a way to arouse and sustain thought.*—Few people think. The schools are to blame. The great need of our day is clearness of vision. Not many people aspire to be "arch fiends," yet a goodly number attain that distinction. Hiding under the cloak of respectability, conforming to many of the accepted principles of good citizenship, probably temperate in habits—that was one of Abraham Ruef's striking virtues—clean physically, generous to the few, providing liberally for the family, loyal to the clan, the criminaloid's ambition is ever to make a good appearance among his fellows, to bear a good name, to be known as a good citizen. Even his crimes are disguised under the term "business irregularities." Suggestion is a potent factor in conditioning mental processes, and one can readily understand how such a man may not only persuade the world but even himself that he is really a pretty good fellow. Do we find anything analogous to this in our schools? Some of the most popular high school fellows "crib," that is, lie; "swipe" anything from a physics' folder to a freezer of ice cream, that is, steal; sign their parents' names to letters of excuse, that is, commit forgery; evade or defy laws made for the public good, that is, sow the seeds of anarchy. The boys do not commit these crimes in order to be bad, but rather in a spirit of daring or bravado. They do not look upon their misdeeds as crimes; under their new and catchy slang names, they are mere school "irregularities." What can we do about it? Suggestion is a potent factor in the conditioning of mental processes; it may be made to function for good quite as well as for bad conduct. Suppose at the time set aside for the training in good citizenship (one advantage of the selected time as opposed to the incidental method is that the questions involved can be approached more easily indirectly), suppose at this period a wise teacher could bring before his class the larger questions of business ethics and political honor in a series of inspiring, intellectual, serious, but not sentimental talks, illustrating freely from current events, and delicately carrying the discussion sometimes into the very border land of

school life, leading the class to think and letting them draw their own conclusions. His work would do much to dispel the clouds of ignorance in which boy mind is enveloped. I am thoroly convinced that if boys could be made to see that their "irregularities" were crimes they would not commit them. In a certain sense these sins against society are far more dangerous for society than the more personal vices of drinking and smoking, e.g., to which the schools have given always a good deal of emphasis. Heaven forbid that I should plead that our boys should not be wisely instructed regarding the effects of these drugs upon the growing body; but there are other worse vices to which we seem almost indifferent. The honest working man who takes a glass of beer with his luncheon is a prince of purity compared with a man like Abraham Ruef, even if the latter should never have tasted a drop of liquor in his life. These beginnings of sins—these sins themselves—committed in school life are sins against society, and our children must be led to *think* about them in this light.

2. *In a way to produce excitement.*—Training in right conduct must not be tame. Undoubtedly one of the greatest incentives to crime is the excitement involved. It must be interesting as mere intellectual gymnastics to lay big schemes of any sort. The scientist has his theories, the poet his dreams, the business man his plans, and the politician his diplomacies, and there must be great pleasure in watching their development, and enormous excitement in overcoming obstacles to their successful achievement. The fact that his schemes are laid for the purpose of duping and defrauding people falls into insignificance in the mind of the criminaloid when he considers the pleasure to be derived from their skillful manipulation, and final consummation. Even lesser crimes partake of the same excitement. The sneak thief who deftly and perhaps artistically removes a man's watch from his waistcoat pocket undiscovered, must experience a thrill that is akin to that of the valiant army officer skilled in military tactics crawling stealthily upon the enemy to suprise them unawares. Mentality is all of a kind; it is only the purpose for which mind functions that differentiates a saint from a sinner. Judge Lindsey tells us that he himself was tempted as a boy to rob a hen roost, not for the sake of the possession of the fowls in question, but largely from the excitement in it, and he frankly adds that he was preserved from the fulfilment of the act not by a realization of its wickedness but by an overpowering feeling of cowardice. Most of the vandalism committed on holidays and after school is due to this desire for something to happen. A great deal of the attempt to evade rules and law is merely the uncontrolled temptation to match mind with mind and see who wins out.

Our training for right conduct ought to take on a more lively, attractive aspect. Being good and doing good is made too tame. In the vernacular of the child, "There's nothing doing." There is no reason at all why the exercise of good conduct should not often be very exciting. To use but one of many illustrations, probably the element of surprise in all schemes is one

of the most pleasurable. Let us have surprises, then. "Not possible," you say, "in school life?" Then socialize the school life and make it possible. At Christmas time, Thanksgiving time, St. Valentine's Day, May Day, and on various other holidays rather elaborate surprises can be arranged for; but all thru the days opportunity may be given. Invalid friends can be surprised with gifts made in school, parents and other relatives can be surprised on their birthdays, absent classmates may be written surprise letters—often they are surprising indeed. Literary, musical, and dramatic programs, themselves intrinsically exciting, planned with the utmost secrecy, may cause any amount of pleasure to the surprisers and to the surprised. Sometimes a class luncheon is planned to be eaten on the lawn or a "banquet" in the hall, and the principal is supposed to be greatly impressed as well as enormously astonished when he discovers that the banqueters have provided not only edibles but *toasts*. These surprises give rise to a good deal of scheming, and active minds are kept busy outwitting others equally as active; but mentality is functioning in the right direction; for the aim of those who are scheming is to give pleasure and not pain to those whom they succeed in outwitting. There is nothing wrong in scheming if its methods are square and its purpose high. As we say in San Francisco, "It takes a Heney to outwit a Ruef."

3. *In a way to stimulate good rather than to emphasize bad action.*—Training for right conduct should be affirmative rather than negative. One of the dangers of the incidental method of moral training is that the incident chosen is almost invariably the commission of a wrong act which the teacher tries to bring the children to see and to acknowledge is wrong, and in which, therefore, they must not indulge. Subtle suggestion is not so easy for that reason. The class know from the beginning that the incident is the text, and that its treatment is to be a good deal like a sermon. Then, too, the negative character of the incident emphasizes the everlasting "don't," always depressing and sometimes demoralizing.

But if there were a time for it the teacher could speak frequently of the *good* deeds going on in the world, in the country, the state, the city, and sometimes in the school. I say sometimes in the school, because there is always danger of making children self-conscious and of developing not good citizens but goody-goody prigs. Again sensitive children like the Widow O'Callaghan's Pat hate "bein' bawled at" before others quite as much when they have done right as when they have done wrong. As a type of what seems to be a wise use of an occasional emphasis of good conduct in the school, let me quote from a newspaper clipping the following item. I omit the name of the place and the school. "The Grammar School graduates of the X Grammar School, now members of the Y High School, who have received straight "A" records for this last month's work (allow me to say in passing that in this high school there is no undue stress put upon marks, A being, however, evidence to the child that the work outlined is being well done) were tendered a reception and banquet by the grammar grades of their former

school. Toasts were given and resolutions drawn up expressing the children's pride in these high standings attained by their former classmates . . . . ."

Pride in the honestly acquired successes of others and expressive appreciation of it tends to inculcate brotherly love, one of the chief factors in social efficiency.

4. *In a way to develop proper humility.*—Much stress in all books upon moral training is laid upon the cultivation of self-reliance and self-respect. In doing this care must be taken to avoid what might be called self-sufficiency. In the adolescent period boys and girls tend to become laws unto themselves; not only do they resent restriction because it interferes with their desires, but they chafe at it because they do not believe in its necessity. They feel perfectly sure of themselves; they trust implicitly and unquestioningly their own judgments; they are abnormally self-reliant.

Small doses of simple psychology for these young egotists prove effective. If not able to take up the abstract question of what mind is, they can, at least, know some of its laws and how its working is conditioned. Nothing fills us with greater humility than the fact that we cannot always trust our judgments, that tho they may be true in the sense that with the apperceptive basis furnished they could not be otherwise, yet nevertheless other judgments based upon a richer experience may more nearly reach actual truth. When once this fact has been grasped—and it does not take long to teach it, because psychology, new and mysterious, is always interesting to children, they will be found much more open to conviction and will even voluntarily concede points of whose truth they acknowledge they are not convinced. This concession is by no means to be confused with blind obedience. It is the voluntary suspension of one's own judgment until a broader basis for forming it can be acquired, meantime trusting in the wisdom of more-experienced friends. Sometimes this humility has to be taught quite early in life, and, if traced to its source, self-sufficiency is found here also to be due largely to lack of knowledge.

But children must learn that, if they cannot be brought to see the right as we see it, to mistrust their judgments and to rely for the time being, at least, upon ours. We ourselves do likewise when confronted with questions too difficult to be answered by our weak intellects, as Professor Barnes so well points out in his latest book, *Where Knowledge Fails*. We stop trying to know what baffles our intellect, and "where knowledge fails" give ourselves trustingly into the friendly arms of faith. Surely no one will deny that a certain amount of humility might very well be made an influence in the conduct of the average American youth: " 'tis a consummation devoutly to be wished," but can never be accomplished by unceasing reiterations as to the crudity and foolish characters of his judgments. He must be taught to mistrust them and to have faith in ours.

5. *In a way to develop responsibility for the welfare of others.*—Much of the so-called discipline in school could be avoided if boys and girls were im-

pressed with a sense of responsibility toward their schoolmates. For instance, the boy who disturbs his class by foolish pranks, who will not settle down to serious work, because it is more interesting to act the clown while the class applauds, will be greatly benefited, and the characters of the class greatly strengthened, if they, realizing their responsibility for their neighbor's conduct, refuse to be amused by his silly or even witty tricks. Children should know that it is the privilege of boys and girls to attend school, and that only those are suspended or expelled whose bad conduct is influencing others unduly. If now they refuse to be influenced they may be the means of winning back into the ranks of good citizenship a fellow-being who otherwise may be forever an outcast from society. Too often the incorrigible is actually *made* by the attitude of those who not only suffer but applaud his doings. There are schools, however, in which the pupils are so interested in the conduct of one another and feel so strongly their own responsibility concerning it that when a child must be sent away from among them, they are deeply sorry, and, blaming themselves, wonder what they might have done to prevent the necessity of the expulsion. I am not advocating children's preaching to one another, tho sometimes a child's advice is taken kindly, especially that of a girl to a boy, but we might, at least, impress the fact that enjoying and applauding bad conduct make the applauder a coworker with the wrong-doer; and—what seems to be more easily understood and accepted—lead directly to his downfall. Each one of us is his brother's keeper. This is a responsibility put upon us, God-given, not to be avoided.

6. *In a way to form standards of conduct applicable anywhere.*—A so-called well-organized school may be so well organized and so schoolish as to furnish very narrow limits within which conduct can function. That is one advantage of a self-governing system, like the George Junior Republic. There the youth meets exactly the same problems as will confront him in adult life and he early learns to see things in their true light and to call things by their right names. While this extreme discipline is not possible, or for the average American child necessary, yet it is highly desirable that our schools in their functioning more nearly approximate the activities of the larger world. Especially, it seems to me, should children be given opportunity to form ideals of business methods. Honor in business dealings is a fact upon which Americans have justly prided themselves. Children should know this and be taught to keep the standard high. Square-dealing between man and man is still, thank heaven, the American ideal.

7. *In a way to produce right conduct.* Training for right conduct, begun in thought, must end in conduct. No amount of thinking about social efficiency will necessarily result in conduct. Too often teachers leave off their training just at the point of its going into effect, e.g., perhaps some of the best work attempted in the correction of wrong conduct in the personal interview is left incomplete. The child, brought to see the error of his ways is honestly repentant, and full of good resolutions for improvement. And here the

teacher feels the climax is reached, and he is allowed to go on his way rejoicing. Probably he falls into the very same trouble the following day and perhaps the interview is repeated, ending at the same point and so on indefinitely. Bad habits are not broken by means of mere resolutions, nor are good habits formed in this way. The teacher should ask, when the point of repentance is reached, "Now what are you going to do about it?" A child accustomed to the old form of procedure in which the resolve is the end of all things is always surprised at this question, and it must be confessed, his repentance and sorrow sometimes visibly weaken when he gets the full force of the suggestion. If he is not able to block out a course of action, then the teacher must help him and help him also in keeping it. Older boys and girls are greatly interested in the psychology of habit, and are charmed to find that the laws of habit are not hard to prove, while the so-called repentant, full of empty resolves, is easily brought to a realization of their futility when he learns that "there is no more contemptible type of human character than that of the nerveless sentimentalist and dreamer, who spends his life in a weltering sea of sensibility, but never does a concrete manly act." In our training for good conduct we have put too much emphasis upon intention and resolution, and not enough upon conduct itself. We are prone, having gained the resolution, to take the conduct as a matter of course. The deduction may be logical, but it is far from psychological.

SUMMARY

1. Few people think. Failure to think rightly, failure to think deeply, failure to think at all are the great causes of social unfitness.

2. It is the function of the school to train for social efficiency. Social efficiency must be based upon thought. Much of this thought must be ethical in character. It should be directed by the right people, at the right time, in the right way.

3. Professional schools, departments of education in universities, and superintendents should strongly emphasize these points.

RECOMMENDATION

Since it is a function of the school to set standards of conduct for the citizens of the state, and since incidental training for right conduct is too uncertain a method to be generally accepted, therefore, definite training for social efficiency should have a place on the school program of each school in our country.

THE SCHOOL AS AN INSTRUMENT OF CHARACTER-BUILDING.

I. REED B. TEITRICK, DEPUTY STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, HARRISBURG, PA.

Every view of life proves the pressing need and the paramount importance of moral training. It is a subject not easy to deal with. It bristles with difficulties both real and apparent and it is certainly worthy of the earnest thought of the broadest and best-cultured minds. When in the midst of learning, dishonesty and immorality flourish, not because of education, but in spite of it, when we find men weak and irresolute where they should be strong and purposeful, when we find hands untrained to practical uses, minds unable to grasp the common wants and rights of existence, hearts in which high ideals of character

and strong impulses toward true usefulness are overswept by indifference and selfishness, the need for increased effectiveness in moral training becomes imperative.

Whether we consider essentials for character-building or observe petty weaknesses of society and flagrant violations of moral and civic law, we are lead to form these conclusions:

First, more effective moral training is imperative. Unselfishness must supplant greed for gain, purity in politics must supersede political intrigue, "honest work for an honest wage" must succeed inefficient service and doubtful business methods. The need of today in the physical world is not so much for giants as for strong, well-developed normal men. In like manner in the moral world we do not so much need heroes as men and women whose moral vitality rests upon plain living, high thinking, and righteous doing.

When we inculcate right ideas of life and labor, and a sound morality in what are termed the small affairs of life, we have laid the cornerstone of true character-building.

Second, citizenship demands moral qualifications. Personal morality is the morality of the state. The annals of a nation portray the virtues and vices of the mass of its people, and its rise or retrogression is measured by the moral standards of its citizens. The republic in its plan of self-government recognizes the necessity of individual moral excellence. Government by the people can reach its *summum bonum* only by perfecting manhood and womanhood. The secret of progress for the state, the key for all problems, the solution of all vexed questions lies in lifting up the individual.

It is not enough that the voter, juror, or public official be efficient and intelligent, he must possess the moral fiber which makes him unswervingly resolute and unimpeachably honest.

Third, the state has a right to expect moral training from all of her institutions, but especially from her public schools. Except the church, no public institution can be compared with the public school in its influence on the character of the people. The public school is the state's chief instrument for character-building. Future citizens work together side by side on the same footing in the public schools and are governed by common laws. A proportionately large number of the hours of youth are spent in school and childhood impressions are well-nigh indelible.

It is true that the primary object of the school is intellectual development and train ing, but much harm would result if brain were fed and stimulated while cunning of hand was neglected and heart and soul were left to starve.

The chief responsibility for moral training during youth undoubtedly rests with the home, but the school forms an invaluable adjunct in supplementing and fostering such culture.

We should observe the distinction between moral training and moral instruction, since moral instruction is only one of the avenues of approach to moral training. Direct moral instruction in school work is necessarily limited but the moral training afforded by the public schools is practically unbounded.

The public school, as an instrument of character-building, achieves results in two ways.

First, it may give moral instruction. Altho we recognize the truth that morality is not developed by precept or mere repetition of a code of ethical laws, it cannot be questioned that moral instruction in the public schools when timely, earnest, and possessed of living interest is most helpful in forming right habits of thinking, doing, and living. Such instruction must possess the quality of reality to be effective. It must yield both inspiration and strength to appropriate living truths. Morality held in theory is like seed without the sowing, ripening, and harvest. Whatever touches the heart influences character. "As a man thinketh in his heart, so is he."

Vast wealth of material for moral instruction is found on the pages of history and biography, and in the literature of song and story. The rise of the righteous, the triumph of truth, the power of the patriot, the devotion of lovers of liberty, the victory of the just, the tales of physical bravery and moral courage as depicted on the pages of history are all full of moral inspiration. In biography the youth may walk with the world's choicest

spirits and be inspired and ennobled by the records of their works and lives. When we consider the man, Lincoln, the fact possesses rare significance that as a boy his constant companions were the men and women of the Bible, *Pilgrim's Progress*, Shakespeare, and Plutarch. Patriotism, devotion to duty, fidelity to trust, sacrifice of self for others—all that belongs to an intense and vital spirit urged on by great desires and high moral purposes speak to the boy or girl from the records of the world's worthies. The literature of song and story is a great storehouse of food for the nurture of character, and its garners are ever overflowing with legends of the great and good deeds of all ages. Moral teaching fed from such reservoirs as these must be fruitful and will be satisfactory.

Second, it gives indirect or incidental moral training. Perhaps the school performs its highest mission as an instrument of character-building in the incidental training in morals which it affords. The common school is the best possible image of society. It is a larger edition of the home and a smaller edition of the nation. The general tone, atmosphere, and management of the school should show proper regard for moral principles and be such as to promote individual morality. Environment and atmosphere are more powerful than formulated ethics. Mental images are being formed continually; and it is not so much what is said but what *is* that leaves an indelible impression upon the child-mind. In this connection it should be observed that a good teacher is the important factor, a teacher whose personality walks beside the pupil pursuing his homeward way, sits beside him at the evening meal, pervades the atmosphere of the whole evening and draws him back in the morning with irresistible force.

Not only does the general environment of school life build and strengthen character but the actual work of the school is most helpful in this direction:

1. *Thru the branches taught.*—Not only does the mere effort required to do mental labor yield valuable moral discipline but each branch in the school course develops and strengthens certain moral attributes. Every operation in mathematical work enforces the unchangeable principle that a certain line of action is bound to bring certain results; that there is no way but the right way. This is one of the most necessary and valuable lessons in the whole field of moral culture and corresponds to that inviolable law of the spiritual realm, "whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap." Reading unfolds to the youthful mind the inspiration of the vast and varied realm of literature. Grammatical work cultivates the power of making close distinctions and logical inferences. Geography gives broad views of peoples and industries and indicates the natural causes for the lives of nations. The nature of physiological instruction is such as to teach purity in the care and use of the body and reverence for its Maker.

2. *Thru the mechanical work of the school.*—Whatever develops the personality of the child develops character. Writing and physical exercises are chiefly valuable in this line in so far as they give control of the body and direct self-activity. One of the ultimate aims of drawing is to open the mind to the beauty and significance of nature and art. Manual training aids in developing self-reliance, self-control, and a sense of power. These are elements that tend to produce strong character.

3. *Thru discipline.*—Public-school discipline is a potent factor in character-building inasmuch as it tends to establish right habits. The general organization and management of the school is such as to make such habits necessary. The mere regular and prompt attendance at school is in itself a valuable training. When there are added to this such other school requirements as system, industry, obedience, self-reliance, and regard for the rights of others, what a mine of moral training is revealed!

For character is ultimately a habit; its base rests in countless small achievements, and it rises into noble and towering strength because numberless victories are wrought into it, as the cannon captured from many foes were melted and molded together to make the majesty of the Vendome column in Paris.

Morality means strength and self-control, courage to defend the weak and to stand alone for the right, unflinching devotion, transparent truth, stainless honor. We cannot

lay too much stress upon the imperative necessity of using and keeping pure the fountain from which such far-reaching influences flow.

II. HENRY G. WILLIAMS, DEAN OF STATE NORMAL COLLEGE, OHIO UNIVERSITY, ATHENS, O.

The words "instrument" and "building" found in the subject assigned for discussion at this hour, indicate clearly *means* and *end*, or means of production and the resulting product. The implication is that *one* of the functions of the school is to produce character. I wish to go a little farther and say that the *one all-inclusive function* of the school is to produce character. It is character, in its true sense, rather than the school that is the great necessity in our moral, social, and economic life. The school is simply *one* of the means to this end. Given: A rational creature in a rational world, with an affinity of the one for the other, and time in which this rational creature may learn to know his environment, and an education will result, even without the school. But the school has been organized to aid and direct the individual in his search for such truth as will make his life efficient in its contribution to the sum total of the world's happiness and goodness; to enable him in life to do well some part of the world's work and in death to bequeath to the race some heritage of accumulated wisdom and some improvement of the world's ideals of individual and civic righteousness.

The one fundamental and ultimate aim of education is the production of a vitalizing, propelling character that shall be the exponent of the world's highest thought and achievement in its intellectual, moral, physical, ethical, and aesthetic efforts. We have been too prone to practice our profession as tho the work of the school were to be confined to intellectual achievement alone. This is the greatest weakness of the school today. Our education has become so exclusively intellectual in its scope that we have educated too many of our boys and girls away from the domain of the manual arts. If the world's work is to be done and civilization is to be advanced thru the doing of this work, we must *educate and train* men and women for social efficiency, to do their work and not leave it to the hands of the untaught, the indifferent, the time server, the non-idealistic, the individual without aspirations, the pessimistic fatalist. Man is something more than a fated fact among the blind forces of nature. Every individual possesses the consciousness of an unrealized self, and such a consciousness is as natural as the power to think, but it must be appealed to early in life and so encouraged and trained that its possessor will early realize that *he* is the architect of his own ideals. Here is a most important sphere of activity for the school. Two goals should be set up for the pupil to reach: one goal he can be led to see clearly; the other lies hidden for a time beyond it. The first goal represents the immediate aim of education—the mastery of the lesson for the day, the successful completion of a subject, or of a prescribed course of study, the possession of a coveted diploma, or the assignment to a long-sought position as the result of patient, diligent preparation. But the holder of such position has not yet begun to do the world's work. The guiding hand of the teacher is no longer felt upon his shoulder. The man with the diploma and the position is now called upon to initiate and to direct his own course. The first goal has been reached and he is now ready to pass it, but what shall be his guide, his inspiration? He finds he needs to have another goal set up before him. That goal is character—the ultimate aim of education—and if the two aims, the immediate and the ultimate, are not in direct line from the point of starting, there is something radically wrong with the system of education under which he was trained to reach that first goal. The way to run a straight line across a field is to have at least two stakes ahead of you, then keep yourself and the two stakes all in one straight line, and keep going. The ultimate stake must be over in the next field, a point which you may not expect to reach, but a point whose location is just as necessary for your guidance as any other goal in the line. That ultimate stake, or goal, is the ideal, and is an ever-advancing goal. It is too sacred to touch—you cannot reach it, altho you may reach the place where it was. It advances

as you advance. It lures you on, and if the ideal is a well-rounded, efficient character, you will always find it straight ahead. There is entirely too much zig-zagging in our methods of instruction. If our methods are sound, they will always take us straight ahead toward that great ultimate goal, character. I contend that there is little value in subject-matter alone unless by its mastery the child or the student becomes more efficient in doing something the world needs to have done. There is today much extraneous matter in the curriculum. Some of it affords merely intellectual training or discipline; some of it is nothing but mere rubblish. Unless subject-matter not only affords opportunity for mental discipline, but arouses the dormant self-hood of the child, and, as Bishop Huntington once said, "rings the rising bell in the dormitory of the soul," it has but little place in the curriculum.

Character is a growth, not a spasm, and the school must supply many of the conditions of such growth. Nothing that has the power to grow can grow *by* and *of* itself. Growth comes from within and is not imposed from without, but the conditions of growth must always be supplied by forces entirely outside of the thing that possesses the power to grow. To the seed containing the latent possibility of growth must be supplied light, heat, moisture. But all these could not put life into the seed or change the nature of that life. So it is with the child. The school must supply conditions of moral, intellectual, and physical growth. With our changing conditions in the social, political, and industrial world, we find the home is not able to give the physical and moral training it once gave. We cannot depend upon the home or upon the church to do all for the child that he must have done for him in the way of moral training. The public school *must* shoulder a large general responsibility in this direction, and thru its ethical and aesthetic training, do for the child what the home primarily *ought* to do.

Not only must the school assume much responsibility for moral instruction, but for instruction in the manual arts as well. The days of the apprentice have passed. The days when each home was a factory are gone. By the passing of these two institutions, the child has lost much of the heritage of the fathers, and is sent to school to have his intellect trained and his hands neglected. By such a system we are educating our children away from the domain of manual labor and the sense of honor in toil. The world's work must be done, and it ought to be done by those whose minds as well as hands have been trained. Unskilled and uneducated labor is a great curse to any country with an ideal. If character means a well-rounded development for efficiency in living, then our children need not only to *know* things but to know how to *do* things. Character means more than negative goodness, and more than mere morality. There are many people who live a sort of goody-goody life who do not possess much virility of character or steadiness of purpose. They are not the people who do the world's work. Those who have been taught to use their hands, to honor the worker and praise his work, are people who live a positive efficiency. They can build better cities than their fathers did and make better bread than their mothers made, because they have a sounder, more wholesome character than those who have been educated to ignore the worker and despise his work. The great masses of laboring people in this country do not want your *sympathy*, but they do want your *interest* and confidence in the *work* they are doing.

The public school must not educate the boys and girls of our land away from manual labor, but educate them *into* it. The boy who is already on the farm should be so educated that he may become a better farmer than his father ever was. Agricultural education must become an integral part of our system of public education. Manual training and home economics are more vitalizing in the production of character than cube root or the split infinitive. Character is a growth, and no man ever grew good over night—nor bad, either for that matter. The things the boy thinks and does and sees, work silently but fatefully to shape his character. *Knowledge* of the right alone will not save a man. His will and his hands must be trained to *do* the right. The personality of the teacher will also do as much as the curriculum in the building of character.

We were told yesterday by President Roosevelt that our work is a most important one, and in these words: "It is idle for any man to talk of despairing of the future of this country or feeling unduly alarmed about it, if he will come in contact with you here, and with the forces that you represent." And also in these words in that memorable address yesterday: "While your work in training the intellect is great, it is not so great as your work in training character." Let me close with the words of the same great exponent of civic righteousness, used by him in an address to the National Education Association on a former occasion:

The most characteristic work of the Republic is that done by the teachers, for whatever our shortcomings as a nation may be, we have at least firmly grasped the fact that we cannot do our part in the difficult and important work of self-government, that we cannot rule and govern ourselves, unless we approach the task with developed minds and with that which counts for more—*with trained characters.*

THE SCHOOL AND THE FAMILY

MRS. JOHN M. GLENN, BALTIMORE, MD.

(*An Abstract*)

Mrs. Glenn gave an interesting account of an examination into home conditions of school children in South Baltimore, Md. Lack of sufficient and proper food and of home care was found to furnish abundant reasons for failure to make progress in school. The examination showed that the family, not the child, is the unit, and that the family and the child must be educated together. The school, the church, the charity agent, and the health department must co-operate to educate the child as a member of the family.

There is great need for "parent-teacher associations" in every city and in the rural communities as well; in the former to mitigate the hardships of congestion; in the latter to relieve the isolation by bringing together the parents with the teachers and children in helpful social intercourse.

The great problem of child-labor which is as serious in the country and the small town as in the city, can best be solved thru parent-teacher associations in which the real needs of the child and his preparation for life are freely and fully discussed. In this way, teachers come to find out what is in the home and often to find what is really strong and good and ennobling. There should be a very positive attitude on the part of the teacher and the school toward the social life in the home and the community.

School gardening associations and schoolhouse improvement clubs all work for the betterment of the community, and these societies may find opportunities for their work in every school, whether in city or country.

A PLAN OF MORAL TRAINING

MISS JANE BROWNLEE, EDUCATIONAL LECTURER, NEW YORK CITY

[*An Abstract Prepared by the Author*]

This plan is not a theory but has been in use in one school for ten years, in another eight, and for shorter periods in other schools thruout the east, west, and northwest. It has ceased to be an experiment.

Its purpose is twofold: to awaken in the child a consciousness that *he is*,

and that he *has* a mind and a body; to arouse in him a sense of responsibility for the care of his servants.

Five or ten minutes are to be consumed at the opening of the morning session, the thought to be alluded to during the day as opportunity offers.

Thru questioning, the child is led to tell about his body: "Why do you eat food?" "Suppose you refuse to eat, what then?" "Can anybody eat your food for you?" This is the beginning in the child of self-responsibility. He learns that here is something he must do for himself just as long as he lives on earth, and very much of his success and happiness in life depend upon the way he does it.

In much the same way, he is led to see that the mind must be properly fed, lessons forming the greater part of its food.

He is then led to consider the real child, the higher self, who is master of the two servants, body and mind. The food of the real child is thoughts. Just as nobody can eat his food, or learn his lessons for him, so no one can do his thinking for him.

A subject for thought is selected, and is held by the entire school during the month. The child is taught how to put this particular thought into practice in home and school. Among the subjects used are kindness, obedience, courtesy, regard for the rights of others, truthfulness, honor, loyalty, and courage, physical and moral.

ROUND TABLES

A. ROUND TABLE OF STATE AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

TOPIC: COUNTY SUPERVISION

I. *WHAT A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT SHOULD KNOW*

J. W. OLSEN, SUPT. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION FOR MINNESOTA, ST. PAUL, MINN.

It is generally conceded that the city needs for school superintendents men of broad general scholarship, special professional preparation, executive ability, and experience varied by actual work along different lines of school life. Now, tho the fact is not so generally conceded, the country district needs supervision quite as scholarly and efficient. The county superintendent should be a man of scholarship just as broad, preparation just as professional, as that of the city superintendent, and should, moreover, be a man having an intimate acquaintance with country schools and their needs. The man who would be a county superintendent worthy the name, therefore, will take steps to equip himself with the knowledge implied by a liberal education and professional experience, plus that knowledge which is the result of practical contact with rural-school conditions.

Whether we impart knowledge simply for its own sake, or as a means to the end of right conduct in life, the imparting of it and the desire to get more of it is the largest concern of our schools. Huxley suggests that knowledge is useful in proportion as it tends to give people right ideas, which are essential to the foundation of right practice. Only temporarily and accidentally can the schools of a county get beyond the ideals of its superintend-

ent. Time and again it has been said that "the function of supervision is to realize the ideals of the supervisor." How can he properly frame a course of study that will meet the general and the individual need unless he himself possess such knowledge of science, mathematics, literature, history, philosophy, as will give to his vision a comprehensive survey of the vast field of education, making clear the relation of the part to the whole, the whole to the part, as will give him wisdom to select from this store that which will best suit those for whose education he is, as supervising officer, directly responsible? His personal equipment must be acquired by observation and experience, be assimilated thru a process of hard, conscientious thinking. Its value to those dependent on him will be measured by his intelligent, common-sense application of it to the problems confronting him. He must know, not only things, but men—and children, the coming men; must have an ideal ever before him of the manhood and womanhood into which he would have the boyhood and girlhood under his care develop. This means practical child-study, practical man- and woman-study. A friend of mine has given an excellent address on the subject, "The Best There Is in the Child; How to Find It; and What to Do with It When Found." It is part of the work of the county superintendent to find the best there is, not only in every child, but in every man and woman of his parish, and to use that best for the highest good of the whole.

He should realize that the complex civilization of the twentieth century demands more of the school than ever before; but his professional knowledge must be so rooted in the principles of sound pedagogy that he can distinguish between the fad and that movement which has in it the elements of life — which will be of real and permanent value. As the result of his own experience, he should know what is education, what is culture. He must have learned that he cannot give save from his own supply; he cannot arouse intellectual ambition nor kindle the spirit of social service, unless he have the love of knowledge and of humanity strong within him. Only life begets life. He should know that only by superior qualities of head and heart can he inspire his teachers and officers with that confidence in him which will result in cheerful following of his lead toward the larger education. To be more specific—he should, as soon as he has the superintendency in view, to the best of his ability familiarize himself with general conditions in his county so that his energies, after he goes into office, may lose no time in directing themselves toward certain special improvements.

He should know, and be able to plan for the best in rural-school architecture, including heating, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation, so that the buildings for which he is to a considerable extent accountable, may be models of usefulness, comfort, and beauty. He should be able to guide in the purchase of libraries, textbooks, and apparatus. He should know the difference between good teaching and bad—how to praise the good so that it will become better; how to transform the bad to good.

He should so know the school laws of his state, with the opinions of constituted authority as to their interpretation, that his advice in matters of difficulty will be simple, direct, and easily followed. Both in personal interview and in public address he should be able so to present the needs of his schools that parents, officers, and taxpayers will not fail to appreciate their privilege of immediate and future reform. And he should know not only what is required for his own county, but the needs of the entire state, so that he may be in a position to co-operate with the department of public instruction and other central authority in creating the best public sentiment and in securing necessary legislation.

As time passes and he learns the general need, he will also acquire considerable knowledge, more or less intimate, not only of the individual teachers of his county, but of the individual children, with their home surroundings, helpful or hindersome. If he is a college man—and the time is coming when the county superintendents will be college men—he will be in all the better position to make a plea with the parent for the broader education when the fettered abilities of the child cry out for it.

He must know, not only how to keep aloof from local animosities, but must have the wisdom of the serpent and the harmlessness of the dove for the healing of neighborhood strife. Retaining his own independence of character, he must at the same time know how to be "all things to all men." Tact does not necessarily mean insincerity. Besides making the machine run smooth, oil has a beneficial influence on the machine itself. At the same time, those county superintendents so unfortunately situated as to be in states where re-election depends upon the whim of the people should know that they cannot be leaders, cannot do their best work, without that courage that does what conscience-inspired judgment dictates, regardless of whether it wins or loses votes.

The county superintendent should be a real forerunner of progress. In an excellent address on supervision, Superintendent Babcock, of Oil City, Pa., said:

"Confronting every human being is the unknown world. To comprehend this world in terms of its own thought, is the task fate sets for every soul."

In this suggestion as to the captaincy of the individual soul lies the suggestion as to the infinite possibilities of our work—a work that does not terminate

"When the lessons and tasks are all ended,
And the school for the day is dismissed,"

but is taken up in continuous session in the university that knows no graduation.

Those who were present at the conference of a year ago will perhaps remember my pointing out that, under the prevailing system of general election, we cannot hope to attract to and retain in the county superintendency our best men and women. It is to be hoped that Commissioner Draper, Superintendents Gunnels, Nelson, and others engaged in heroic efforts to raise the country superintendency to the dignity of a profession, learned, able, permanent, and affording chance of promotion, will accomplish that for which they aim.

DISCUSSION

W. S. SUTTON, professor of education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.—County superintendents should take neither themselves nor their office too seriously, as is the general tendency of mankind. The holder of this office should possess the characteristics of a gentleman, and principle rather than the wiles of the politician should mark his conduct of its affairs. Men of conviction, and men of high educational training are now more and more to be found in the higher educational positions. The county superintendency is the strategic point in the educational system, and men of the highest degree of efficiency should be selected for this office by properly designated authority, rather than be elected by popular vote.

II. *HOW CAN TRAINED COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS BE PROVIDED AND HOW SHOULD THEY BE SELECTED?*

FASSETT A. COTTON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

I. DUTIES OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

The county is one of the important units or divisions in the state government; in some respects the most important. Being such a unit, it naturally determines many things within its borders. The county is responsible for its schools and their proper organization, the principal work of such an organization being to bring about equal opportunity for all children.

It would probably be impossible to find anyone who would maintain that the country child should not have educational opportunity equal to the best that is provided in the state. The claim for equal educational opportunity for all would doubtless receive universal sanction, and yet educational opportunity is so unequal in this country that startling injustice is done to many of our children.

With short terms and poor facilities, with inexperienced and often poorly prepared teachers overburdened with classes, and with little supervision, the country school, in its effort to train the children for country life, has not been able to compete with the city school in its effort to train the children for city life. Put six months, and in many instances a shorter term, over against nine or ten months; put a poorly located, poorly heated, poorly ventilated, poorly equipped single-room schoolhouse over against a centrally located, well-built and well-equipped, modern building; put a reasonable distance, with good walks or streets, over against a long distance with poor roads; put well-qualified, experienced teachers, with daily supervision, over against meager qualifications and inexperience; put the richness of social life, with libraries and lectures, over against a dearth of these advantages, and the real situation may in a measure be understood.

Of all the hindrances that keep the country child out of his rights the poor teacher should be placed foremost. The school exists for the children, and the school can be no more than the teacher. With a wide-awake, well-prepared teacher even the shortcomings of a limited term with poor equipment would be reduced to the minimum. Short terms, single-room schoolhouses in isolated districts, many classes and poor facilities, with good teachers, are infinitely better than the finest equipment with incompetent teachers. In the last analysis poor teaching is the chief cause of unequal educational opportunity. The supreme need, then, is a sufficient number of well-trained teachers to take charge of all our schools. It might well be contended that with such teaching as we have in many schools at present the terms are long enough and the provisions are good enough. With a real teacher in each schoolroom in this country for four or five years further argument for better things would be unnecessary.

The supreme work of the county superintendent, then, is to bring about better conditions in the country schools—to insure the country child educational opportunity equal to the best that is provided in the state. In light of the above discussion the duties of the county superintendent fall naturally under the following heads:

1. To unify the work of the county in education, including such questions as—

a) Keeping constantly before the people definite aims and methods.

b) By indicating well-worked-out courses of study for both the elementary and secondary schools.

c) By perfecting educational organizations such as township (town) and county institutes, county associations, reading circles, industrial clubs in connection with the public schools for boys and girls.

d) By bringing about close co-operation between the county farmers' institutes and the teachers of the county.

Notice that the county superintendent is to make the work a unity and not necessarily to bring about complete uniformity. He is to encourage individuality in the teacher and to commend always any power of initiative. If the work is made so uniform that the system is a machine and the teacher is merely a puppet, then it would be better to have no county superintendent of schools.

2. To set the pace or standard in educational progress—

a) By skilful leadership for a very large majority of the teachers.

b) By being a sharp goad for some of the teachers—a very small majority perhaps. Teachers need inspiration. The mere presence of an educated, professionally trained, responsible leader, with the license power is very valuable. In some states the examination of all teachers is placed with the state instead of the county superintendent. The work of selecting first-term teachers should be placed in the hands of the county superintendent, who is constantly mingling with the teachers and examining the work of the children in the upper grades of the public schools, and who, on account of such work, is better able to select beginning teachers. A county superintendent who is a close observer and a good judge of human nature can select bright boys and girls from the seventh and eighth grades in the public schools and encourage them to prepare to teach school. He can watch their careers thru these grades and the high school and from these he can select his teachers with much more intelligence than it is possible for a State Board of Education or State Superintendent of Public Instruction, or any other state authority so far removed, to select them. The county superintendent, then, should license all first-term teachers. The state should examine and license teachers after they have had one year's experience,

refusing always to license anyone who has not the endorsement of the county superintendent or of the proper city or town superintendent.

3. To supervise: that is, to set up some pedagogical or professional standard as in city and town systems; to correct errors, and to suggest better ways. In other words, to take to the teachers sympathetic, constructive supervision. In my judgment a superintendent's success can be determined as largely by the number of good teachers he makes out of poor material as by the number of teachers he can dismiss from his system on account of poor work.

4. To aid in the choice of teachers, both in granting licenses and in locating teachers. One of the most important duties of the county superintendent of schools is that of helping minor school officials to select teachers for the several schools under their charge.

5. To make the standard of the county as high as the best school in the county, thus making the county rather than the township (town) or the district the unit of efficiency.

6. To keep the schools of the county in close touch with the best thought in the outside educational world, and more particularly in the state.

II. CHARACTER AND EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

It goes without saying that the county superintendent of schools must have broader scholarship, larger professional training and greater zeal than any of his teachers. He must also maintain as high a standard of morality as his teachers. In fact, the standard should be higher if any difference. The county superintendent is chosen from the ranks of the teachers and can be reasonably expected to uphold the honor and dignity of the calling. Any question here probably hinges upon what the standard of morality of the teacher is to be. In discussing this standard it must be remembered that the real teacher is always more, much more than a mere instructor. While consciously imparting knowledge, the teacher is unconsciously teaching infinitely more than the mere facts in the subject in hand. Imitation is one of the strongest factors in education. Unconsciously the children take on the physical bearing of the teacher, his manner of speech, his mode of dress, his ways of thinking, his very character. The teacher becomes the model of the children whether he will or no. It is not sufficient then that he be a good instructor merely. He must possess that subtle something called personality which by its very presence teaches.

Recognizing this as true, the people, almost as a matter of fact, have come to set up a higher standard of conduct for the teacher and superintendent than for others. And this is perfectly proper. In our school work we set up high standards of character. In history, in literature, in physical culture, every day we are placing before the boys and girls the loftiest ideals of manhood and womanhood.

The county superintendent of schools occupies an office of highest importance and dignity. No official in our school system, or in any other department of our state or county government, has it in his power to do so much good or so much harm, for he is dealing primarily with teachers, many of them young both in years and experience, and with school children. The choice of a man for the position should mean that the best teacher in the community has been promoted; that he is not only teaching boys and girls both by precept and example, but that he is a leader of men and women, a teacher of teachers. In order to be this he must have scholarship equivalent to that of a full four years' course in a standard college, and professional training equivalent to that in the best state normal schools in this country.

The best county superintendents of schools have done notable work in building up high schools, in erecting modern school buildings and in spiritualizing country life by establishing consolidation and by introducing agriculture into the high schools and consolidated schools, and by organizing corn clubs for boys and cooking and sewing clubs for girls. Such work has enlisted the farmers and the best people everywhere in school work and has made them feel that they have a part in that work. Perhaps the best work of most of the superintendents is in looking after the individual teacher. Many of the county superintendents in Indiana have done notable work during the last five or six years. For the last three years one county superintendent has printed his plans for the

year and has explained fully at the preliminary township (town) institutes, one in each township (town) in the county, exactly what is expected in reading, writing, history, geography, industrial work, etc. This enables him to expect definite things when he visits the teachers later.

At the close of the first week of school he requires a report. This report calls for the names of pupils and enables the truant officer to know from the superintendent's office at the close of the first week of school all pupils who are not in school. It calls for the program, and enables the superintendent to secure music and drawing and industrial work in the high schools, and history and language in the lower grades. He writes many letters to his teachers about their programs and other phases of school organization as soon as this report is received. The report also calls for the condition of the building, and supplies needed, and enables the superintendent to "go after" the school trustees for the things needed at the beginning of school. He seldom fails to get the needed supplies when he goes to the trustees in this way.

This superintendent's visits to the schools are not mere social calls. If he finds a teacher below par in any respect, he tells him so frankly and agrees to see him again within a short time. In writing about his work recently this superintendent said: "Yesterday I visited a teacher who had so improved in order and discipline that it did not seem to be the same school." On the other hand, this superintendent stands for the teachers' rights and interests with his trustees until all know that he is always for the teacher, when the teacher is right. When he criticizes his teachers he invariably suggests methods for improving their work and in such spirit as to make them feel that he is their friend and is ready to give them any promotion they are ready for. As a result of this relation the teachers consult with their superintendent freely and tell him of their difficulties as they arise.

This superintendent makes use of the township (town) institute which affords him an opportunity to follow up the things that he has seen while visiting schools. In these meetings he talks over the work frankly, especially mentioning all examples of superior teaching or discipline, and urging the other teachers to visit these stronger teachers. This superintendent is a graduate of the Indiana State Normal School and of a university, having taken his master's degree in the latter institution.

III. THE GREAT PROBLEM IS THE PROBLEM OF EFFICIENCY

In order to provide trained county superintendents in every county, it will be necessary for the several counties to pay larger salaries. There is no other way to secure such men. In the present agitation all over this country for better things in education there are a few fundamental propositions that teachers, citizens, and legislators everywhere need to keep in mind if anything is to be accomplished. The first of these, and the one that overshadows and conditions all the rest, is that we have come to a stage in educational affairs in which the question of efficiency is involved. It is not a money question at all. It is not merely a question of securing more pay for teachers and superintendents. That is a secondary purpose. Primarily it is a question whether we can any longer, under present conditions, secure and maintain efficiency in our schools. The worth and progress of any calling depends upon efficiency. Its rank and dignity are determined by the competency of its men and women. The professional plane of any calling depends finally upon the quality of its own members.

Teaching is not yet a profession in this country. The salaries are so low that teachers cannot make extensive preparation for the work. As a result there is practically no professional test and the scholarship requirements are very low. Despite all this it ought to be said that thousands of competent men and women have deliberately chosen the calling and have prepared themselves to be teachers, superintendents, and college professors, and are doing efficient work; but the existing conditions make their work difficult, and

even call their efficiency in question so that the public is in danger of losing their services sooner or later.

IV. EFFICIENCY IN SCHOOL WORK DEMANDS COMPETENT MEN AND WOMEN

So we have come to a time when something definite should be established in the teacher's work. There is a problem of teaching or there is not. If there is such a problem every teacher who takes up the work should have studied it. Teaching should be put upon a professional plane. Certain definite requirements should be fulfilled before any one is permitted to teach school. That is, a standard of efficiency should be established and maintained. There should be distinct tests of personality, scholarship, and professional ability. The General Assemblies of the several states can help the cause of education and materially hasten the day of larger efficiency by eliminating the unprepared and incompetent from the ranks of the profession.

V. COMPETENT MEN AND WOMEN COMMAND GOOD SALARIES

But at the same time the state sets up new standards of efficiency for teachers it must hold out larger inducements in the way of salaries. The compensation for teaching has always been inadequate; and while it is true that real teaching cannot be paid for in dollars and cents, we have come to a time when the public must more nearly recognize its worth. The laborer is worthy of his hire, and the teacher is no exception to the rule. Teachers hitherto have seemingly been afraid that the public would think they were teaching for money, and the kind public has saved them from this humiliating reputation. With the demands made upon the purse in keeping awake and alive to the interests of the school it has been almost impossible for men and women who have no other source of income to remain in the calling. Somehow the public has gone on demanding that teachers appear as well as other people, that they buy books and magazines, and at the same time the public has not concerned itself about the funds with which all this is to be done. It would probably be a revelation to many good people to know that the average teacher must stop to consider whether he can afford to spend five dollars for books which he really needs in his business. The teachers themselves have been altogether too modest in the matter. They have waited for the public to right their wrongs. They have not organized and gone after their rights. The teachers have permitted the public to fix salaries instead of fixing them themselves. And the public has drawn a distinction between what teachers and other people need to live upon. Here is a principle which teachers should insist upon—that salaries are not to be fixed for teachers, but for citizens for whom the public has a high regard.

It is probable that the public would consider it a great joke to talk about teachers living as well as other people. But why is not this the proper basis? Teaching is difficult work; it takes skill and brains and vitality. Why should it not bring as much as writing briefs, or dispensing medicine, or selling dry goods? Why, indeed! Simply because teachers have not demanded it. The remarkable thing about it all is that we have gone on all these years with such miserable pittances for salaries and have accepted them like so much charity. Let us say again that the question has come to be one of maintaining efficiency in our schools. And it must be borne in mind that increased efficiency, increased salaries, and increased funds must come together in the solution of this problem.

VI. INCREASED SALARIES AND HIGHER STANDARDS OF EFFICIENCY

Another principle ought to be kept in mind in considering this whole question, and that is that this is not a fight for higher salaries on the part of teachers. It is a struggle to maintain the present efficiency of the schools and a demand that the calling be put upon a plane that will make larger efficiency possible. To this end teachers want conditions established which will make merit the sole measure of tenure and pay. At the same time the pay is increased it ought to be made impossible for unprepared, incompetent teachers to profit by the increase. Otherwise the calling will be commercialized and cheapened.

Competent teachers are not begging; they are simply asking for their own. This point cannot be made too strong. While good teaching cannot be paid for in dollars and cents, poor teaching is paid infinitely too much. Anyone who knows anything at all about the schools knows that there are scores of teachers in this country who earn less than nothing. These should be taken off the payrolls, and it ought to be made impossible for them ever to get back. Any new provisions which would make it possible for them to continue and to draw larger pay would put teaching on a lower plane than it now is. And so every teacher who has the right view is insisting that a new standard of qualifications and increased pay must come together. More pay is not what we want, but larger efficiency and more pay.

Finally, to impose a new standard of efficiency without increasing salaries is useless. That kind of a scheme cannot deceive teachers any longer. They have finally realized that they cannot live on high ideals. With eggs at thirty cents and butter at thirty-five cents this has come to be a simple bread and butter problem. And so raising the standard of qualifications without increasing wages would simply make it impossible to fill the places at all. We have probably said enough to show that it would be unwise to raise the standard and increase the salaries without providing means for paying the salaries.

VII. HOW SHOULD COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS BE SELECTED?

The second half of the question, "How Should They Be Selected," remains to be answered, and this is the most difficult part of the question.

The Indiana plan, with some slight modifications, is, in my judgment, a very desirable one. The township trustees in the several counties elect our county superintendents for a term of four years. The candidates are required to hold the highest grade state, common-school certificate. They are required to be actively engaged in school work.

VIII. SUGGESTED METHOD OF ELECTING SUPERINTENDENTS

Our township trustees are not required to possess any educational qualifications. This is the weakest point in our system. The system should provide for both a township trustee, and a school trustee; the former to look after the roads, ditches, poor, etc., and the latter to look after schools, assessing all property for taxation, etc. The two should elect a third man to be known as the principal of the township schools. This man should receive his certificate and qualification from the state and should be superintendent of the schools of the township, and a member of the county board of education. This county board so constituted should elect the county superintendent, and should not be limited to the county in selecting a man. The minimum salary should be $2,000.

The superintendent should be elected and then allowed to serve during good behavior.

I have mentioned some of the more important duties of the county superintendent; indicated his qualifications, and suggested the minimum salary for such qualification and services, and described the best method of electing this official. With some such standard of qualifications, duties and method of election, the country schools of this nation would soon provide an education for all children as good as that provided in the best city systems in this country.

DISCUSSION

J. M. GUINN, department of education, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.—In discussion of the above suggested that the matter of preparation must in some sense be in doubt until the superintendent has discovered what problems are to be met. A school, therefore, for superintendents in which problems of such character may be discussed, scholarship kept alive, and the progress of the work brought to attention would be a great help in such cases.

The question was asked as to how many states elected their county superintendents by popular vote, and eleven superintendents indicated that this was done in their respec-

tive states. It was also discovered by question that seven of the states represented in the Round Table require the county superintendent to hold a state license.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT ASWELL, of Louisiana, stated that in Louisiana the county superintendent is selected by the county board without regard to the section of the state or county from which he comes. Politics exert but little weight in his selection, and efficiency is considered the chief qualification.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT STOCKWELL, of North Dakota, gave his hearty endorsement to the statements made with reference to the removal of the office of county superintendent as far as possible from political influence, but expressed the opinion that this was hard indeed to do. In this statement he found a hearty second in STATE SUPERINTENDENT ACKERMAN, of Oregon.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT NATHAN C. SCHAEFFER, of Pennsylvania, stated that since 1854 county superintendents in Pennsylvania had been elected triennially by the school directors of the several counties, and that the state superintendent was authorized to pass on their qualifications. The salaries of the county superintendents in Pennsylvania range from one thousand to eight thousand five hundred dollars, and many of the superintendents have held office from twelve to twenty years. The office in his state is non-political; he himself has served nearly twenty years under various political régimes. Popular election is the way not to be followed. Dr. Schaeffer also objects to the stressing of the expert idea, as experts are ordinarily developed by years of experience.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT H. A. GASS, of Missouri, stated that local option prevailed in his state with reference to county superintendency; that in fourteen years only twenty counties had adopted the plan; in the other counties the office of county commissioner obtains. He expressed the opinion that the method was a failure.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT F. G. BLAIR, of Illinois, asked the following pertinent question: How can a good superintendent be retained in office, if politics be allowed to enter into the election? The answer to the same was by common consent deferred indefinitely.

III. *WHEN INSPECTING SCHOOLS, WHAT SHOULD A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT SEE AND DO?*

G. G. JOYNES, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ONANCOCK, VA.

As a summary answer to this, I would say, he should see all that is wrong and set about to right it. This answer assumes that a county superintendent of schools is a trained man—educated, experienced as a teacher, and better if promoted to the office from the rank and file of teachers for general fitness and good sense, essentials necessary in this day of professional "line-up," if a man is to see what ought to be seen and do what ought to be done in school inspection. Let us suppose a superintendent is aptly appointed, and notice some of the things he should see and do:

First, outside the schoolroom. The environment should be carefully looked after. The fences and outbuildings should be neat, clean, and white-washed or painted. The grounds should be laid off—separate playgrounds for boys and girls—trees planted. On the girls' side arrange for plants and flowers, leaving room for such games as tennis and basket-ball. On the boy's side arrange for and encourage manly athletics. The superintendent should note the character of the games, and, acting thru his teachers, give such general direction as to do away with teasing or imposing on smaller and weaker pupils. The general conduct of the boys should be noted—whether polite and kind, or given to rowdyism and the use of bad language, cigarettes, etc. I once found a principal of a large grammar school in the habit of smoking cigarettes on the school grounds. His large boys left the school grounds a short way to do the same thing. Another principal of a high school, an A. B. from one of our strong colleges, joined his large boys during noon recess to go off behind a barn near the school grounds for a smoke, out of sight of the

smaller boys. These were valuable teachers. It occurred to me that teachers in such close touch with the boys could lead them from this habit. The suggestion was made, the evil remedied. By seeing and knowing what to do, most of the playground evils may be removed and the introduction of pure and clean school athletics made easy. This is very important. Eight out of ten of our most serious troubles in the rural schools begin on the playgrounds. A superintendent can do much along this line to improve the general discipline and well-being of his schools. To do this, however, he must have tact and good sense enough to be in easy touch with his teachers. To sum up: a county superintendent should see all conditions and should set in motion among the teachers, the pupils, and the patrons, plans most conducive to a good environment and healthy development of that which is best in the social life of the school on its playgrounds.

Second, indoors. The ventilation of many rural schools is so bad that usually this evil will force itself upon a superintendent, and should be remedied permanently. The general appearance of the room—its walls, whether bare or ornamented with pictures and best work of pupils; the blackboards and character of work thereon; the floor, if clean; the furniture, if abused; the general appearance of children, if tidy or otherwise; the general deportment of children, if orderly, attentive, studious, or the opposite; the general bearing of the teacher—how the teacher conducts the recitation, how the children recite. The daily schedule of exercises, which should be prominently posted in every school, should be examined and see that no time is lost, and that a proper division of time to each subject has been made. The grading and classification should be noted. Oftentimes new or inexperienced teachers make grave mistakes in these, causing much trouble, which the experience of a practical superintendent can at once relieve.

By all means, the superintendent in rural schools should look over the character book. This book should be accurately kept by every teacher, open at all times to superintendent, trustees, and visitors. In it the name, date and conduct of each and every pupil who has violated any school regulation or who has done something worthy of praise should be entered. The wisdom of this is far reaching. It gives the pupil a written school record. This has been known to regulate the deportment of the entire school which before the introduction of this method was not at all satisfactory. A superintendent and his school board visited a rural school a few days ago numbering 180 pupils. The character books showed that one boy had been spoken to four times during the school session, and that over 90 per cent. of all the pupils had given satisfactory school deportment. In looking over this book, a few words kindly spoken by the superintendent has proven a great help to refractory spirits. In no case should a superintendent talk to the school too much. All talks should be short, pointed, and illustrate some truth or subject familiar to the pupils. Nothing should be said or done to disturb the friendly relation between pupil and teacher, or to unsettle the authority of the teacher. The real value of a superintendent is not measured by the length of his tongue, but by what he has the ability to see and his power to do.

Finally, what a county superintendent should see and do in a general way. When necessary he should visit the patrons to establish order and harmony and proper relations in the school work. To illustrate, a boy about fifteen years old, not long ago moved into my division from New York City. He had been very refractory in the schools of that city, in fact came from a house of correction. He entered a rural school, taught by a very kind and even-tempered young lady. She had a great deal of trouble with him. He would not study, was continually in devilment of some sort; finally, one day, for rank insubordination she was obliged to suspend him. Before leaving, he cursed her, threw coal thru the window-panes, frightened the smaller pupils, and left in a rage. The matter was promptly reported. I called next day to learn particulars and see upon what terms a reconciliation, if possible, could be made, that the boy might have what he much needed—the benefit of a good school. I visited the home. The father was absent in New York at work. Found the mother, had a talk with her, and after some time she persuaded the

boy to come into the room. Around the fireside I told the two what had been done, showed the teacher's side, showed the boy's side, and the boy's need. Tears fell from the mother's eyes as I tried to reach out in love for the heart and confidence of her wayward boy. Love and truth won. They will always win. A pair of handsome brown eyes, that at first flashed defiance and disobedience, softened into a kindly radiance, when the boy rose, and from behind his tears said: "Mother, I want to go and ask her pardon, and if she will take me back she shall never have trouble with me again." The boy's life was changed from that day. He stood to his word. The school was benefitted by his transformation.

Again, rural schools outgrow their buildings. The superintendent should be quick to see this, and arrange to give the school suitable quarters. In my division this has occurred very often in the past five years. One school did this recently, when the district was already so much in debt it could not take up the case. I called a meeting of the citizens, presented the facts, appealed for aid to accommodate the children seeking the benefits of that school. At once the community organized, raised the money necessary, and the annex is now just completed.

In a section where there are a number of small single schools, the superintendent should study the situation and see when consolidation is necessary to improve conditions. In bringing this about he should not be too hasty, should not invite antagonism, but see what can be done and then do it. One of the first strictly rural, that is, out-in-the-country, consolidations arranged in my section, was the Hunting Creek Grammar School. There were schools located at the angles of a triangle, not far from the shores of the Chesapeake. One a deserted, rickety, old store; another, a two-room, one-story shanty (could see daylight thru it anywhere); the third, an abandoned old church. I saw the necessity of consolidation. The trustees came into the plan, then a few of the leading citizens who could be relied on to help—these quietly looked about and found where a good lot about the center of this triangular section could be purchased; then a meeting of all the citizens of this section was arranged. This took place one afternoon in the spring on the lot selected for the new building. After explaining the school work in the old buildings and showing the possibilities of a good grammar school in a modern school building to be erected, I asked the citizens present to express themselves. When the vote was taken only one man in the whole crowd voted against the consolidation. The school board was present, and before the crowd left the lot was bought, and arrangements made to clear off the forest trees except such as were to remain. The following fall the school entered a modern, up-to-date, four-room building. Need I add that three years after, two pupils from this school sent prize work to the Jamestown Educational Exposition—one, the best map of his county; another, the growth and development of the Diamond Back Terrapin, a marvelous exhibit of nature-study work, which piece of work is now in the National Museum of Argentina, S. A., by special request of the commissioner of education from that country.

A superintendent should see the trend of public sentiment and turn it in favor of good schools. I have in mind a community carrying a school population of 413, located on an island in the Chesapeake Bay, nearly opposite the mouth of the Potomac River and fifteen miles from Onancock, formerly a part of Lee School District, all trustees living on mainland, none nearer that fifteen miles. There were two old stores and two old churches used for schoolhouses. The Legislature passed a bill allowing Tangier Island to be made a separate school district. A few of the leaders who had some influence with the Lee District School Board opposed this. Nevertheless, upon every visit to this community I called a public meeting and discussed some phase of the school work, usually closing my effort by showing the wisdom of having their school affairs in their own hands. In less than eighteen months the situation was ripe for a separate school district, the consolidation of the old schools into a central school at a cost for building alone of $5,500—this in a district where the district (township) tax amounted to $85, from a community

of working people, living from the waters of the Chesapeake Bay by handling oysters, fish, clams, and crabs. They did not ask state or district for money, but every man, boy, and many of the women, and the young women contributed. One Saturday night the committee needed $500 on building fund. Sunday morning the pastor of the Island, who was heart and soul in the work, announced before preaching that $500 was needed to carry on the school work. He preached a sermon on education, and in a few minutes raised the needed $500. Tangier now has its own school board, manages its own business, pays the maximum school tax, and perhaps the finest school building on any of the many islands of the Chesapeake, from Havre De Grace to Cape Henry, stands on Tangier Island, a mere sand spit, one-half mile (widest inhabitable part) by three miles long. From the third floor, or grammar-school department can be seen all the shipping of the great bay in daily transit for twenty miles to sunset side, and to the east twelve miles away to the shores of Accomack. Public sentiment put every dollar into this plant, and then equipped it from top to bottom. The boys and girls helped to pay for the desks. They saved of their earnings, in little barrels, spare pennies, and when the committee announced a "barrel-rolling" day for them to meet and open their barrels and hand in their contributions for school furniture, they had saved a bail-bucket full of pennies, in amount $166.71. One little fatherless girl of thirteen years, with ankles bare and brown, and dress worn, worked in her small flat bottom boat over the mud bars of Tangier Sound, catching and selling crabs, supporting herself and helping her mother, and without asking aid from anyone dropped into her barrel as her contribution for desks $1.36. Public sentiment crystallized and properly directed will bring results.

In conclusion, a superintendent should see the existing conditions of his schools—each school—cut out the evils and the useless, and be quick to put in the best methods, the safest plans, for a harmonious development of child-life, thus helping to usher in the era when our Republic shall be the world's acknowledged leader in all great achievements. This can best be facilitated by wisely guiding American child-life.

IV. *WHAT CAN THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT LEAD THE PEOPLE TO DO?*

LAWTON B. EVANS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, AUGUSTA, GA.

The county superintendent is something more than a schoolman. He is a public officer in charge of a great trust. He should bear in mind that the school system belongs to the people, not to him. They constitute the court of last resort, and have the power and the right to abolish the whole thing if they want to. He has mainly duties, while everybody else has rights.

If the public is to be led, it must be enlightened. There is nothing in a school system that should be concealed from the people. It is fair to say that the schools should be kept before the people's notice and made conspicuous, not for the sake of the superintendent and his glory, but rather for the cause of which he is the exponent and trustee.

The public can be taken into one's confidence regarding plans for the future. They want to know why more money is needed, why better teachers should be employed, why new houses should be built. And knowing all these, the school funds are more readily enlarged. Do not be afraid of the people. Individuals may rant, but the great silent mass will stand by the man who is right.

The people should know the real intent and meaning of the modern school, and what is going on in other places, and what the masters think on great educational themes. Further than that, the home training and rearing of children, their habits, companionships, diet, and health are all facts of which the general public is ignorant. What training a child should have before he comes of school age, what should be expected of the home after he enters school, to what extent parents should help with the home studies, and cooperate with the teacher, and many other such topics open the way for the superintendent

to lead the thought of his people toward a high, noble, and useful system of correlation of home and school.

It is only when the public is led to know what a really great school system is that the superintendent can count on them for great things. The first and greatest of all things is a willingness to vote heavy appropriations for school purposes. To advocate concealment of why money is needed is to invite suspicion and to court disaster. To prove one's case is generally to win it with an enthusiastic public. What the public wants is knowledge, and the reason why. There are few communities where the funds are withheld if only the superintendent be brave enough to state and maintain his propositions.

Every superintendent should have an ultimate plan and should work out his system in accordance. He should know where he is going and add a bit, year by year, toward its attainments. He should not work in the dark nor at haphazard, but definitely. He should announce his plan, and enthuse his people for its early accomplishment. Let him state boldly and definitely what his people need, and they will become as impatient as he is to see the results. Let him have an end in view, a complete plan, an aim, and if he be wise and enthusiastic, the community gathers momentum like water down hill.

One great purpose of the superintendent is to steer the schools clear of the rocks of county politics. I am reliably informed that in some places the politicians mark the schools as political spoils.

It is the duty of the public to let the schools alone, especially in the matter of selecting teachers. The most baleful influence upon the school systems of the country is the political influence of powerful men who seek to make the schools the source of support for indigent gentlewomen. They may be needy, they may be worthy, but it is a crime to support them at the expense of the public and of the children, if they are not good teachers—and this latter the superintendent alone should decide. How many weary battles have been fought for the schools, for the children, and for the public itself, by the superintendents of the land, who have bared their breasts to the storm and said they would have none of it, that the schools were for the teachers, and not for the kinfolk, or political allies, and friends!

So long as teachers are employed upon any other basis than that of schoolroom ability, the system is doomed to inefficiency. Everybody will recognize the truth of the statement, in his calmer moments, that school teachers should not be selected upon a basis of sympathy or political reward. Even the board members recognize that. Therefore, when there is no election pending, when the waters are calm and no instance is up, and nobody to be made an example of, then is the time to get the board to bind itself by formal resolution to do the right thing when the next time comes. Then when the crisis arises and a few wish to override the schools, there is a rule against it which the superintendent and the board may fall back upon to protect the schools.

The superintendent should have the power to prepare an eligible list of candidates from which the board agrees to elect the teachers. This power being granted, the superintendent should make it his earnest duty to find good teachers by all means in his power.

By all these means we see the duty of a superintendent toward the public may be stated in these propositions:

1. To inform them of what is going on in the school system, to conceal nothing, to have everything open to their view and comment.
2. To enlighten them regarding the nature of public schools, their mission and purpose, and the means by which any one community can be kept in line with the best community.
3. To hedge the schools about with every safeguard against the unworthy influence of the politician who wishes to use them for his own benefit, and to protect them against sympathetic men who wish to make them a refuge for indigents.
4. To create that spirit among the people that will make them willing to vote large sums of money for the improvement of the schools, and to put their best men in charge of the school affairs.

This may be hard but it is not impossible. By wisdom and tact, and, above all, by patience, a superintendent, recognizing his limitations and his powers, can lead the people

year by year to build better, tho it be little at a time, until he can at least leave the schools better than he found them and his successor can take up the good work where he left off.

V. *BY WHOM SHALL TEACHERS BE SELECTED?*

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

A free common-school system maintained by public taxation is justified on the ground that the welfare and safety of a democratic state demand an educated citizenship. In the management of a system thus conceived and thus supported there are at least three large interests which demand attention in the solution of every large question which arises. These three interests are the interests of the state, the interests of the taxpayer and the interests of the children. In the practical operation of the common-school system it is the general practice to have a board of men or women appointed or elected who shall be responsible for the successful conduct of the school and who are supposed to be somewhat familiar with the large interests involved and able to treat them all justly. When a board of education meets to consider the building of a schoolhouse they are supposed to understand the interest which the state has in the proposition, the attitude of the taxpayer, and the needs of the children who are to live and work in the building. It is well-nigh impossible for any board thus constituted to do equal justice to all of these interests. The taxpayer is usually present to insist that the appropriation shall be kept within limits. The board of education will constantly be reminded of his interests. They will have their window open toward the broad acres of ground that must be assessed and taxed; toward the herds of cattle and horses, the flocks of sheep; toward the town lots, stocks and bonds, and bank balances. They are, as a usual thing, not given to neglecting the interests of the taxpayer. The law will constantly call their attention to the requirements of the state in the matter, but the interests of the children, though ever present, may sometimes not make as strong an appeal as do the interests of the taxpayer. I believe that any board of education or any body responsible for the management of the public-school system will come more nearly to serving all of the interests justly when they seek earnestly to serve the largest and best interests of the boys and girls who are to attend the school.

But the purchasing of a lot or the building of a schoolhouse is not the paramount function of a board of directors or a board of education. They perform their greatest work when they meet together to select a teacher. While I am not given over much to religious forms, I believe that a board of education might do well to have at least a period of silence in which they should try to think of the children whose interests that teacher is to serve. If any discussion comes up as to whether the taxpayer will be willing to pay such and such a salary or not, or whether it would be wise to take on local talent rather than to go outside, or whether it would not be wise to take the graduates of their own high school in preference to better-trained teachers, I say, when such questions come to the front, I should like to have someone touch a button and have the children whose teacher they are trying to select come into the room, and to have someone say:

Gentlemen, these interests which you have been considering are all worth while and you should seek to do justice by them, but here are the children whose interests you have been elected to conserve. These children are to sit at the feet of this teacher for five days out of the week and nine months out of the year. They also have rights in this matter. A trustee who robs the minor heir of his lawful portion is no more guilty than that school director or trustee who deprives a child of his district of the very best teacher that can be had.

I believe that the common-school system must be kept close to the people. They are a part of it and it is a part of them. Therefore, the officers who administer it must be elected by the people to represent them. In administering most of the affairs of the school, a board thus constituted and thus elected is the most satisfactory method which can be devised. One of the finest exhibitions of unselfish service for the common good is

this vast army of men who give their time and services free to this great institution of the common school. It is doing them no discredit, however, to say that there are certain matters which come before them upon which they may not be competent judges. I am inclined to think that this is the case when it comes to selecting a teacher. There are certain elements in the make-up of a teacher which a board of education may be competent to judge. The looks of a teacher, her language and manner, all that complexity of things which we usually call personality, may be as well discerned by a board of business men as by an expert in education. I have been greatly surprised several times to see how a member of a board of education will detect a flaw in the personal make-up of a teacher which has escaped entirely the eye of the expert schoolman. The personal appeal which the candidate makes to the board will, in the main, be the same sort of an appeal that his personality makes to the children. But there are at least two other large elements in the make-up of a teacher, neither of which is a matter which can be easily judged by a board of directors. The teacher must know the subject which he is to teach. There is no substitute for this. In most cases the board of education assumes that the possession of a certificate is a guarantee on this matter, but certificates are sometimes so general in their character as to give little information concerning special knowledge of special subjects. Here is clearly a demand for the judgment of an expert to ascertain the fitness of the candidate in this particular respect. I have found boards of country school directors employing individuals who had certain superficial manifestations of learning, but who were so shallow-minded and ignorant that they could not hold the respect of the children for a week. The teacher must not only know the subject, but he must know something of the mind of the learner and the ways in which he acquires knowledge. He must also know how to take the subject-matter and the child's mind and bring them into that economic educative relationship out of which grows, buds, and blossoms the child's education. This skill is not a matter which an ordinary board of education can discover. It demands the educational expert.

It seems to me that in the selection of a teacher for the country schools the county superintendent is the proper person to select and nominate the teacher, the board having the power to confirm or reject the nomination. In this way boards of directors in a county, where the director plan is used, could hold the county superintendent responsible for the kind of teacher placed in their schools. And the county superintendent would have this decided advantage: he could place teachers in the various schools who had the fitness to do the quantity and quality of work which he wished to have done in his county. He would have an opportunity to carry his ideas and plans throughout the system of schools. I hear the testimony every once in a while from perfectly competent supervisors that their plans have failed in many instances where boards of directors have persisted in employing teachers who were either incompetent or unfit to do the work, or who in some instances were antagonistic to the general plan.

In cities, the city superintendent is the person who should select and nominate the teachers. The board of education ought to act as trustees of a business concern, selecting a man in whom they have confidence for the head of their system, letting him have the power to nominate the teachers who are to serve under him in order that his ideas may receive the right sort of treatment throughout the system of schools. The board could hold the superintendent responsible for the success or failure of the schools.

This suggestion has nothing new about it. The plan, in some form or other, is being used in various parts of the country. I believe that when our facilities for preparing teachers have greatly increased and when their selection and nomination is placed in the hands of educational experts that our school system will be greatly strengthened and the rights of the children will be much better served.

VI. *THE RELATION OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT TO THE SCHOOL BOARD*

A. C. NELSON, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH

In the short time allotted to me to discuss the relation of the county superintendent to the school board, it will not be possible to enter into details in the treatment of this important subject. Yet, if the few observations that I shall endeavor to make will be appropriate and contribute in the least measure to the merit of the program which has been outlined for this department, I shall be gratified. The work to be done by the county superintendent and the school board is of such importance in the administration of our educational system that it would be difficult to emphasize too strongly the necessity of exercising great care and judgment in selecting these officers. And still, frequently but little thought is given to this vital question. But, perhaps, under present conditions, we may not expect the average member of the school board in the country districts to possess any great degree of special training or fitness for the work he has undertaken. This makes it all the more evident and imperative that the county superintendent must be a person of culture, character, training, and education. His teaching ability and his leadership must be such as to give him recognition in his community.

Diogenes, when taken a prisoner and sold as a slave by the pirates of the Mediterranean, was asked his trade or occupation. The sage replied: "I govern men." The county superintendent, to establish and maintain a relationship with his school boards that will be conducive to educational interest and growth, must be able, if not to govern men completely, to influence them to concerted and harmonious action. In a school system good courses of study, good schoolhouses, good textbooks and appliances are all important, but none of these alone nor all of them combined will accomplish much without proper school organization. In order to obtain this result the work and experience of a well-trained, efficient educational leader is required.

The superintendent must possess a strong and pleasing personality. He must know men. Many a superintendent who is honest, active, reasonably intelligent, and able to perform the duties prescribed by law, falls far short of accomplishing what he otherwise might because he is not a leader among men, because he cannot gain their good-will and confidence. Frequently he may fail to gain their confidence because he does not take them into his confidence. He may overestimate and put too high a premium upon what he may term his prerogatives, and look with an eye of jealous suspicion upon a suggestion which might be offered by his co-laborers—for such should the school board be. While it is essential for him to lead and to have the power of initiative developed to a high degree, yet he must be willing to recognize and act upon any commendable suggestion offered by the school board or a school patron in advocating measures for the betterment of educational conditions. It is an indication of skill and leadership in the superintendent, not only to accept suggestions properly given, but occasionally, if not frequently, to have others urge and stand sponsor for measures which are distinctively his own. How often do we find in legislative bodies men, not only defending, but earnestly urging, the passage of a bill which they had no influence or interest in framing, but to which they now give their untiring efforts because they have been requested to introduce it. So the superintendent, to succeed to the greatest limit, must be diplomatic. He must organize and marshal the forces which are within his reach and command them to subserve the legitimate purposes he may desire to have accomplished. To establish this harmonious action the superintendent must have the school board's willing support. He will find it to his advantage to consult and counsel at frequent intervals with the different members privately, and especially should he do this with the more influential members. In doing this it is not at all necessary for him to compromise his honor or his dignity. Nor will such a course in the least impress the board with an idea that the superintendent is weak and inefficient and must come to them for professional aid. The assistance he seeks from them is largely of an

administrative nature. As a rule men feel complimented when they are consulted on matters of importance and it is a vicious man, indeed, who does not put aside his prejudices and bias under such circumstances and honestly give his best judgment under an appeal that has a tendency to place responsibility on him.

When the county superintendent has succeeded in establishing the relation of friend and co-laborer with the respective school boards under his jurisdiction, he has brought about a condition that will, in most instances, enable him to bring about a high standard of educational growth. Many a superintendent fails in bringing about this standard because the importance of this co-operation is overlooked. He devotes his time almost entirely in making plans for his teachers and reports for his patrons. I would not give out the impression that it is unnecessary to give attention to this part of his work, but it must not be emphasized to the exclusion of all else. While it is eminently necessary for the superintendent to meet frequently with his teachers in institute, it is quite as important for him to have frequent meetings of the school boards. The day has passed when a superintendent may be a mere passive official. He must be a positive force in every field that has a just claim to his attention.

In my own state, the school boards, in all the larger counties, meet several times a year to discuss matters of educational interest and importance. These meetings are attended with commendable regularity and it would be difficult to place too high a value upon the results that have come from them. It is not unusual for our school boards to attend the regular county teachers' institutes each month. In our State Teachers' Association they have a section which is always attended by a large representation from all parts of the state. This, together with subscribing for and reading some valuable school journal, has resulted in creating a strong and continually increasing educational sentiment.

In most of the states, county school boards have the right by law to employ teachers. This is an important duty, a duty that is almost sacred, and it should be performed with great care and judgment. Thru the co-operation which has resulted from the conditions that I have briefly indicated, in Utah county superintendents are consulted in this important work and in many instances boards have delegated to them the authority to select the teachers who are to train her future citizens. The ideal relation of the county superintendent to the school board is that of teacher, leader, organizer, and educational inspirer; and that of the board to the superintendent of friends, assistants, and supporters.

VII. *THE RELATION OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT TO THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT*

W. W. STETSON, AUBURN, ME.

Authority that wins its own recognition has its basis in service. Those who are most interested in the welfare of the schools are ambitious to see the head of the national department of education a member of the president's cabinet. This promotion will not come until a portion of the expense of maintaining the public schools is paid from the national treasury. If the officers having the matter in charge should neglect to make repairs on a few of our battleships, ample funds would be available for this purpose. When the national government contributes its portion toward the support of the public schools the department will be authorized to prescribe minimum courses of study, minimum conditions of licensing teachers, and a minimum school year, all of which will be of such modest standards as not to be embarrassing to any state.

Many state educational departments are not rendering the service, of which they are easily capable, to the local communities. When each commonwealth provides one-half the amount necessary for the support of the public schools, then the state superintendent will be given the power to prescribe a minimum course of study, minimum conditions for licensing teachers, minimum salaries in the common schools, minimum grounds and

buildings, and a minimum school year. These minima will be somewhat in advance of those established by the national department.

The local taxing unit will be held responsible for raising the remainder of the funds (½) necessary for the proper administration of the local schools. It will be authorized to establish maximum courses of study, maximum conditions of licensing teachers, a maximum school year, and maximum salaries. National and state aid will be paid to those communities only which comply with the conditions enumerated above.

When the nation has done its duty and the state has assumed its responsibility in the matter of providing better school privileges for all the children, then there will exist an intimate and responsible relation between the county and state superintendent. This relation will be personal, professional, and official. The county superintendent will be courteous in the most distinctive sense of that term, and as cordial as his limitations will permit. Professionally he will hold himself responsible for having a thoro knowledge of the aims, methods, and means approved and recommended by his official superior. Officially he will be inspired by that kind of loyalty which defends without asking questions and devotes itself to crowning the contest with victory. This position has no place for one who is wreathed in smiles while facing his chief and whose face automatically assumes a grin when his back is turned.

When speaking to experts and from experience one is warranted in leaving many things unsaid. On occasions like this it is not necessary to say: It is good to be good, it is bad to be bad, and you *must not* be naughty.

VIII. *THE RELATION OF THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT TO THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT*

J. Y. JOYNER, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, RALEIGH, N. C.

The relation of the state superintendent to the county superintendent is twofold—first, general; second, specific.

The work of the state superintendent must be done and all his plans executed largely thru the county superintendent. The general relation between them, therefore, should be one of confidence, respect, loyalty, sympathy, and cordial co-operation. The state superintendent and the county superintendent should be bound together in the closest relationship by the cohesive power of a common, unselfish purpose, the noblest ever put into the heart of man, the elevation of mankind to a higher plane of civilization, citizenship, and service thru the education of childhood.

In the accomplishment of this high purpose the county superintendent should unconsciously and irresistibly look to the state superintendent as a trusted leader and an indispensable, sympathetic co-worker. In all things the state superintendent should be to the county superintendent a counselor and friend, easy of approach at all times, from whom the county superintendent will be sure of a patient, sympathetic, and courteous hearing and answer in all his struggles, perplexities, and complaints; and to whom he can look for help in his honest failures, and encouragement, appreciation, and commendation of his conscientious work and his real success. In criticism and correction, the state superintendent should be candid, but kindly, never dogmatic or dictatorial. In consecration to duty, in courageous discharge of it, the state superintendent should seek to be an inspiring example for the emulation of the county superintendent.

For the establishment and maintenance of this general relationship, I believe it to be absolutely necessary to have personal conferences between the state and county superintendents. Nothing can take the place of a hand-grasp, a face to face talk, a personal touch, a spoken word of encouragement, a sympathetic exchange of experience and confidence. These can be secured only thru general conferences between the state superintendent and all his county superintendents, and thru personal visitation of the county superintendent by the state superintendent in his particular field of work.

In my own state, this relation is fostered and strengthened by an annual conference between the state superintendent and the county superintendents in a state association, which every county superintendent is required by law to attend unless providentially hindered, his expenses being paid out of the county school fund. In addition to this state association, the state is divided into five districts of about twenty counties each, with an association for each district, meeting also annually for conference between the superintendents of all the counties of that district and the state superintendent. In this way the state superintendent meets personally every county superintendent at least twice each year; and the county superintendents have an opportunity to meet and confer with him and each other at least twice in each year. In these meetings, there is the fullest and freest exchange of ideas and experiences and practical discussions of all phases of educational work. They have proved invaluable for strengthening the personal relation between the state superintendent and the county superintendent, between county superintendent and county superintendent, and in securing uniformity, unity, and harmony, and in enabling each county superintendent to profit quickly by the successful experience of every other county superintendent and of the state superintendent in any particular line of work.

The state superintendent also spends as much time as he can spare from his office duties in visiting the counties and helping the county superintendent in his own field. In the long buggy rides frequently taken with the county superintendent to meet his appointments, the long talks, and the close personal association sometimes for several days, the state superintendent and the county superintendent come to know and to understand each other better and to sympathize with each other more; and the state superintendent acquires information about the progress and the needs of the work and about the difficulties of the county superintendent that could be acquired in no other way and that is absolutely necessary for him to sustain the proper relation to the county superintendent and to direct intelligently the work of the state.

In considering the specific relation of the state superintendent to the county superintendent, it is necessary to consider first the general nature of the specific work of the county superintendent. Speaking in general terms, the county superintendent's work may be divided into civic, professional, and executive.

His civic work has to do with his relation to the general public. In a democracy, a successful system of schools must have its roots in the minds and hearts of the people, and must be shaped to meet the needs of their life and to elevate that life to a higher plane. The school cannot do its best work unless the people are behind the schools. The school will generally be as good as the people desire and demand and no better. An important part of the work of the county superintendent, therefore, is the cultivation of public sentiment. The public must be led to see the importance and necessity of education in an age like ours, in a government like ours; to realize the needs for regularity of attendance, for proper equipment in houses and furniture, for school terms of sufficient length, for suitable environment in schoolrooms and school-grounds, for competent teachers, for adequate salaries, and for the money to supply all these. Interest and pride in the local school must be stimulated. Co-operation between the home and school must be fostered.

For the cultivation of that mysterious but potent force that we call public sentiment, and for bringing it to the point of insistent public demand for all these, a tactful and almost continuous campaign is necessary. This campaign must be directed by the county superintendent. In its direction he should have the help of the state superintendent. The state superintendent can help by furnishing facts and arguments for general circulation thru printed bulletins and thru the newspapers. He can also render valuable assistance by public addresses, by helpful suggestions to the county superintendent and by plans and programs from time to time. For the successful direction of this part of his work, the county superintendent must have the respect, confidence, and good-will of the people. If he deserves these, the state superintendent can strengthen him and help him by well-

timed expressions of confidence and approval, printed and spoken—in other words, by holding up the hands of the county superintendent wherever they deserve to be upheld.

The professional work of the county superintendent has to do with the teachers and the course of study. This is in many respects the most difficult and delicate part of his work. He has a right to look to the state superintendent for help and direction in this work. In fact, under the present conditions, in the South at least, at present salaries, for the rural-school teachers at least, the rank and file of such teachers are mainly dependent for professional study and improvement upon the provisions made and directed by the state and county superintendents for home study and training, thru teachers' associations, county institutes, and reading circles. In order to have any uniformity, continuity, and correlation in this work for the home training of the rank and file of the teachers, the state superintendent must maintain the closest personal relationship to it, and, in fact, must largely plan and direct it thru the county superintendent.

In my own state, the course of study for the public schools is prescribed, prepared, printed, and distributed by the state superintendent. To aid the county superintendent in the professional training of his teachers, bulletins upon the teaching of different subjects, containing also a list of the best books for teachers on those subjects, have been prepared, printed, and placed in the hands of every teacher by the state superintendent. The state superintendent also has in preparation now a bulletin containing suggested courses of reading and study for teachers, typical suggested programs for teachers' associations, and classified lists of the best books for teachers. These bulletins will be distributed to assist the county superintendent in the successful conduct of his county teachers' associations and in the successful home training of the rank and file of those teachers.

The executive work of the county superintendent, in the sense in which I have used the term, has to do mainly with the business side of his work. This is perhaps the most tiresome and trying part of his work. As the real executive head of the county-school system, he must look after the finances, must be responsible for the performance of their duties by all other county-school officials, and for the general execution of the school law. He is in danger of having his entire time consumed and his entire energy sapped by the innumerable, deadening details of this part of his work, and of sinking into a mere office machine. The state superintendent can greatly lighten this part of his work by the preparation and distribution from his office of labor-saving blanks and record books for school committee-men, teachers, and other school officials, and by aiding him in systematizing the work.

Every state superintendent knows that the relation which he must sustain to the county superintendent in this part of his work must be one of loyal support, so far as the facts will justify that support, in cases of complaints and appeals, and one of sharing cheerfully the burden with the county superintendent and assuming frequently a responsibility for the relief of the county superintendent. From the very nature of the case, the office of the state superintendent must be a sort of clearing-house for executive troubles. I am sure that other state superintendents have learned, as I have, that it is safest to refer all complaints to the county superintendent and local authorities and to hear their side of the controversy before answering the complaint, and that such a hearing is due the county superintendent. In other words, the relation of the state superintendent to the county superintendent in his executive work should always be one of co-operation and loyal support instead of antagonism, in so far as the facts will justify that.

I am sure that every other state superintendent has learned from experience, as I have, that it is frequently a great relief to the county superintendent to have one somewhat farther removed from the scene of action and from local influences and prejudices to whose shoulders he can shift an unpleasant and embarrassing responsibility, and that the state superintendent owes it to the county superintendent to assume that responsibility for the relief of the county superintendent. How often have we ourselves sighed for the blessed privilege and opportunity of having somebody else a little higher up and a little farther

removed to whose shoulders we might shift a disagreeable duty or a hard responsibility with relief and profit to ourselves and to our work. It is true that some things can be better done by higher officers farther removed from aggrieved complainants.

The state superintendent should be willing to help the county superintendent in his executive work to retain the confidence and good-will of his teachers and his school officers and the general public.

DISCUSSION

STATE SUPT. C. P. CARY, of Wisconsin, reverted to the discussion of county superintendency in order to emphasize the question of supervision. In his opinion there is little real supervision of the county, owing to the fewness of visits, the lack of personal touch, and the difficulty of securing information as to what is going on in the various schools of the county.

AUGUSTUS S. DOWNING, assistant commissioner of education of New York, made interesting reference to the troubles incident to supervision in his state. In his opinion the people do not realize the need of supervision. When its importance is understood, certainly some method will be devised for securing for this purpose a smaller unit than the county.

COUNTY SUPT. I. W. MCADORY, of Alabama, made brief reference to the system of county supervision as existing at present in his state.

The discussions of the Round Table were closed by UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN who spoke of the unusual importance at this time of an improvement in rural-school supervision, and suggested that in the most of the states, where such supervision is in the hands of county superintendents of schools, provision should be made for the employment, under the direction of the county superintendent, of competent supervisors of special subjects and deputy superintendents of groups of schools.

B. ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF LARGER CITIES

CONDITIONS OF MENTAL GROWTH OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

JAMES M. GREENWOOD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, KANSAS CITY, MO.

In opening this discussion I shall present a background upon which the intellectual progress of principals and teachers depends after they have been once regularly employed to teach, and then briefly indicate the lines of activity along which I have worked with the principals and teachers of the schools of Kansas City.

I. Under the conditions of intellectual growth, it is pertinent to inquire what effects, if any, it produces on the character and disposition of the individual, and what energy and power it communicates and engenders in his mind. If no perceptible changes in mental habits are produced, then the attempt has been valueless. It should be stated, however, that all knowledge to be useful in its effect in the formation of right mental habits must be liberal and accurate. This implies that every branch of knowledge has a beginning, a middle, and a present but vague boundary which is continually receding. To a learner, whether young or old, the beginning is always new and strange; at the middle stage of a branch the learner has gained some knowledge and has a wider outlook in that direction, and has added somewhat to his intellectual insight. As he proceeds toward the boundary, he begins to get some true notion of his own power and strength in the mastery of one branch. From what has been enunciated, it is evident that there is a low or beginning stage in which the learner is engaged in collecting material, and in adjusting himself to the process of shaping the crude material into groups and masses of knowledge, and that

he gradually passes into that higher stage of knowledge in which he can begin effectively to apply his thoughts to his collected groups, and to use them as helpful material for his mind to work on. A beginner is always inaccurate and remains subject to this defect till he has acquired something more than the mere elements of the branch he is studying. It is for these and other reasons that I am fully convinced that every principal and teacher ought to investigate thoroly some one or more branches of knowledge early in life, and those that have not done so, seldom learn any one branch thoroly in later years. The value of accuracy cannot be felt till one has made considerable progress in some one branch of knowledge, and he begins to look back on his own meager attainments. If he realizes his own weakness, this is the best index of his need of essential growth.

Knowledge quickly evaporates from that mind which holds it in fragments, or small quantities. Consequently, those who have given deep attention to one or more studies can learn, and frequently remain learners, to the end of their lives, and are able to retain and apply large or small quantities of other kinds of knowledge, however distinct the fields of investigation may be.

From these reflections, it is obvious that owing to so much surface work in secondary and higher institutions of learning, and the numerous options offered in courses of study without serious and deep work in any one branch, that a very large majority of principals and teachers vegetate, but never grow, after they once feel secure in their positions.

II. *Practical methods of working with a corps of principals and teachers.*—(*a*) What I shall say under this head applies directly to the working plan I have pursued in Kansas City, and it may be impracticable elsewhere.

The first kind of a meeting to which I invite attention is the regular monthly meeting held on Saturdays at which time all the principals and teachers assemble at 9 A.M., and the session closes at 12 M. These meetings are held in the auditorium of the Central High School which will seat comfortably two-thousand persons. Upon assembling a few minutes may be required to make any special or general announcements. Immediately after the announcements, if any, the assembly breaks up into three or more sections; the principals and high-school teachers forming one section; the fifth,- sixth-, and seventh-grade teachers another section; and the first-, second-, third-, and fourth-grade teachers the third section. These section or division meetings continue till 10:30 A.M., and after a fifteen minutes' intermission they reassemble in the Main Hall.

The programs for the two divisions of the grade teachers are made out during the summer vacation by the assistant superintendents who assign two persons to lead in the discussions, the first to have a paper of twenty or twenty-five minutes, and the second of fifteen minutes, and these programs are announced at the preliminary meeting held on Saturday before the schools open for the year the following Monday. The grade sections elect their own presiding officers, and select persons to carry on the discussions in five-minute talks after the leaders have read or spoken their allotted time.

During the latter half of the year, class exercises are frequently given before each section, designed to illustrate some phase of school work, and after the pupils have passed out, these exercises are commented on.

In the high-school and principals' section a similar plan is pursued half the time. By this is meant that every other meeting is broken up into departmental meetings in which papers are presented and discussed. At the other meetings subjects are presented as in other associations having a formal program for all the principals and high-school teachers. The program is made by a committee of this section.

Upon reassembling at 10:45 A.M., the exercises of the hour are usually introduced by a musical selection, after which a general address is delivered by some resident celebrity here or from abroad.

All the section meetings are wholly professional or semi-professional and bear distinctly on the whole system of school work from the kindergarten thru the high school, while the formal addresses are informational and cultural—liberalizing.

(*b*) Half-way in point of time between the monthly meetings are held the principals' meetings. These meetings begin at 9 A.M. and close at 11:30 A.M. and are held on Saturdays.

The superintendent during vacation makes out the yearly program for these meetings and assigns two speakers or essayists for each topic. The first prepares a paper not to exceed twenty-five minutes, and the second, a paper not to exceed ten minutes. After the reading of these two papers the subject is open for general discussion allowing each speaker five minutes, and in which all may participate. Free discussions are regarded as very valuable features of all teachers' meetings. It affords an opportunity for one to talk forward as well as back.

(*c*) There is a literary club, called the Greenwood Club, which has been in existence for a third of a century. While it is composed largely of principals and teachers, in it all kinds of public questions are presented and discussed. About thirty meetings are held each year. These meetings are held in the Assembly Room of the Public Library on Friday evenings. The session begins at eight o'clock and closes at ten o'clock. One paper is formerly presented, after which any one present can speak for five minutes.

This is a sort of public safety-valve to which all persons are invited. Any one present is a member. There is no fee for membership.

d) For the purpose of enabling teachers to prepare for the annual professional promotional examination, I talk to them and to all others who wish to avail themselves of the privilege, on Saturdays from 9 A.M., to 10 A.M. when the monthly teachers' meetings or the principals' meetings are not in session. At these meetings professional subjects are presented in such a manner as to enable the teachers to get a better insight into educational theory and practice and a historical basis upon which these depend.

e) At the beginning of each school year two or three of the best recent books on education are recommended for the principals and high-school teachers to read, and to write a review or criticism of one of these books of not more than six hundred words, and hand it to the superintendent.

One or two good books thus read and analyzed each year will keep principals and high-school teachers in close touch with much of the best current educational thought.

f) Frequently, during the year I call the attention of the principals and teachers to such new books as I have read or examined on special lines of work. Recently a book on *How to Teach Reading* came under my notice, and it was such a book as would be exceedingly helpful to grade teachers, and I mentioned it, and more than fifty of these books were called for by grade teachers that afternoon.

g) There is hardly a day that teachers do not ask me what new books I have recently read, and have I not read something or do I not know of a book that would help them in their general work or along special lines in which they are interested.

h) Many of our grade teachers are working for degrees at the University, but I do not find that their school work suffers or is even slightly neglected on that account. It is my deliberate opinion that a large, full-flowing fountain of pure water is a far better stream for a learner to quench his thirst from than a tiny little rill that is almost stagnant.

THE SUPPLY OF TEACHERS AND THEIR TRAINING AFTER APPOINTMENT

MR. GEORGE S. DAVIS, ASSOCIATE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY

In every large city school system the provision of an adequate supply of properly prepared teachers is one of the most difficult problems with which we have to deal; and the training of these teachers after appointment is co-ordinate with, if it does not transcend in importance and magnitude, the problem of a sufficient supply. This latter problem cannot be regulated or solved by an artificial system or arbitrary arrangement, because it is almost entirely controlled by economic conditions. In prosperous times other occu-

pations pay better than teaching, and the supply lessens automatically. In times of financial disturbance or depression, the supply, especially of women teachers, increases. The loss of position, the reduction in wages, or the curtailment of business opportunities for the men, in many instances impels the women of the family to seek remunerative occupations outside the home. This was abundantly evidenced during the recent business panic by the number of applications for reappointment as teachers on the part of women, both married and unmarried, who had formerly followed that vocation. The work of training teachers after appointment, however, can be and has been systematized with methods that are fairly satisfactory and permanent.

In the city of New York 1,472 new teachers were appointed last year; while the number of vacancies during that period was nearly 1,800. From these figures may be seen the large number of new teachers absorbed annually into our city school system, and the extent of the task of training them to become efficient workers is apparent. This influx of new material each year, amounting to over 10 per cent. of our entire teaching corps, places upon the supervisory staff a constant and onerous task. These teachers come to us from various sources, each giving a different preparatory training which has to be harmonized with the actual practical work of the schools. It is found that those coming from the city training schools adapt themselves to our conditions more readily than the others. This is due to their six months' substitute and observation work in the schools, which forms a part of their two years' course of training, and to their consequent better acquaintance with the course of study. It is in this respect that the supply from other sources, with their less practical training, find themselves at a disadvantage at the start.

For the beginner in the profession of teaching, the essential element of equipment is a thoro knowledge of the subject-matter to be taught—an element that is frequently lacking. To this should be added a knowledge of a few fundamental principles and methods, some knowledge of child-nature, an interest in human affairs, a love of the work, and an ambition to succeed. Accurate knowledge of the child-mind is a thing to be hoped for, but it is rarely, if ever, acquired by any of us. Upon this equipment, to which, in the case of our own training schools, is added the desirable element of experience, we can base an effective system of training subsequent to a teacher's appointment.

In the city of New York this system comprises the following direct active agencies: the board of superintendents; the district superintendents; the directors of special branches, with their assistants; and the principals, upon whom rests, most directly, the responsibility for the proper and efficient training of the teachers appointed to their schools.

A brief consideration of the means employed by the last of these agencies, the principals of schools, will be of more interest than a consideration of any of the others.

In different schools the problem varies both in difficulty and extent. Some schools will receive at one time two or three new teachers; others will receive as many as ten, or, as I have known, as many as eighteen, all of them inexperienced. This, at times, is unavoidable and the problem has to be met.

The first step in the teacher's training is to see that she is properly assigned to grade and class. Sometimes the principal is restricted by conditions, and the assignment cannot be in accordance with the teacher's present abilities; but in general, an attempt is made to suit the assignment to them. This gives the teacher confidence and makes her feel that there is an intelligent and sympathetic mind guiding her. Her subsequent training by this means, in the process of gaining efficiency, requires an assignment of greater difficulty, when a measure of success has been attained. It should range gradually thru several grades or years of work, with classes of both boys and girls, if possible. The changes of grade, however, should not be so rapid as to prevent accurate acquaintance with a definite field of work. Otherwise there is confusion and discouragement. The period of probation in our city extends over three years. At the end of that time, most teachers have found themselves and receive their permanent licenses as an official acknowl-

edgment of their promise of continued success. Their training, however, by no means ends here. It is continued in various ways during their whole career.

The next step is to require the new teacher to make a plan of her work for the term, based upon the course of study. This makes certain that the teacher analyzes her field of labor and enables her to see its scope. If this is insisted upon by the principal, and no copied plan of some other experienced teacher is accepted, the novice is much strengthened. The plan submitted should be carefully criticized and returned. It may be that the plan proposed by the teacher is not one that is profitable to work with. It should then be suggested that the teacher compare it with those of other experienced teachers on the same grade, with a view to modifying it, if necessary. Her next attempt will probably produce an acceptable scheme of work. These first plans should not be exhaustive nor minute, but general in character. They are chiefly to make sure that the teacher realizes the amount and scope of the work to be done in the time at her disposal. Care should be taken not to require too much in the way of plan books, notebooks, and progress books. These things are often carried too far and tend to make the teacher mechanical and to deprive her work of its life, freshness, and spontaneity.

In all schools, one of the general means of training teachers, both the experienced and the inexperienced, is the conference. Usually, these are held twice a month; in some cases, oftener. Sometimes they are general in nature, according to some prearranged plan of the principal; at other times, particular; the subject being suggested by observations made during the work of supervision. They are held for the purpose of helping those teachers that are in need of inspiration, confidence, or knowledge of method. The teachers themselves take a prominent part in them, the principal guiding the discussion to accomplish the aim desired. Probably the most effective of these special conferences are those arranged by grades. In these, the teachers of the classes of the same grade come together and discuss some phase of their work, their difficulties, their expedients for overcoming them, their methods, or the results attained. At times, the teachers of the grades above and below that being discussed may be called in, so that they may see the relation of the work of their respective grades. There is much enlightenment to be derived from this plan. It gives perspective and prevents teachers from becoming mere piece-workers. To make these conferences effective, the principal must visit the classes subsequently, to see that the points brought out are heeded.

General conferences and lectures, with large bodies of teachers, are usually ineffective, especially when they are planned from a central bureau and attendance upon them made compulsory. A conference is valuable only when there is something of interest to confer about, but not when it is held merely for the purpose of complying with a schedule.

Another means of training made use of freely and effectively, is the visit by the teachers to other classes in the school, or to some other school, for the purpose of observing something definitely determined beforehand. It may be to see some special method of teaching, or it may be to get inspiration or a new point of view from the observation of good regular work. With the younger teachers, those in need of training, the observation of good regular work is productive of most good. These visits should be made with the main purpose of learning, not of criticizing; and the principal should know in advance just where such teachers should go and just what subject to observe. The opportunities to make these visits will sometimes be sought by the teachers; at other times they are suggested to them. In the latter case, the teacher may be getting into a rut; or, perhaps, it is thought that seeing the greater difficulties under which other teachers labor and do good work will be a source of encouragement and content. Under our by-laws, a teacher may have three days each year for these visits, without loss of pay. Reports are required, and these reports are frequently made the subject of discussion at grade or general conferences held immediately afterward. By these visits, many good things are spread from school to school or brought in from schools other than our own. The only drawback noticed in connection with this system of visitation, or hospitation, is that some schools doing especially

good work in certain subjects have, at times, been overrun with visitors, not only from our own schools but also from schools outside the city. Some principals, therefore, have had to restrict visitors to certain days and even to special appointment, as their general work was being interfered with.

Much may be accomplished in the training of young teachers by helpful suggestions in their reading. At this point of their career, I do not think that reading upon the general theory and history of education is profitable. It should rather bear directly upon their daily work. It must be remembered that they are now face to face with the problem of learning the art of education; and their efforts should have reference to the acquisition of that art. Standard books on methods and the practice of teaching, good educational magazines well edited, and not given to the over-elaboration of trivial things, or to the careful development of the obvious, supply good material. The intimate and practical suggestions of the latter appeal to the beginner and often prove helpful. But this, like all other matters, must be watched.

Nearly every school in the city of New York has an excellent reference library which is used by the teachers and principals in aid of their daily work. Some of our principals reinforce and illuminate their suggestions by referring their teachers, as need arises, to certain passages, paragraphs, or chapters treating of the matter under consideration. They do not burden them with whole books, but give them just enough to cover the point. One principal has tried, with good results, the plan of withdrawing from her work, for an hour or so, a young teacher who, perhaps, is tired from her efforts with a large or troublesome class, and setting her to work with a request to read up some special topic. At these times, the principal may take the class or put it in charge of a teacher in training assigned to the school temporarily. The teacher, in this way, gets a new grip on her work thru rest and abstraction from classroom duties, and, at the same time, acquires something useful in her teaching.

Of our great public libraries, of the opportunities offered by our colleges and universities which are largely attended by progressive teachers and which constitute a great attraction for teachers from outside the city, it is unnecessary to speak. These, with the art galleries, the museums, and other potential facilities for culture and amusement are advantages that have a strong influence in the broader training of the teacher.

For the young teacher, the beginner, I do not advocate university work. This is better deferred for a few years. Often, when it is not deferred until some mastery of her profession is attained and felt, the school work, the study, and the health of the teacher all suffer together. Her professional reading, during the apprentice period, should be devoted to the acquisition of a thoro and accurate knowledge of the subject-matter to be taught and of good methods of teaching. Such a knowledge of subject-matter we might fairly assume, but it is not safe to do so. I have had young teachers inform me that they were studying for academic degrees; and at the same time their classes were poorly disciplined, their work unorganized, and the pupils uninterested. For the beginner the class and the class-work present all the material for study that the average teacher can successfully cope with. All the time that teachers, in the earlier stages of their career may devote to study and maintain themselves in proper physical condition, will be needed for the fitting preparation of their work from day to day. Unless this preparation is thoro, they cannot present their lessons interestingly and with confidence; and their energies, in consequence, are absorbed in disciplinary problems which gradually induce a loss of self-control, a personal quality absolutely essential in a good teacher.

I do not believe that the organization of all these elements or means of training into a formal system of conferences, visits and reading courses with compulsory participation for all beginners and weak teachers, would be effective. Efficiency in this work must, in the end, depend upon an *esprit de corps*, engendered by those who lead. If this is lacking, the training is either perfunctory, mechanical, or haphazard. The nearest that we have come in New York City to any compulsory work for self-improvement is a proposition to

adopt the plan in operation in Chicago, I believe, by which teachers showing weakness in any line of work may be required to attend a certain number of hours at the training school for the purpose of correcting the defect. If compulsory, this arrangement might act in the way that the power to inflict corporal punishment is said to act. This is, the mere existence of the requirement would make its use practically unnecessary. I cannot imagine a teacher going back to training school, even for a brief period, without some loss of dignity and self-respect. Yet, the feeling that this might be required would, perhaps, be a great stimulus to those that are lax or indifferent in their work, simply from the desire to avoid the requirement.

But above all conferences, except those with individuals, above any system of visiting or course of reading, we must place the efforts of the principal of the school, put forth intimately and sympathetically with each teacher in need of help. Upon the principals more than upon any other agency, depends the degree of efficiency of every school system. The work of their schools is the reflection of their influence; and the character of that work, except in a few individual instances, will never rise above the standards which the head of the school is capable of setting.

The little matters upon which depend good discipline and good instruction must, at the start, be carefully looked after. In repeated visits to the class rooms; in carefully considered suggestions, and, at times, admonitions; in just criticism and judicious praise; in helpful illustration; and in actual demonstration of suggestions, all by the principal, are found the most effective means for the training of young teachers in their practical work. Some principals will mechanically issue written directions and consider their duty performed. Others will require an enormous amount of written preparation of plans and notes, to the inevitable discouragement and disgust of their teachers, who, finding themselves oppressed by a ponderous mechanism, grow to dislike their work and to distrust their leader. Such things only restrict and harass spontaneous effort. They tend to fashion the worker into a machine instead of a thinking, sympathetic human being which a true teacher must be. The spirit of a school must be free, natural, enthusiastic, and cheerfully serious. Such a spirit provides an irresistible impulse to earnest effort and the most favorable conditions for good work. It inspires a receptive mental attitude that will seriously incline most teachers, not only to accept, but to seek criticism. In short, by tact and ability, the principals must establish and maintain a state of mutual confidence between themselves and their assistants. While sensitive to faults, they must always be patient, encouraging and ready to help—to show how; they must set a high standard and inspire their teachers to strive for it. We have many at the head of our schools capable of doing this, but we have too many that are not.

If the work of training teachers subsequent to appointment is to become more efficient, we must demand high qualifications of our principals, each of whom must be, in the fullest meaning of the title, the *principal teacher* of the school.

DISCUSSION

[Reported by C. E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.].

C. N. KENDALL, superintendent of schools Indianapolis, Ind.—The superintendent finds one of his most important duties to be the making possible the improvement of the work of the new teacher. In the Indianapolis Training School a special emphasis is placed upon practice in the school arts. All cadet teachers before receiving regular appointments have had experience in actual charge of schools. Over every two cadet teachers there is placed a director who criticizes the work and endeavors in every way to develop the cadets into effective teachers. One year of practice must be had before the diploma of the training school is given. This scheme proves very efficient in meeting the local conditions of Indianapolis.

Time is often wasted in school visitation. In many cases the visit is aimless and the

results decidedly unsatisfactory. A far better scheme is to send out groups of teachers for school visitation, under the immediate direction of the assistant superintendent. These visits should also be followed by conferences concerning the work which has been observed.

WALTER H. SMALL, superintendent of schools Providence, R. I.—Conditions in Providence are somewhat unique. A large percentage of the teachers are trained at the Brown University and the normal schools. Candidates for normal-school work must be high-school graduates. They are then given a two years' course followed by special training under the state critic. Two teachers are assigned to each state critic, who work for one-half year under her special guidance and instruction. The new teachers are distributed thruout the schools for one-half year's preliminary training, after which diplomas are given.

After receiving a diploma the teachers are on the substitute list and ordinarily are in service about a year and a half before appointment is received.

College graduates have similar training for one year, under close inspection. After two or three years' experience permanent appointments are given, and annual elections are dispensed with.

The critic teachers, in addition to their special supervisory work with training-school teachers and new teachers, visit any teachers in order to see whether weak spots may not be strengthened. In addition, encouragement is given for continued courses at the Brown University and other institutions. About 40 per cent. of the Providence teachers are taking these courses.

JOHN W. COOK, president, State Normal School, De Kalb, Ill.—In our normal school we especially attempt to develop teachableness on the part of teachers. Our teachers come to us after having completed the high-school course and have with us two years' work. The first year this is largely academic work in which the various school subjects are studied, with what might be termed the pedagogical attitude. Two years of practice work are given these normal students.

I. C. MCNEILL, superintendent of schools, Memphis, Tenn.—A unique institution in Memphis assists the teachers. This is known as the Goodwin Institute. It is endowed for the purposes of establishing literature courses and a free public library. During each week two or three lectures are given under the auspices of this institute. The teachers are specially provided for, university courses being given in connection with this institute.

I believe that it is far easier to secure the growth of teachers thru encouragement rather than fear.

ADDISON POLAND, superintendent of schools, Newark, N. J.—My problem is modified on account of the proximity of Newark to New York. It makes it necessary to establish a different basis of securing new teachers. We dispense with formal examinations such as are required in New York City, and have a salary schedule in which the maximum salary is reached far sooner than in the larger city.

J. A. SHAWAN, superintendent of schools, Columbus, Ohio.—We strive hard to avoid inbreeding, believing that if our teachers can be secured from many places, a far better general average can be secured than otherwise. We therefore endeavor to tempt teachers from many of our colleges for our work.

In spite of this a large percentage of our elementary teachers come from our city training school. Twenty per cent. of our teachers are college graduates. The increase in our salary schedule has very greatly increased our supply of candidates for positions. We place much emphasis upon such matters. The Columbus teachers have a voluntary reading circle with a large attendance. Many of our teachers are taking courses in the university.

W. C. MARTINDALE, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Michigan.—Fifty per cent. of the Detroit teachers are graduates of the Detroit Training School. For some time the

practice prevailed of having our high-school faculties recommend those who in their judgment would be the best teachers. This did not prove a satisfactory scheme. We now have definite academic requirements, a certain standard of scholarship being insisted upon. This is followed by giving each candidate an oral examination by the faculty of the training school. At the best, however, trivialities determine the judgment as to the fitness of candidates. All candidates are required to take a physical examination.

W. H. ELSON, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio.—In Cleveland we have employed a substitute supervisor. This supervisor looks after the work of the new teachers. Each grade is given, during the year, special instruction. The teachers of Cleveland are divided into four classes, promotion from class to class is made at the recommendation of the superintendent.

C. F. CARROLL, superintendent of schools, Rochester, N. Y.—Growth is the key-note of the hour. It is uniformly true that some teachers cannot grow. The great question for superintendents to answer is: "How can we be inspirers?" Above all I believe that inspiration is necessary. However, in addition to inspiration, administration is necessary, but above all put a substantial premium upon the growth of the teacher.

J. A. WHITEFORD, superintendent of schools, St. Joseph, Mo.—How can superintendents help principals? One way is to send some of them to the Department of Superintendence. The securing of satisfactory new teachers is to me one of my most difficult problems. I have found that testimonials are of no value, even testimonials from superintendents of high standing. I personally value most highly a personal letter to me from a fellow superintendent which is sent in response to a letter to him which I have written. I have found in practice, that the recommendations of our university specialists are valueless.

STRATTON D. BROOKS, superintendent of schools, Boston, Mass.—The progressive superintendent is compelled to realize sooner or later that if he is to be effective he cannot avoid irritating the incompetent.

Eligible lists, while not entirely satisfactory, are helpful. I believe it is unquestionably true that the upper half of the eligible list is better than the lower half.

We in Boston have appointed a supervisor of substitutes. Her chief responsibility is to give human interest to the work of our substitutes. Principals, even, seem to be unable to do all that they should in the way of supervision. Too often it is true that the principals themselves are incompetent. I believe that in Boston one of our most helpful schemes is the Sabbatical one on half salary. This is really not an expense to the district inasmuch as those eligible for the Sabbatical year are universally on the maximum salary and their place is taken by substitutes who receive half the salary.

HENRY P. EMERSON, superintendent of schools, Buffalo, N. Y.—The state law of New York determines the requirements for candidates. In Buffalo we have never experienced any lack of candidates for positions. We find, however, that the work of the supervisors is ineffective, so far as it concerns the improvement of principals. Too often the principal merely feels relieved and abandons all responsibility as to special supervising, becoming from year to year less effective himself.

HENRY S. WEST, assistant superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Md.—The feature of our promotional examinations in Baltimore is the study of some special problem. By doing this the teachers are lead to do some original systematic work along lines in which they are specially interested.

CARROLL G. PEARSE, superintendent of schools, Milwaukee, Wis.—There is danger of developing too much reverence for the regularly constituted source of supplies. Free opportunity for admission to our ranks should be given to all who have succeeded no matter by what method they have secured success. The shortage of teachers will be solved by making the profession more attractive. The teacher is the one who can make her standing

in the community high. As to the improvement of teachers, proper supervision is the final and vital thing in securing it.

WM. H. MAXWELL superintendent of schools, New York City.—I care very little for the college graduate in the elementary schools. I will continue to care little for them until our university departments of education have learned how to turn out good teachers for the elementary schools. The great problem before school superintendents is the galvanizing into life those teachers whose brains are ossified. The final solution must, in all large city school systems, come thru the principal of the school. The school principal while most helpful to the teacher when he is helpful, may, if he is a martinet, blight the enthusiasm and efficiency of the young teacher.

I came to this meeting to get light upon the problem "How we can make good principals out of poor ones." This hope has not been fulfilled.

C. ROUND TABLE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SMALLER CITIES

TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD STATE UNIFORMITY LAWS APPLY TO CITIES IN RESPECT TO COURSES OF STUDY, TEXTBOOKS AND METHODS IN (A) *ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS,* (B) *HIGH SCHOOLS?*

I. JOHN W. CARR, SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS, DAYTON, OHIO

In order that there may be a system of public schools, elementary and high, it is necessary that there be state laws governing the same. These laws should be such as to secure uniformity in most particulars; and, at the same time, there should be a certain amount of elasticity, so that the system may be modified to suit local environments. In the discussion of this subject we shall endeavor to point out some particulars in which there should be uniformity in all cities of a state and also some particulars in which each city should be allowed to choose for itself.

The state law should define an elementary school and specify certain subjects that should be taught in these schools—such as reading, writing, spelling, geography, history, grammar, and the like. So far as I know, the law in all of the different states designates certain legal branches that must be taught in all elementary schools. Of course these legal branches should be taught in the elementary schools of every city in the state. Furthermore, these branches should be given prominence on the daily program and should not be taught in a perfunctory way. But in addition to these legal branches, city boards of education should be authorized by law to add other subjects to the curriculum in the elementary schools, and to pay teachers from the public funds for teaching these subjects. Any other course, in my opinion, would prevent the proper development of the elementary schools in our cities.

But what subjects should city boards of education be permitted to add to the required branches? Should there be no limit? If a limit, what should it be? This brings us face to face with a problem that is very difficult of solution. The overcrowded curriculum in the elementary schools results from adding this thing and that thing and still other things to the course of study without any eliminations. A halt must be called by somebody at some place. I for one believe that the state should not only prescribe legal branches of study for the elementary schools, but there should be some sort of an understanding relative to the minimum amount of time to be devoted each week in each grade to the legal branches. I am not ready to say that this should be enacted into statute law, but school superintendents, school boards or teachers in some way should come to a definite understanding relative to the amount of time to be devoted to the legal branches, and then

there would be a necessary limit both in reference to the number of other subjects and the time to be devoted to these subjects in the elementary schools.

Among the subjects that city school boards should be authorized to add to the elementary course, I would mention music, drawing, physical culture, and manual training in some form for both boys and girls. By naming these subjects, I do not mean necessarily to exclude all others, but these should receive first consideration. If such subjects as German or any other foreign language are taught in the public schools, boards of education should be authorized to provide instruction in the same, only on petition of a considerable number of the patrons of a district, and then not all pupils should be required to take these subjects. City boards of education should also be authorized to provide special schools for truants and defectives.

Only in a general way should state uniformity laws apply to the high-school course of study in cities. The law should require each city to maintain a high school and the course of study should be at least four years in length. The state law should enumerate certain high-school subjects all or any of which may be included in a high-school course of study in any city in the state.

But the board of education of each city should have the right to adopt a high-school course of study for its own schools. This would afford an opportunity for each city to have a high-school course of study that would most nearly meet the needs of the particular locality.

I favor state uniformity of textbooks in the required legal branches of the elementary schools. I believe that this uniformity should apply to city schools as well as town, village, and country schools. I offer two arguments in favor of uniformity of textbooks in the elementary schools.

First, the cost is less and the quality of the books not necessarily inferior.

For several years I lived in Indiana where there was state uniformity of textbooks in the elementary schools. Afterward I moved to Ohio where each board of education adopts its own textbooks for the elementary schools. I could not help noticing the difference in cost of textbooks in Indiana compared with those in the city where I now reside. The advantage in each instance is in favor of state uniformity. Expressed in per cents., the advantage in cost in favor of state uniformity follows: Spelling book, 70 per cent., series in readers 137 per cent., series in arithmetic 14 per cent., series in language-grammar 18 per cent., series in geography 46 per cent., United States history 28 per cent. In the case of the readers the series in use in the Ohio city contains eight books and the Indiana series but five, but on the whole, the Indiana books are as well suited for school use as the others. The number of books in each series in other subjects is the same—in some instances the books are identical. It is an easy matter to see that there is quite a difference in cost to the people.

But the first cost is not the only real difference. Every time a family moves from one community to another in a state where there is not uniformity of textbooks, a different set of books must be purchased. This is expensive business with no corresponding advantages.

The argument is sometimes advanced that a state having uniform textbooks does not have an opportunity to secure the best textbooks. So far as my experience goes, I believe this argument to be fallacious. In Indiana, standard textbooks were offered for adoption, the only difficulty being to secure standard first and second readers at ten and fifteen cents, respectively, as provided by the law.

The second argument I present in favor of state uniformity of textbooks in elementary schools is that it prevents agents of publishing houses interfering with local school affairs. The schoolbook agents whom I have known compare favorably with gentlemen engaged in any other legitimate line of business. But human nature is human nature, and representatives of publishing houses are not always able to withstand the temptation to get this particular person elected on a local board of education or defeat that one, for the special

advantage it will be to them at the next adoption of textbooks. This interference I believe to be detrimental to the best interests of the schools, and furnishes one of the strongest arguments in favor of state uniformity of textbooks in the elementary schools.

In reference to high schools I do not think there is the same urgent need for state uniformity of textbook as in the grades. There is a far greater difference between the high schools in a state—rural, village, and city—than elementary schools. Yet I see no reason why it would not be advantageous both from an educational and a financial standpoint, if there was uniformity in some of the high-school textbooks, such for instance as algebra, geometry, and Latin. We are still in the experimental stage in reference to high-school texts in English, science, manual training, commercial subjects, and, to some extent, history also. For that reason I favor local adoption of such texts.

As I am not aware of any state uniformity laws relative to methods of instruction, I leave this branch of the subject for others to discuss.

II. CARLETON B. GIBSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, COLUMBUS, GEORGIA

The venerable subject of state uniformity has the virtue of freshness and originality as a topic for discussion before any department of this Association. In undertaking to prepare some observations on the subject for this meeting, I examined one volume after another of the *Proceedings*, and failing to find any paper or discussion, took up the admirable index of all volumes from 1857 to 1906 and was surprised to find that the subject had never been presented in any department.

From the beginning of state systems of schools, there has been of necessity state uniformity in the subjects prescribed for the common-school curriculum. From time to time the several states have made a few additions to the list of subjects originally prescribed, guardedly adding, however, only such subjects as were acknowledged to be in the list of rudimentary branches or those that by common consent were admitted to be closely akin to the traditional school subjects.

State uniformity of textbooks seems to have had its origin in the demand, not for unification of school work thruout a state, but for less expensive schoolbooks. And this demand seems to have come not from the actual first cost of an outfit of books, but from the additional, and often unnecessary and unreasonable, expense resulting from the frequent change in books, especially in rural schools, where the teachers were changed every session, or from the migration of pupils from one school district to another. The latter hardship fell most heavily upon the large tenant class in rural districts, who were least able to bear the expense of a new outfit of books every year. The initial demand for state uniformity has almost invariably come from that class of citizens.

The agitation of any questions relating to schools by the public at large has always one saving factor, which is that it quickens general interest in public education. And therefore, as the discussion of this one topic of state uniformity and its concomitant effort to reduce the cost of books have everywhere reached the masses of the people, it may not be far from correct to say that to state uniformity more perhaps than to any other issue is due the awakening of interest in public education and the initial efforts at systematizing and organizing the work of the country schools. As the resultant of state uniformity of texts, following the prescribed uniformity in branches authorized, has come in many states an admirable course of study for all the common schools of the state. This has given definiteness to the work, created higher ideals and stimulated teachers to better preparation for efficient service.

Uniformity in textbooks as an expediency has therefore contributed in no slight degree to the welfare of the common schools in the creation of a more lively popular interest in education, in safeguarding the important matter of economy in the management of schools for the masses of the people, in systematizing and organizing the work of the country

schools, in bringing about a definite and logical course of study, and in stimulating teachers to reach higher degrees of efficiency.

Where such conditions existed, there was no demand for uniformity of texts, springing from natural and local causes. If such demand arose, it came from sympathy for the less fortunate in educational matters, or was stimulated by zealous persons who concerned themselves actively with bringing about a change in the important industry of making and selling schoolbooks. Where the masses of the people are fairly well aroused to the importance of education, where the schools are being conducted upon sound business principles, where the work is well organized and a definite course of study carefully planned is laid out, where by intelligent supervision and direction proper stimulus is given to increasing efficiency, there is no occasion, I submit, for state uniformity of texts and course of study. Wherever a community, town, city, county, or in the larger cities, even a ward or borough, has brought about general educational conditions far in advance of the average conditions prevailing, state uniformity could contribute nothing to the welfare of its schools.

For a city or community supporting its schools entirely or in large part to be required to conform to a state uniformity law is seriously to embarrass and hamper the legislative and executive authorities of the schools in their efforts to make the system adequately meet the needs of the community. The tendency of state uniformity would be to dwarf the development of a system of schools in a rapidly growing and progressive community with all the problems incident to its more complex life. The intelligent direction of the educational affairs of such a community demands that there be recognition of the dominant life of the people, of their chief interests and concerns, and that the dominant life of the people shall largely influence the schemes for education. If state uniformity is adapted to the interests of the rural schools, and it does serve its largest purpose and accomplish its greatest good in connection with those schools, it could not only contribute nothing to the interests of the schools of a progressive city, but would seriously detract from their highest welfare. The school authorities of such a community, recognizing the dominant interests of its people, not only might wish to adjust its course of study and introduce certain subjects bearing directly upon such interests, but should feel resting upon them an obligation to shake off the traditions of school work and by certain changes in the course of study, subjects taught, and general methods of conducting the school, bring the people's schools to conserve their interests in the highest possible degree of efficiency.

Any extensive uniformity in texts or in courses of study, whether town, city, county, state, sectional or national, has a tendency to operate against the development of initiative and progress in educational work. The more rigidly fixed are the limitations as to books, course of study, and methods, the more discouraging it is to a thoughtful student of education to work out his problems, and the more impossible it becomes to take any initiative in correcting evils. State uniformity is good when confined to schools of uniform needs. It will often be found in the schools of a very large city that their needs are quite divergent. This is recognized in New York, and the plan of uniformity in texts is therefore not applied to all the schools of the city of New York.

Where a state contributes less than half the funds necessary to maintain an institution or a school system, it should be willing to have a minor voice in directing the educational affairs of that system. To contribute little toward support and undertake to control, is undemocratic and offensively paternal. The most important factor in the stability and perpetuity of a democratic government is the self-control of self-supporting and adequately managed lawful institutions operating for the moral uplift of the people. The principle of local self-government is inherent and everlastingly fixed in the American people. Whenever a bit of territory demonstrates beyond question its ability to control its own affairs and adequately maintain its institutions, it is the fixed policy of this people to grant it all the rights and privileges of statehood. When a town grows into an important municipality and reaches the point where it must have new charter regulations, there is in all sections of the country a readiness on the part of the state government to grant the

municipality the privilege of controlling its own affairs within the general constitutional provisions of the state. The same principle should apply to educational institutions and systems of schools. There is an abiding sense of justice in the American people which impels them to recognize the right of institutions and social units self-supported and adequately managed within general constitutional limitations, to control their own affairs.

Agitation in favor of a uniformity of texts in city schools and other local systems has a tendency to magnify unreasonably the importance of textbooks as tools with which the teacher workman must work. And in proportion as this tendency grows will the higher spiritual work of the teacher be overshadowed. To prescribe certain texts for a well-organized city high school and hold over the students, as well as over properly trained specialists in the several departments of such a high school, the imperative demand of the state that such books shall be used, and no others, is to attach undue importance to the implements of the school. To force such teachers and students to use books which may be adequate to the needs of many rural high-school classes, but entirely adequate to the demands of a well-organized, well-officered urban high school, is often obnoxious to such teachers and students and detrimental to the interests of the school.

In some states that have enacted uniform textbook laws, provision has been made for the careful selection of the best texts for rural schools by able, upright, and unfettered experts; and in the state's contracts with successfully competing publishing houses, provision has been made whereby all city and other local systems within its borders providing in major or even in minor part funds for the maintenance of their schools, may have the benefit of the state prices on prescribed texts, if the local systems desire to use any of them. This of course would apply to elementary schools, as a state which does not recognize and support a system of high schools would have no right to adopt textbooks, prescribe a course of study, and contract for the supply of such books to high schools within its borders locally maintained.

Wherever the matter of expense and immunity from overcharging of local retailers are of serious concern, a progressive municipality or local system might as a matter of economy impose a very low *ad valorem* tax, barely sufficient to cover the actual cost of supplying the schools with necessary texts, and under careful business management of the school authorities provide such schools with an adequate supply of good textbooks at much less cost to the patrons of the schools than where they must be bought from local retailers with or without a state contract. This is done in many cities under a free textbook law, and is found to be not only a matter of business economy, but an important factor in adequately equipping the schools for efficient work.

In the absence of such a free textbook law and the imposition of a special tax for schoolbooks, a local system may devise a simple plan by which a small fee or per capita tax may be collected from all pupils entering the schools, and the aggregate of these fees constituting a book fund wisely managed by the proper school officials, could be used to supply the schools not only with texts, but with all stationery, apparatus, and equipment of tools and materials for all the special lines of work such a school system may wish to carry on. Where such a plan has been worked out and tactfully and judiciously introduced, it has readily met with popular favor, because as a matter of economy its value has been readily recognized.

DISCUSSION

SUPERINTENDENT R. K. BUEHRLE, Lancaster, Pa.—I should like to know how many cities furnish free books, and also whether state uniformity would lessen the activity of publishing houses. Textbooks ought to be criticized, and the criticism ought to come from teachers. A suitable United States history has not yet been written, because the middle and southern states have been slighted. The ordinary textbooks contain too much about New England. People who came to Georgia to escape religious persecution are hardly

mentioned. Virginia ought to have first place politically, certainly in the early history of the country.

SUPERINTENDENT J. W. STUDY, Ft. Wayne, Ind.—Mr. Carr has stated exact facts as to the reduced cost of textbooks under uniformity in books. A good teacher will not be limited to the text, but will teach the subject. Books adopted by a state committee will generally be as good as those adopted by the average school board. Scientific books ought not to be uniform, but Latin textbooks might be.

SUPERINTENDENT JOHN N. DAVIS, Stevens Point, Wis.—Much could be said against uniformity. State commissioners ought to have the right to criticize and have books revised. Uniformity is cursing the schools today. The course of study for high schools is dictated by the colleges; 40 per cent. of the students entering colleges fail, chiefly in algebra and Latin. I am opposed to college entrance examinations. Courses in algebra are mainly good for a man who will live and die in a laboratory. High schools ought to be independent of the colleges.

SUPERINTENDENT C. A. PROSSER, New Albany, Ind.—I heartily agree with Superintendent Carr. I look for high-school textbook uniformity law in Indiana soon. Such a bill had been introduced in the legislature. Too frequent change of textbooks was the cause of this. Many changes were made because of importunities of the trade and of agreeable book agents. The people are getting irritated, and drastic laws may come. The state board in Indiana will probably choose a list of books of each kind and allow local boards to adopt from this list, thus securing uniformity and elasticity.

SUPERINTENDENT W. E. STRIPLIN, Gadsden, Ala.—Competition in textbook making ought not to be removed. State uniformity has not improved the situation in some states in the south. Good graded systems ought not to be sacrificed for county schools.

SUPERINTENDENT VERNON DAVEY, East Orange, N. J.—We are looking too much to economy rather than the interests of the child. We should not grudge a half dollar in the cost of textbooks for use on a whole year's work. The main thing is the child. Commissions generally do not agree; they then compromise. It is not wise to make too frequent changes. My teachers of Latin recently asked for a change. They were called upon to name a book. Four different books were asked for.

SUPERINTENDENT WILLIS, Maryland.—We have had state adoption for five years. It has been the worst thing that could happen. Poorer books, on the whole, are used in states having uniformity. Some latitude is allowed in my county. I do not like one particular text in high schools. The high-school principal ought to be allowed some freedom in the selection of his book.

SUPERINTENDENT CARR.—Most of this discussion is on something else besides the subject. In Ohio, no book can be adopted that is not approved by the commission. I should like to compare lists with some states that do not have uniformity. I think books in uniformity states are as good as any. The idea that we should use every good book that comes out is fallacious.

PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF PUPIL GOVERNMENT

I. *CHILD-CITIZENSHIP AND THE SCHOOL CITY*

WILSON L. GILL, ORIGINATOR OF THE SCHOOL CITY, GERMANTOWN, PA.

Some time ago I came to a realization of a fact so simple and plain, and yet so important that it seems strange that we have not always recognized it and acted upon it. It is this: ***citizenship is a practical art, and ought to be taught in a practical, systematic, scientific, direct way.***

Having made that discovery, as hundreds of thousands may have done before, I felt compelled to use it for the happiness and welfare of our children and our children's

children. The result of my endeavor is a very simple plan which gives immediate pleasure to the pupils, aids greatly in correcting every wrong, develops a good spirit, aids in the construction of a strong and good character, and helps the young people to form good habits of life and citizenship.

Out of every hundred boys, roughly speaking, there are not more than from one to six who are viciously mischievous and they have much more good than bad in them and prefer to get large, visible, good results, with honor and glory, than to do wrong with a chance of punishment and ignominy. This plan provides the escape for these boys from their bad life and impels them, and they are glad to be so impelled to accept the immediate pleasures of active, productive, visible right doing. The ninety-nine other children are at the same time reaping their reward of happiness and better conditions.

Our people are willing to spend large sums of money to help reform boys who have gone astray. The money that it takes to support and reform, or rather, attempt to reform one boy, will, by means of the school-city method and plan, save ten, probably a hundred, maybe an entire thousand boys from that kind of life which makes them candidates for the reformatories. In view of these facts I appeal to you to use at least as much power to prevent the developing of candidates for the reformatories as is used to reform them after they have gone astray. This process is immeasurably cheaper and at the same time is immensely richer in good results.

Character the real object of public instruction.—The greatest aim and object of public education is to cultivate in the individuals to be educated a good conscience, and to secure for them a wise and resolute self-government and the desire and ability to co-operate for the common good; or, in other words, a good character. Sharpening the wits and storing the memory with facts, the apparent object of schools, colleges and universities, is, in reality, but a minor matter, and will easily and necessarily follow the attainment of the chief end of education.

Teaching precepts, old—Training systematically in citizenship, new.—Teaching the precepts of morality and the doctrine of one's relation to his fellows and to his country, is as old as literature. Enterprising and true teachers have always sought for ways to put such teachings into practice, and they have been successful as teachers in proportion to their success in this matter. A well-developed method of practical character-building and training in morality and in performing the duties and exercising the rights of citizenship, as is done in the school city, is thoroly systematic and successful and is new.

Public policy should demand it.—Every country should require it as a matter of public policy, and the highest legislative power in the state ought to give authority to it. There are many school-teachers and officers who are bright enough to see the importance of training the children in citizenship and to form good characters, and there are many who are sufficiently unselfish and self-sacrificing to perform the labor of thinking about and installing what is to them a new method in their schools. Such teachers should be encouraged to begin the work without waiting to be compelled by law.

An adequate method has been found.—A practical method which may be used in a wholesale way in all schools, for students of all ages, which makes it possible and easy for teachers to lead their pupils to cultivate good consciences, to govern themselves wisely and to co-operate for the general good, will do for the cause of morality, education, and human welfare, what the steam-engine and electric apparatus have done for the cause of manufacturers and human comfort. The school-city method of popular government has proved itself to be fully adequate to this great purpose. This large claim is not rashly or unadvisedly made.

Industrial training—healthful division of child's time.—It is not claimed, however, that this method can take the place of other needed progress in public instruction, made necessary by the social, political and industrial evolution which has accompanied the general introduction of machinery and the immense immigration from the farms to the cities, all of which have a direct bearing on the moral and civic conditions, and, consequently, call

for notice in this place. The changed conditions demand for the public thrift and the public safety, that children be trained in productive industry, and that intelligent attention shall be given to making a healthful division of the children's time among book-work, productive industry, recreation, and rest, and to the proper housing and feeding of the people. Let it be noted that by productive industry is not meant that kind of manual training in which a child is engaged only two or three hours a week, and in which he uses up material furnished out of the public funds and does not give a visible and commercially valuable and adequate return.

Supervision needed.—Even such enterprising ones need the encouragement and help of constant supervision by a competent and legally authorized specialist in moral and civic training. Such special supervision is at least as important as state supervision of any branch now taught in the schools. This is necessary for many reasons, a notable one being that many teachers who have had no experience in the use of the method and do not fully understand the principles involved, think it would rebound to their credit if they should change the plan and thus make it appear to be wholly or at least in part their own. Such ones generally fail in accomplishing the object of the school city, and the whole plan is abandoned, unjustly discrediting the movement. Some of these same teachers would have succeeded had they been under competent supervision. Most teachers are women, who have had no practice or knowledge of citizenship, therefore they need the assistance of supervision.

Those who take up a new method, even with very best intentions, naturally tend to relapse into their old habits. To prevent this they need constant encouragement, till the new habit is fully and permanently established. Whenever a teacher says, "The pupils have lost interest," it is only another way of saying, "The teacher has lost interest and has fallen back into his old ways."

There are school teachers and officers who will not take the trouble to introduce this method. Whether or not the latter are in the vast majority may not be of much importance. That there are any such, is sufficient reason for looking to the higher powers for favorable decision in this matter.

A question for statesmen.—Whether the children of a nation shall be trained as subjects of a monarchy, as is being done ordinarily thruout the world, or as self-respecting, co-operating citizens of a republic, is a question that demands the attention of broad-minded statesmen, whose insight is sufficiently penetrating and whose outlook is far-reaching enough to enable them to discover a vast peril to the democratic institutions of our great republic at the present time, whose judgment is good enough to enable them to recognize the remedy when it is placed before them, and who have enough backbone to act promptly and effectively in this matter. They should put it beyond the choice of all who might hinder. They should lay down the law that the schools of a republic shall train its people while children as citizens, not as subjects, and that they shall make the developing of good character in the children the first aim and a specific practical part of the daily work of the schools.

Facts and philosophy.—In the United States, the greatest and most successful of all republics, the one great failure in the government is the municipality, and this is a sore spot that threatens death to the democratic spirit of our republic. It is worth while to analyze the situation, with a view to seeing the principal causes for the weakness in American municipal government.

The most glaring defect is that a great mass of the educated people do not go to the primaries, and they neglect their municipal duties. That leaves the effective political voting power in the hands of those who are comparatively uneducated. They in turn are organized and manipulated by men who make a business of municipal politics, not always, but generally, for the money they can get from the public treasury, and, by means of blackmail, from private persons and establishments, and especially from those engaged in forbidden or restricted practices and business.

Anarchy fostered.—Under this pressure, secret opposition and disloyalty to constituted authority is constantly fostered. Many pupils regard their pleasure and interest as opposed to those of their teachers, who are apt to be thought of as spies and in some cases as enemies, instead of friends and guides.

Old-fashioned school government is monarchy, in which the teacher endeavors to rule by means of his conscience and arbitrary authority, and the political results are as we see them in the municipalities of the United States.

The remedy.—The recognition of the cause of the evil is almost a declaration of the only remedy, which is systematically to train the individual wisely to cultivate his own conscience and be governed by it, rather than by that of the teacher; to co-operate with his fellows for the common good, rather than for mischief; to form the habits of law and order, rather than those of anarchy. In other words, the remedy for the apathy of educated men, in reference to their municipal duties, which is in effect anarchy, not of the lowest, but possibly of the most dangerous type, is to train them while young to think and act and to form the habits of citizens, instead of, as in the past, training them in the schools and colleges as subjects of monarchy. It is encouraging to notice that there has been improvement in this in many schools in the past ten years, and that the best and most successful teachers have always to some extent led their pupils, instead of driving them.

Lost liberty and death.—"Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," and the educated people have not paid the price. Among the consequences are insufficient results from the expenditure of public funds, more disease and a higher death-rate than there should be. The people have lost a part of their liberty, if, because of the inability or dishonesty of the public servants, they must labor additional hours to pay their taxes, and quite as much so if they have lost life because of bad drainage, dirty streets, impure water and milk, bad food, or other evils which should be prevented by the government.

Schools and colleges are to blame.—As this state of affairs is charged to the account of educated people, let us take a closer look. We see practically the following: The uneducated men, who can be easily handled by the machinery of the bosses, all vote; most of those who have had but little schooling vote; a college and university education is almost a certain guarantee that a man will not attend the primaries or perform his other municipal duties. This seems to throw the blame on the schools, colleges, and universities. They teach right principles. The fault does not seem to be in the books. The fault is in the school management. From the primary school till the man graduates from the university he is made to feel and to know that he has simply to obey, and nothing further to do with the government of himself and his fellows, and that he is a tattle-tale and sneak if he brings a wrong-doer to justice, and is mean and dishonorable if, when called upon by the authorities to testify, he does not so shape his testimony as to clear the offender.

TWO FUNDAMENTAL SCHOOL-REPUBLIC DOCUMENTS

In preparation for organizing a school republic it is desirable to get the children to want it, and to let all of them sign a petition asking for the privilege. This petition can be used as a constant reminder to the young citizens, and to aid others to understand the purpose of the school republic. Following is a simple form:

To whomsoever may have the power to grant this petition.—We, the undersigned pupils, ask that we be allowed to govern ourselves as American citizens and that we be instructed how to do this. On condition that this privilege be given to us, we hereby agree: to make good laws and obey them, and to make every reasonable effort to be true and faithful citizens, seeking the greatest good for our School Republic, for every citizen in it, and for the community in which we live.

Under some circumstances if not all, it may be well to let the document recite some of the reasons for the petition and be more specific in the pledge. It should be clear in disclaiming either directly or indirectly, to have originated with the children who sign it. The following form aims to cover these ideas:

PETITION FOR CITIZENSHIP

To whomsoever may be in a position to grant our petition.—We, the undersigned, pupils in a public school, pray that you grant to us the privileges and responsibilities of American citizenship, now, while day by day we are spinning our lives into strong unbreakable habits, and weaving this warp and woof into our permanent characters.

We have learned something of the spirit of our American institutions, of the history of our country and of present conditions. Tho our people are prosperous, a deplorable civic condition has been pointed out to us, that a large part of the intelligent men who were educated as we are now being educated, do not perform the fundamental duties of citizenship, such as attending primaries, voting at city elections and serving on juries. Thereby the democratic foundations of our great republic are endangered. We have been shown how we may be saved from such a fate by being trained into faithful and effective defenders and developers of the democratic rights to which we are heirs, tho we have not yet come into our heritage, and we adopt these words and sentiments, which have been submitted to us, to be our own, and pray that you will seriously consider and grant our petition, which, stated more in detail, is:

That we may be permitted to govern ourselves, make laws, elect our own legislature, executive and judicial officers, and be instructed how to do these things, and that we be given a charter defining these rights and duties;

That we may be taught, day by day, the rights and duties of citizenship, and the spirit of equality, justice and kindness on which they are based;

That our teachers, as they train us to be independent in the solution of mathematical problems, shall train us to deal in the same way with the civic and social problems which arise daily in our midst;

We ask this most especially for these two reasons: first, that we may enjoy at the present time the pleasure and all the advantages of true democracy and at once begin active service for the welfare of ourselves, our schools, our community and our country; and second, that we may be fully prepared and in the habit of performing our civic duties when we arrive at the age of twenty-one years and come into our full heritage of adult citizenship.

Pledge

Recognizing that it is a great privilege for which we are asking, we base our petition on the following solemn promise and condition: that we will be loyal, obedient and faithful to every branch of our government from that of the United States of America and our State, to our own local School Republic and to all lawful authority; that we will endeavor to make good laws and to observe them; that we will use our best judgment in choosing officers; that when chosen to any office we will accept the responsibility and perform the duties to the best of our ability; that we will encourage and help our officers without reference to the way our individual votes may have been cast; that if summoned to appear in court we will comply and give every reasonable assistance to enable the judge to discover the truth and to arrive at a just decision whatever our relation may be to the case; that we will abide by the judgment of our court, when approved by the principal of our school; and that we will, to the best of our ability, perform faithfully all the duties of citizenship.

SCHOOL-REPUBLIC LAWS[1]

[1] The young people are free to accept, change, or reject these laws, and to make additional laws as circumstances require. They invariably accept them without change, and generally with much enthusiasm.

CHAPTER I. THE GENERAL CITY LAW

Do to others as you would have them do to you. This is the natural law, without which no popular government can succeed, and it is the general law of this School Republic to which all other laws and regulations must conform.

CHAPTER II. THINGS PROHIBITED

Article 1. Do not to others that which you would not have them do to you.

ORDER

Art. 2. Anything which disturbs the order in halls, classrooms or in any place within the jurisdiction of the School Republic is prohibited.

Art. 3. Anything which is profane, rude, intentionally unkind to any living creature, or impolite, is prohibited.

CLEANLINESS

Art. 4. Anything which detracts from the neat and orderly appearance of our School Republic is prohibited.

HEALTH

Art. 5. Anything which detracts from the healthful conditions of our School Republic is prohibited.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE PROPERTY

Art. 6. Anything which mars or destroys property in our School Republic is prohibited.

CHAPTER III. DUTIES

Article 1. Every citizen is in duty bound to call the attention of the authorities to any violation of the laws of this School Republic.

CHAPTER IV. PUNISHMENTS

Article 1. Any citizen violating any laws of this School Republic shall be subject to punishment not less than a reprimand, and not greater than a withdrawal of the right of citizenship.

Art. 2. No punishment shall be carried into execution before it has been approved by the principal of the school, and then it must be put promptly into effect.

Plan of school city.—The plan of the school city is to organize all the children of each schoolroom, under a charter given by the higher authorities, as citizens of a municipality. These citizens elect a mayor, judge, other administrative and judicial officers and a president of the city council. All citizens in the room who have not been elected or appointed to some office are members of the city council. The mayor appoints his cabinet and subordinates, and has power to remove them at will. Nomination by petition, proportional representation and the initiative and referendum enable the whole body of citzens to express and enforce its will at any time, either with or independent of its officers. Elections, for several reasons, occur frequently, once in ten weeks—and experience has shown that it is desirable to make the term of the police officers short. In most primary schools every citizen not elected or appointed to some other office is a candidate for a place on the police force, for which a high ideal of gentility and kindness is set.

School state.—To create a good *esprit du corps* for the whole school and for obvious civic and educational purposes, the school cities in one building constitute a school state and elect a governor, chief justice, secretary of state, and such other officers as may be desired, and each city sends one or two representatives to the state legislature. Affairs of the whole school or of citizens of two school cities will be taken care of by the state officers.

School national government and international relations.—School state governments may be united in school national governments and these may set up international relations.

Good results.—Many instances of fine moral results are reported from the different schools. Of course, the results are not uniform, as the school city is not an automatic machine out of which all must come in exactly the same shape. It is a method, and its degree of success depends upon the interest and skill of the principal and teachers who use it.

Almost without exception, when a troublesome boy accepts the responsibility of an office in the school city, he instantly puts off his ugly character and assumes one of glad obedience and respect for authority and others' rights, and at once begins to help in all that is right, instead of hindering, as was his habit. If, then, the teacher understands the method and is true to it, he will be friendly to the boy, consult and encourage him, sympathize with him and help him to maintain his enthusiasm, and the boy is saved permanently. Women teachers, with correct intuitions and hearts full of sympathy, if they understand the simple method, will seldom fail to make the work of regeneration permanent. The condition of the school city is almost an exact index of the character and condition of the head of the school and of the teacher.

Industrial, moral and civic evolution.—When our Republic was young, the mass of her people lived on farms. Boys and girls went to school only two or three months in the year. For the rest of the time they labored with their parents in the fields and at the spinning-wheel and loom, always under moral, religious, industrial and civic influence, and training. The hoe and spade of the colonies have given way to the steam-driven machines on the vast prairies; the spinning-wheel and hand-loom to immense cotton and woolen mills; the

country forge to stupendous rolling-mills, furnaces, foundries, and forges. By such means the children of today are separated during work hours from their parents.

No systematic character training.—The public schools, which consume these released hours and years in training the intellect and cramming the memory, make no systematic, intelligent endeavor to furnish that kind of character-training which our ancestors received from their parents. The War of the Revolution failed to wipe out that vestige of monarchy which lurked in the government of the little country school. That was too insignificant to be thought of, for in those days the American citizens' characters were built in the open country, under the influence of their parents, the heroes of the Revolution. Now, American character is developed in great swarming buildings, under the weight of a heavy, crowded, intellectual curriculum, and that vestige of monarchy which was left in the school has grown, with the increasing months of the school year, to large proportions and is wielded by masters, who themselves have been trained as subjects, not as free men.

Thus, the public schools and colleges, boasted bulwarks of our liberties, have unwittingly, but ceaselessly, nursed the spirit of monarchy, and thru childhood and youth subjected our whole people to it, to that extent, that when they reach the age of manhood they do not go to the primaries and municipal polls, and thus they fail to enter into their heritage of citizenship. This is what has made government by the bosses not only possible, but inevitable. Fortunately, some of the municipal bosses, may be many of them, are so patriotic that they would gladly see political power restored to an intelligent, active, faithful citizenship, and will not use their power to prevent their own children from being trained in the privileges and responsibilities of faithful citizenship.

School-city children's contribution to the cause of universal peace.—School cities have been established in other parts of the world. Last week I completed arrangements for the exchange of letters between the school citizens of Japan and the United States, to be developed on a large scale. The arrangements provide for translations. The letters may take up any topics, tho the basis of the correspondence will be civic interests and international friendship. The good results for which I hope, not only for the cause of international peace but of geography, language, and civic and social relations, are so obvious that it is unnecessary for me to take time at present to point them out. There has already been enough corresponding between school children of different nations to demonstrate the feasibility of this project, carried on systematically and on a large scale, for the specific purpose of developing international friendship and peace.

Objections.—There is no possible objection which can be raised against the school city, which cannot with the same reason be raised against the teaching of arithmetic and of any moral precepts or practices. For instance, Dr. Harris says if he wanted his grandchildren to learn the disreputable practices of ward heelers, he would send them to a school city as constituted by Mr. Gill. We do not teach these practices in the school city any more than in a church they teach lying and stealing.

Appeal to all school superintendents.—I hereby appeal to you, superintendents of all public schools and to all patriots and friends of a government of the people, for the people, and by the people, to join in this movement to provide that every child who enters a schoolhouse shall be treated while there as a free man, and be confirmed in the character and habits of a free-born, faithful, and patriotic citizen, not only ready to die, if necessary, for his native land, but what may be more difficult and quite as important, actually living for his race, patiently and fearlessly defending his rights and faithfully performing all his public duties.

II. *SCHOOL CITIES*

OLIVER P. CORNMAN, DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

I have so high a regard for the sincerity and singleness of purpose of Mr. Gill in his championship of the particular method of pupil government that he advocates, and so thoro a respect for his unselfish devotion to the cause, that I regret that in discussing this

question I am constrained to view the method and its results from a quite different point of view. Perhaps we may find consolation for the strange disparities in the reports of men supposed to be viewing the same thing by recalling Saxe's old poem of the five blind men and their diverse accounts of the elephant they went to see, and by frankly acknowledging the certain blindness inherent in us all upon which Wm. James has discoursed so entertainingly.

Many of our plans of pupil government, it seems to me, do not sufficiently concentrate upon the problem of realizing the best possibilities of the individual pupil, but are suggested and controlled by the ulterior consideration of finding a remedy, or panacea if may be, for the admitted and deplored ills of the body politic.

"The Shame of the Cities" is, unfortunately, so familiar a story with us that it is read with a shrug and the hopeless interrogation, "What are you going to do about it?" A favorite reply to this question, and one which in this age and country of enthusiastic belief in the possibilities of education is certain to receive the emphatic endorsement of almost all well-meaning people, is "Begin with the children, and so inculcate right principles and develop in them civic consciences that the rising generation of upright men and women fully conscious of their civic responsibilities will so regenerate the cities that their government will become the *pride*, rather than the *shame* of the Republic." The "school city" is this reply narrowed down to a very definite and specific form of application.

The failure of our municipal governments is so lamentable, the motives of the "school-city" reformers so unquestioned, the suggested remedy apparently so efficacious, that boards of education, the newspapers, public-spirited citizens, in fact the laity in general, give the "school city" their cordial support. The only class of people who question its value as a panacea for municipal ills are the experienced educators of our public-school systems. Here and there "school cities" have been organized. In some schools they have been declared successful, in others they have been given up, but the great majority of educators seem to regard the paternal form of government that obtains in the schools generally to be the legitimate form for school purposes, and the method by which the best character training can be most successfully accomplished. This is not entirely due to a mere conservative adherence to the old established order of things (the tendency in education has too often been the other way, adopting the new for newness' sake being frequently charged up against the modern schoolman), but is based upon careful and intelligent consideration of the case in the light of expert knowledge of child nature and its possibilities, and of experience of the behavior of children in the community life of the school. It is held by many educators that while a main purpose and actual accomplishment of the schools is to train their pupils in self-government, yet it is not possible to organize such a thoro-going system of self-government as that contemplated in the "school city" without its being under such surveillance and control by the school authorities as to essentially negative its self-governing elements, and that a frank paternalism is better than a thinly disguised one. Indeed, it is asserted that a merely nominal self-government, strictly supervised and directed by the teacher, such as the "school city" must inevitably become, approximates only too closely (however unintentionally) the form of government—boss-rule under free men's charters—by which many of our municipalities are actually controlled. The analogy of the school organization to the city *de facto* government becomes so true under such conditions that the children run the danger of having their habits of thought and conduct trained along the very lines which a true training in good citizenship would lead them to combat. These and other dangers of the "school city" have been well pointed out by Dr. Harris who sees in such a civic dramatization the dilemma for the pupils of a school of demagogery and unscrupulous politics or of servile discipleship under the almost hypnotic leadership of a strong teacher.

These are some of the considerations which bring many educators to pause before they adopt this otherwise most attractive scheme for the civic regeneration of the race. But the value and success of the "school city" cannot be settled satisfactorily on *a priori*

grounds. The matter must be put to the test of actual trial, and the results carefully and impartially studied. General testimony of principals who have organized "school cities," unchecked by other investigation, seems to me of little value in establishing scientific conclusions. Many who have started the "school city" are so enthusiastic for the great end in view that their judgment of the means is liable to be colored; others are likely to feel that the partial or complete failure of the "school city" may be charged up to their personal mismanagement, and so do not care to report lack of success. In order that the study should be of real value it should be conducted at first hand by actual visitation of the "school cities" to observe their operations, and by conference with the principals and teachers having them in charge. The actual sentiments and opinions of the children themselves should also be obtained as a very important part of the whole inquiry.

In investigating results of the "school-city" experiment, I have not been able to make any such thoro-going inquiry, but merely submit as a partial contribution toward the solution of the problem the returns from a *questionnaire* answered by the teachers (forty-five in all) of three schools in which "school cities" had been organized for about one year, and the answers made by the pupils of one of the schools to another set of questions submitted to them.

In order to secure as far as possible unbiased replies, the pupils were directed to omit their names and write only *grade* and *sex* upon their papers. Returns were not obtained from pupils below third grade, as most of the questions, tho very simple, are beyond the comprehension of first- and second-grade pupils. Many of the third-grade, and even some of the fourth-grade pupils wrote "I do not know" in answer to the questions calling for reasons. The replies were collated separately for boys and girls and by grades and departments (grammar and primary). Some interesting differences for age and sex were thus disclosed.

The summary of results showed that the distribution of "offices" had been very general, nearly half (47 per cent.) of the 601 pupils reporting having served as officers. The higher the grade the greater the dislike for office, as 13 per cent. of the primary pupils, and 50 per cent. of the grammar pupils replied that they objected to serving. The grammar-grade pupils seem to be more willing to obey the officers, since 25 per cent. reply that they object, while 37 per cent. of the primary scholars object; but the older pupils are more skeptical as to the value of the plan, for only 68 per cent. wish it continued, while 82 per cent. of the primary pupils vote in its favor. The girls are slightly more favorable in their judgment of the officers, 69 per cent. replying that they regard most of the officers as good, while only 63 per cent. of the boys record this opinion. The girls are also more willing to obey in the ratio of 78 per cent. to 62 per cent. They manifest about the same degree of interest in the continuance of the "school city," 73 per cent. of each sex voting for it.

It is frequently asserted by the advocates of the "school city" that the pupils are not only practically unanimous for it, but are filled with enthusiasm about it. This is probably due to the fact that the children are questioned when assembled together, and by one who, they feel, is enthusiastic for the system. Any experienced teacher knows that under such circumstances children will vote unanimously for anything. The individual returns, however, show little enthusiasm and considerable doubt as to the value of the plan. A large majority of the teachers (91 per cent.) it is true, voted in favor of continuing the experiment, many, however, because of the great end in view, some merely because of the monitorial features of the system which they favor; but they do not give strong testimony of its value *and in all these schools the plan was finally abandoned.* The teachers considered that about one-fifth of all the officers elected discharged their duties poorly, 8 per cent. of the teachers reported noticing "many" cases of disrespect to the officers, 26 per cent. reported little interest even in elections (altho children take a great interest in any break in school routine) while 68 per cent. reported that their pupils showed little interest in the "school city" in general.

In one school a special test was made of the pupils' spontaneous interest in the "school city." The general election was to be held according to charter, three times a year, i. e., at the beginning of each term—the school year being divided into three periods. Two general elections were held, but the time for the third was purposely allowed to pass by. Not a child out of over 850 took sufficient interest to ask why election was not held. The election of classroom officers was arranged to take place at beginning of each month. This also was allowed to lapse in May, seven elections having been held previously during the school year. Only two instances were reported of pupils asking the reason for this omission. Such unconscious testimony strongly substantiates the opinions expressed by the teachers of the lack of interest in the system. Moreover, 27 per cent. of all the pupils, 32 per cent. of the grammar grade, voted to discontinue the system. This in spite of the fact that they believed the school authorities to be strongly in favor of the plan. Of course, the anonymous nature of their report gave them freedom to vote as they thought; but no doubt many were influenced by the favorable opinion of their teachers. If one-fourth or one-third of the citizens of the United States wished its form of government changed, the country would, it seems to me, be in a deplorable way. A mere three-fourths majority in favor of the Republic would certainly not be a very satisfactory one. Of the thirty or more "school cities" organized in the public schools of Philadelphia all but one or two have been discontinued. Those that still claim existence have been so modified as to retain little more than the monitorial features of the original plan.

Again it is claimed that children as a rule show excellent judgment in the election of their officers, tho why they should show good judgment in this difficult matter when they have very poor judgment in almost everything else (immaturity not being the period of "judgment"), is difficult to understand. Teachers report that they regard only 68 per cent. of those elected as "good" officers and that 17 per cent. were "bad" in conduct by ordinary school standards, while only 66 per cent. of the pupils report that they considered most of the officers "good." These reports seem to show that the judgment displayed in choosing officers is what might be expected of children, crude and faulty. It is sometimes claimed that the election of the "bad" boy to office makes a surprising change in his conduct and general attitude toward the school. This is, perhaps, true in some instances, but not in all, nor even in a majority of cases. In the opinion of the teachers about one-half (47 per cent.) of such cases showed some improvement under the responsibilities of office.

In the grammar grades, as noted above, fully half the children do not wish to hold office. In a couple of instances not a pupil was willing to serve for his class. The unwillingness to hold office in the higher grades seems to be due largely to the development of desire for popularity and of ideals of honor and friendship, that do not appear in the lower grades. The desire may be wrong, and the ideals imperfect, nevertheless they operate as strong motives either to refuse office or to discharge its duties perfunctorily. Like Touchstone's Audrey these ideals may be poor things but they are their own and the best they have and we should be exceedingly careful how we tamper with them. "Because it makes enemies," "because you lose friends," "because I don't like to report others," are sample reasons given. Others simply object for selfish reasons, "Because you don't have so much fun," "because it is too much trouble," etc. The primary-grade pupil who hardly knows what popularity means, who is a natural tale-bearer, and who scarcely develops friendships to a degree worthy of the name, makes the more willing and efficient officer. Indeed, it has seemed to me that in the lower grades (leaving out of consideration the first and second grades to whom the whole system is nearly if not quite incomprehensible) the "school-city" plan works most smoothly. They take the matter seriously, not questioning for a moment the wisdom of the school authorities who have organized the system, and accepting with childish faith the things about it that they do not understand. The intelligence of the higher grade pupil, which *a priori* should fit him better for citizenship and assumption of officership in the "school city," enables him to see the weak points

of the system, while his selfish interests and emotional development prompt him to shirk his responsibilities.

It is claimed for the "school city" as an incidental merit that it greatly improves the discipline of the school in which it is organized. This is hardly borne out by the testimony of the *questionnaire*. A large majority of the teachers hold the opinion that it exerts no effect one way or the other, a small minority (11 per cent. for classroom discipline and 35 per cent. for general discipline) hold that it exerts a good influence, while 2 per cent. expressed the belief that its influence is for the worse. I am inclined to conclude from this testimony and from my own personal observation that the influence of the "school city" upon the school discipline is not very considerable. A well-disciplined school will continue so after organization as a "school city" and a poorly disciplined one is not likely to be very greatly improved. Indeed, a "school city" is liable to become riotous in the extreme, unless carefully supervised and controlled.

The answer to the questions of the pupils' *questionnaire*, which called for reasons for their opinions, plainly disclosed the great difference in the point of view of primary and of higher grade pupils; the former seemed to miss the significance of the "school-city" idea almost completely; the latter, while showing somewhat greater appreciation of its meaning, were inclined to place school-boy and girl ideals and traditions of conduct above it. Nowhere was there manifested enthusiasm for the "school city," *nor a sense of the relation between present and future responsibilities*. The answers seemed to show that pupils of the elementary school are neither ready for, nor desirous of, a system of self-government in the school.

The discussion thus far has been restricted to the executive functions of the "school city." The legislative and judicial branches of the "school-city" government should be considered in detail, but time limitations forbid. It must suffice to say that the exercise of these functions is considerably more difficult than those of the other branch of government calling to a still greater extent upon capacities which the child does not possess. It is true that a "school city" may be organized in all these departments, and be kept running under the careful and constant direction and supervision of the school principal and teachers. Just as the modern animal trainer can teach his four-footed pupils the most marvelous tricks, the children can be made to play the game more or less well, but the self-government is only nominal, and the real significance of the plan, either completely misunderstood or at best but very vaguely apprehended. This is in complete accord with what is now known of child nature from careful observation and experiment of the trained psychologist and pedagogue. Children are not miniature replicas of adults, but are essentially different in many of their instinctive traits, emotional dispositions, and intellectual characteristics. The "school-city" system appeals to instincts and emotions which either do not exist or are undeveloped, and makes demands upon the child's intelligence which he is unprepared to meet. In short, it shoots over the pupils' heads, and so fails to effect that development of the civic conscience, and that preparation for good citizenship for which it is designed.

The lack of interest that the children manifest in the "school city" after the first flush of novelty has subsided, the comparatively neutral effect that it has upon the discipline of the school, the great amount of supervision and control that must be exercised by the teacher in order to produce even the semblance of success, all seem to indicate that the system is not adapted to the nature and development of the pupil of the elementary school, and tell strongly against its value for the great object which it has in view.

Tho the "school city" may not accomplish what is claimed for it, nor be a legitimate method of training in citizenship, yet there may perhaps be derived from its study suggestions for the utilization of class and school spirit, and the development of a helpful co-operation on the part of the children that will be of considerable value in that general development of character upon which all good citizenship is necessarily based.

It is this general development of character that is the fundamental consideration.

The special forms of training as provided in the "school city" and by other similar devices are unimportant if not positively meretricious. I think this has been borne out by such scientific investigations as we have at hand. Instance the following conclusions reached by Earl Barnes as the result of a concrete study of the development of children's political ideas: "The sense of the abstract state and of their obligations to it will come to children only later in life. *Special emphasis on citizenship as usually understood in elementary education is largely wasted time;* and yet the patriotic teacher will breed patriots in all his attempts to make good men and women. Citizenship is but one attribute of good and intelligent men and women and this study calls us back once more to the wholeness of elementary education. All attempts to make good artisans, good leaders of commerce, good soldiers and officers, or good citizens and rulers by any short-cut will produce only one-sided, uncertain, and dangerous grown-up children." With these conclusions I am fully in accord.

DISCUSSION

SUPERINTENDENT E. C. WILLARD, Stamford, Conn.—We are obliged to teach text-books in civics abstractly. By this method, the subject can be taught concretely. We differentiate this from all other subjects. If has been an unqualified success in Stamford. It may do a great deal of good and certainly no harm. It has been in successful operation ten years in one of the schools of Syracuse, N. Y.; also in one school in Philadelphia eight years. Thirty schools in Philadelphia have used it successfully from one to three years. The results always depend upon the tact of the teachers using it.

SUPERINTENDENT J. H. PHILLIPS, Birmingham, Ala.—We are still experimenting. We are not ready with positive conclusions. Great caution is necessary in introducing a plan of this kind. The results so far in Birmingham are good. The boys have been made responsible. This has helped the teacher. Most school troubles are caused by a few active spirits. The great majority are silent. This scheme gives voice to the great majority. It is especially successful in four schools in Birmingham. It gives voice and power to the better sentiment of the school and public sentiment in the school, as everywhere else, is the controlling spirit.

SUPERINTENDENT WINFRED HOWARD BABBITT, Hawaii.—There is a peculiar situation in Hawaii. There are children of many different nationalities, to be made into American citizens. The value of school city is here greater than elsewhere. Great results have been accomplished by this method, greater, I believe, than are claimed for it.

D. ROUND TABLE ON AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

TOPIC: PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

In the absence of Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Agriculture, Dr. A. C. True, director of the Office of Experiment Stations, was asked to represent the Department of Agriculture. Dr. True spoke informally and the substance of his remarks was as follows:

The Honorable Secretary of Agriculture has been prevented from coming to this meeting because of press of other business. He has not commissioned me to represent him on this occasion, but I feel that it is proper for me to say a few words relating to the educational work of the great department over which he presides. The secretary is greatly interested in all that pertains to the education of our rural people and under his administration the national Department of Agriculture has been encouraged to promote very actively the movement for education along agricultural lines. Later in this meeting Mr. Crosby

will describe somewhat specifically what the department is doing in this matter, and I will not anticipate what he has to say.

I may, however, call attention to the fact that a large part of the work of the department is broadly educational. Thru its investigations and explorations it is collecting a large amount of new information on agricultural subjects which it is disseminating broadcast thruout the country thru numerous popular and scientific publications.

Under the law by which it was established the department is authorized to use the term "agriculture" in its broadest sense. Not only farming, but also horticulture, forestry, and whatever relates to the growth and preservation of plants or domestic animals, in villages and cities as well as in the open country, come within its province. The department is, therefore, doing much which is of interest and value to teachers, students, and other people in the towns as well as on the farms.

In recent years the department has found that it is very desirable to supplement its publications with local demonstrations of new crops and methods and with oral instruction at farmers' institutes and other assemblies of people interested in agriculture.

It has also realized that if the work done by the department and the state agricultural experiment stations is to be thoroly utilized for the improvement of our agriculture and the intellectual and social uplift of the masses of our rural people, the minds of the country children must be prepared to receive the new information which may aid them in their future life work. The department has therefore engaged in the propaganda for the introduction of agricultural subjects into our school curricula, and in co-operation with the agricultural colleges and educational leaders in the various states has sought to ascertain and define what is feasible in the development of a system of agricultural education suited to the needs of the vast number of our people who live in the country and carry on our agriculture.

Entering into the movement for agricultural education at a time when it had few friends, the department has greatly rejoiced in its rapid progress in recent years. Today the leaders of public opinion in this country, with the President of the United States at their head, are generally convinced that our schools should be brought into closer touch with our industries and that subjects relating to such a fundamental industry as agriculture should be included in the school curricula.

Responding to the demands of this movement, this great National Education Association is every year showing a deeper interest in measures looking to the improvement of education for our rural people. And today this Association is to take an important advance step in the organization of a Department of Rural and Agricultural Education.

It seems that we have reached a new stage in the development of this movement. Thus far it has been mainly a propaganda for reform. Now the time has come for the definite formulation of programs for these new phases of education and the undertaking of many experimental efforts to adapt the new courses to our general educational schemes. You, who are actually engaged in the work of our schools, are therefore banding yourselves together to study the problems of agricultural education and to make and put into effect plans for this new type of education.

There is reason for general congratulation that the cause of agricultural education has reached such a point. The Department of Agriculture is glad that you are met here for such a purpose. It desires to aid you in this great work in any way that it can. It now seems assured that the forces in favor of the improvement of the education of our rural people are to be greatly strengthened by a closer organization and sympathy. We may therefore hope for widespread and permanent results in the cause of agricultural education in the near future.

NOTES ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF AGRICULTURE

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

[*An Abstract*]

Commissioner Brown urged that in the training of teachers of agriculture both the scientific and the pedagogical purpose should be kept steadily in view. He expressed confidence that effective co-operation could be maintained in such education between scientific specialists on the one hand, and pedagogical teachers on the other hand. He referred to Senate bill 3392, "to provide for the advancement of instruction in agriculture, manual training and home economics in the state normal schools of the United States."

This bill, said Commissioner Brown, is one of several which have been introduced at this session of Congress, providing for national aid to education in the several states, and particularly for national aid as regards education in agriculture, home economics and other industrial subjects. The fact that several bills touching in different ways upon this subject have been brought before Congress is a clear indication of public interest in this matter.

Principle involved.—The principle involved in the granting of such aid to the states by the general government has already found definite lodgment in the policy of the national government, as shown by the appropriations made under the second Morrill act, of 1890, and the Nelson amendment of 1907, providing for a more complete endowment and support of agricultural and mechanical colleges. It is generally agreed that the working of this principle, in its bearing on the support of the land-grant colleges, has been extremely beneficial. One indication of the value of such appropriations is seen in the fact that they have encouraged rather than retarded the support of these state institutions by the several state governments.

The information at hand in the bureau of education shows that in the year 1896 these land-grant colleges received in the aggregate 29 per cent. of their support from the national government. Ten years later, in 1906, owing to the increase of state appropriations, this proportion of their support from federal funds was reduced to 15.4 per cent. In this ten-year period the congressional grant was increased by 19 per cent.

Increase in state aid.—Continuing, Commissioner Brown said: In the same time the amount which these institutions received from their several states was increased by about 240 per cent. Whereas in 1896 twenty-five of these institutions received more than one-half of their support from the national government, in 1906 only fifteen received more than one-half of their support from the national government. These figures show a wholesome tendency. They would seem to indicate that the granting of national aid for the promotion of education might safely be extended to other classes of institutions, provided it can be shown that there is a national need that these institutions be advanced more rapidly in their educational efficiency than they can be advanced without such national aid. The land-grant colleges were intended to meet what was clearly a national need, that of institutions in all of the states which should promote agricultural improvement by providing the higher grades of agricultural instruction.

This had been found to be an extremely difficult undertaking. Even with the encouragement by the first Morrill act, 1862, the development of these institutions was painfully slow. Since the granting of an annual appropriation for their better support, under the second Morrill act, their usefulness has been very rapidly extended and increased. During the period since 1890, however, industrial changes have gone forward with great rapidity, the tendency of our rural population to gravitate toward the cities has continued, and the need of a better industrial education for our city populations has been emphasized by the increasing severity of world competition. For all of these reasons the problem of a better education of an industrial type, in both country and city, has steadily become more acute.

Federal assistance needed.—It is extremely doubtful whether these growing needs

can be met in the near future in a majority of the states unless the encouragement of federal appropriations be added to the efforts of the states and of local communities. There is, however, good reason to hope that any appropriations which may be made to this end by the national government will encourage and promote such provision by states and communities as will in good measure meet the need. Commissioner Brown, in concluding, said: I would recommend that, as a preliminary to any new federal appropriation for educational purposes in the several states, a special inquiry be instituted by Congress to cover the points indicated, and any other items which may properly enter into a plan of federal appropriation for educational purposes.

"In my judgment a large saving would be effected even if such an inquiry should occupy from one to two years of time and involve an expenditure of from fifty to one hundred thousand dollars." The speaker also called attention to the fact that certain modifications should be made in Senate bill 3392 before it is put upon its passage.

CO-OPERATION OF STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES AND STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

I. KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD, PRESIDENT MASSACHUSETTS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, AMHERST, MASS.

In 1905 Governor W. L. Douglas of Massachusetts appointed a state Commission on Industrial Education, of which Hon. Carroll D. Wright was chairman, for the purpose of investigating the needs of the commonwealth with respect to industrial education, and of reporting a plan of operations which would meet the need. That Commission presented to the legislature of 1906 a strikingly complete and extremely valuable printed report, a document destined to become a classic in the literature of the subject.

Agriculture as a phase of industrial education was fully recognized in this report, and among other recommendations of the Commission was one for the establishment of a normal department at the Massachusetts Agricultural College for the purpose of giving instruction to teachers who desire to teach elementary agriculture in the public schools. This was the result of careful consideration of the methods and facilities for the training of teachers to teach agriculture. The Commission had discussed the feasibility of such instruction in the state normal schools, in a proposed special normal school for agriculture, and in the agricultural college. They decided that the greatest economy and efficiency would be subserved by the establishment of a normal department in agriculture at the agricultural college.

In accordance with this report, the legislature established such a department and in 1907 made an appropriation of $5,000 per year to carry out the law. In the same year the college organized a Department of Agricultural Education and appointed as full professor William R. Hart, of Nebraska. Instruction to the regular students of the college is given in this department. For teachers already in service a Summer School of Agriculture was held at the college in 1907.

This decision of the Commission and the establishment of the Department of Agricultural Education and of the Summer School of Agriculture at the college, of course, raised the question, What shall the normal schools do with reference to work of this type? Shall they refrain entirely from such instruction, shall they develop courses parallel to those offered at the college, or shall they give courses supplemental to those at the college?

This question was brought up for further consideration thru a proposition advanced by Principal F. F. Murdock, of the Massachusetts State Normal School at North Adams, that the agricultural college and the normal school should co-operate in the training of grade teachers for work in elementary agriculture, and if possible in supervision of agriculture and nature-study. The proposition in brief was: (1) That the college should engage an instructor and supervisor of elementary agriculture who should give a portion of his time to the instruction of students at the normal school, another portion to the super-

vision of those schools in Berkshire County which the normal school is endeavoring to assist in the introduction of agriculture, and the remaining time to such instruction in the agricultural college and general supervision and assistance to the teachers of the state as circumstances will permit. (2) That the normal school should contribute its facilities of a science department, a garden of 2½ acres, and the children in the training school.

The principle involved in this proposed scheme of co-operation is substantially this: Agriculture is recognized as a distinct subject, and one possessing, even in its elementary work, strong technical aspects. Hence it will be differentiated in scope, purpose, and method of approach, from the nature-work of the lower grades, and even from some phases of school gardening. It seems to follow, therefore, that the agricultural college, by reason of its equipment, its atmosphere, and its teaching force, is the proper place for the instruction of teachers in the subject-matter of agriculture.

On the other hand, the normal school, because of its purpose, its facilities, and its teaching body, is the proper place for the study of the child and for practice in teaching, or to put it more exactly, is the proper place for the development of the material and methods of instruction with special reference to the mental needs and capacities of the child. The agricultural college emphasizes the technical aspect, the subject side; the normal school emphasizes the pedagogical aspect, the child side. This does not mean that the agricultural college usually ignores the pedagogical, nor the normal school usually ignores the technical, aspect of the question. Obviously there is no sharp line of demarkation, but obviously also the spirit and atmosphere of both schools, differing in emphasis, are both needed for the thoro development of the plan. It is to be observed, moreover, that this plan has to do with elementary agriculture. The question of instruction in high-school agriculture has not thus far been considered in the scheme of co-operation, tho the agricultural college is providing for such instruction.

I have hesitated to outline this plan because it is at present only a plan. But if the legislature, acting according to the wish of the state Board of Education and of the Board of Trustees of the Massachusetts Agricultural College, appropriates additional funds, this plan will go into effect approximately April 1. Nevertheless, I have used this proposed and tentative plan for the purpose of this discussion because I think it involves two fundamental principles, namely: (1) That the emphasis in the agricultural college and the emphasis in the typical normal school, with respect to the training of teachers to teach elementary agriculture, will differ one from the other, tho the division is not sharply marked. Both are complementary and both are vital. (2) That the natural and desirable method of training teachers of elementary agriculture involves a measure of co-operation between the two institutions.

The development of methods remains largely for the future. There will doubtless be some exchange of pupils. There probably will be exchange of teachers. And even if nothing more is done than that the college instructor whose special field is agriculture shall assist at the normal school and in overseeing the efforts to introduce elementary agriculture into the schools, the principle will be recognized and generous co-operation will be secured.

II. ALFRED BAYLISS, PRINCIPAL WESTERN ILLINOIS STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MACOMB, ILL.

I know nothing which I can contribute to this discussion likely to be of more value than a brief account of an instance of rather close co-operation already established between the College of Agriculture of the State University of Illinois and the normal school with which I am connected.

At present such work as we are attempting in agriculture is in charge of our instructor in biology (Mr. J. T. Johnson), who, as a side line, while an instructor at the university, nearly completed a full course in the agricultural college. Because of the friendly relations existing between our instructor and the agricultural college faculty there was not the slightest difficulty in arranging for a co-operative soil-experiment field on the normal-school

campus. The ground set apart for a beginning is the S.E. 2½ acres of the S.E. 10 of the N.E. 40 of the N.W. ¼ of Sec. 36, Twp. 6 N., R. 3 W. of the fourth principal meridian. The soil is a gray silt loam, natural timber land, representing quite a large area of land in the upper Illinois glaciation. The plans to be used in conducting the field experiment were prepared in detail at the college, under the immediate direction of Dr. C. G. Hopkins, the professor of agronomy, who personally saw to it that the field was properly laid out, tiled, and that all other initial steps were rightly taken. The plans are duplicates of those used in the experiments in soil fertility at the experiment station at the college. The normal school is responsible for the field operations, and the bookkeeping, for both of which the most precise directions have been supplied. Samples of the soil have been taken to the agricultural college and stored for comparison with others to be taken from the same plots eight to twenty years hence.

This experiment field is divided into forty plots, each one rod square, and each surrounded by a protecting border one-fourth of a rod wide. These plots are arranged in two divisions, so mapped and numbered that any plot may readily be located and referred to. There are four series of five plots each in each division, and the plan involves a four-year rotation of corn, oats, wheat, and clover hay. The two divisions make it possible to have each crop represented in duplicate every year.

The treatment proposed in each division is as follows:

For the first division—

Plot No. 1.—No treatment.

Plot No. 2.—Legume treatment (turning back to the soil everything grown upon the land excepting grains and clover seed).

Plot No. 3.—Legume, lime.

Plot No. 4.—Legume, lime, phosphorus.

Plot No. 5.—Legume, lime, phosphorus, potassium.

For the second division —

Plot No. 1.—No treatment.

Plot No. 2.—Manure.

Plot No. 3.—Manure, lime.

Plot No. 4.—Manure, lime, phosphorus.

Plot No. 5.—Manure, lime, phosphorus, potassium.

This, it will be seen, provides for (1) a system of grain farming in which the humus and the nitrogen are to be maintained by plowing legume crops and the residue of other crops, such as the stalks of the corn crop and possibly the straw of the oats and wheat crops, and all of the clover crop except the seed; and (2) a system of live-stock farming in which the crops are all removed from the land, including the corn stalks, straw, and clover hay, while farm manure is to be returned in proportion to the crops produced.

Further detail is unnecessary at this time and place. It should be added, however, that there is not the least doubt that when we get this line of work well in hand, the agricultural college will be equally ready and willing to start and direct us in any other advisable line. Our present thought is that dairy husbandry will be next, and that may be followed by some lines of plant breeding. Moreover, to the credit of its co-operative instincts be it said, the agricultural college has located at least one of its branch stations in juxtaposition to a particularly enterprising and progressive country school, allowing the school certain special privileges in connection therewith, making it hardly less a co-operative station than the one just described.

Co-operation in this spirit is merely the natural articulation of parts of the public-school system, and would be one means of making such a measure as Senate Bill 3392 fully efficient.

DISCUSSION

WILLIAM M. STEWART, president, State Normal School, Salt Lake City, Utah.—The primary need for the successful teaching of agriculture is competent teachers. Neither the agricultural college nor the normal school can alone adequately prepare teachers for giving scientific instruction in agriculture in the common schools.

This statement is made in view of two main considerations: (1) The difficulty and newness of agriculture as a subject of school study; (2) The fact that the teaching of agriculture requires the services of a better-trained teacher academically, and better-trained in psychology, pedagogy, and methods, than does the teaching of any of the subjects now included in the school curriculum.

The teaching of agriculture embraces the whole of the teacher's art. It is a pervasive and exacting subject. It embodies the most important aspects of character building; for in teaching the pupils scientifically to plant, cultivate, and harvest farm crops, and as a community to be responsible for the proper care of a school garden, we are training them in some of the most valuable lessons in life. Honesty is here not merely inculcated, but is put into actual operation. Industry is not here explained and commended, but is realized. There is no doubt, in such case, of the worth and the necessity of industry, regularity, etc., for their effects are apparent in the product. The great lessons of civic righteousness and personal honor stand out in bold relief just as soon as a school engages in co-operative work connected with the real activities of life.

The special difficulty in teaching agriculture arises from the fact that it is a part of, or may be correlated with, almost every other subject taught in the schools. It implies botany, zoölogy, chemistry, physics, physiology, geology, meteorology; it is reading, language, geography, arithmetic; it is manual training and domestic science; or at least it is so closely related to all these subjects that a pedagogical knowledge of the entire curriculum is necessary in order to enable the teacher successfully to teach agriculture in the public schools. It is also commerce, business, and transportation. A teacher cannot merely learn agriculture and then teach it. He should learn the pedagogy of all the branches upon which it depends and with which it is so vitally connected; and yet he must be specially trained in the science and art of agriculture, or he will fail to realize its practical or vocational value. The great masses of the people are and ever will be producers of commodities.

The school garden, a nature laboratory necessary to every school, is the most convenient, certain, and attractive form known for the creation of products for sale by school pupils. Each child coming from the public schools should have acquired something in the way of an occupation that he can do well. Simple branches of horticulture are easily within his reach, since they require only methodical application and not a high degree of either hand skill or mental training and balance. The vocational value of agriculture, domestic science, etc., therefore, gives to the child some preparation of real merit which will do much to prepare him for life.

But this work has more than vocational value; even the city teacher should be thus trained. Life in the city is so artificial that to have the city schools do some of the nature work and garden practice will do much toward preventing the city boy or girl from becoming formally bookish and unpractical. Besides, the city needs the school garden and the elements of agriculture, for it may happen that the talent of the city child is for agriculture. If so, this kind of training will find out his talents and instincts as well as train them. Why should not the city boy be permitted to go to the country if he so desires, as well as the country boy to the city. The open-air exercises, the muscular and mental activity, and the change from school routine to the varied motor activities of the garden, all conduce to make this form of training one of the best, not only from the educational but from the hygienic standpoint, ever undertaken in the schools.

Of course the great question remains, Is it practicable? Can it be done? Can teachers be so trained and every little school have at least a garden for its laboratory? We believe so. The school garden part is so simple, so easy of realization in some degree when once understood, that no school, however small or poorly equipped, need fail in the work of doing some agriculture when the teacher is competent. So the vital need is competent teachers.

Let us now consider how this work of training teachers can best be done, so as to insure

the efficiency of the teacher as well as to maintain economy of expenditure in his preparation for agricultural education. We have no doubt, judging from our own experience, and from the very nature of the subject that the most economical and efficient plan is to have the agricultural college and the normal school departments of the university, and to have them associated in one place and combined on one campus under one administration. Such a combination would furnish expert knowledge and skill needed for the training not only of agricultural teachers but for all others as well; the equipment of all the schools would be available for each, and expensive duplication avoided. Each can help the other so much that there would be an enormous gain in efficiency, and saving in expenditure. But the great reason is the advantage which this union affords for the superior training of teachers. Expert knowledge in many lines of science, natural history, and business are required for successful agricultural practices, while the necessary psychological and pedagogical training of teachers cannot, except at great expense, be supplied by any one of these institutions standing by itself. It is not enough that the public-school teacher shall know agriculture, he must be primarily a teacher; he must know the best normal methods; his view-point must be that of the child. While this is true of all the subjects taught in the public schools, it is particularly and in a paramount way true of the science and art of agriculture.

Above any other subject in the school curriculum, agriculture presents special difficulties in teaching; and more than any other subject, it requires the successful application of the principles of sound pedagogy in order to be successful. All the ingenuity, tact, and even devices of good teachers must be here employed, or we shall fail. The great problem will be how to sustain the interest of the child in the work, for notwithstanding the beauty of the science and the naturalness of the art of agriculture, children will lose interest in it simply thru waiting for its results, unless the subject-matter is made, by pedagogical methods, to conform to the natural interests of the child. The growth of plants is very slow. The results in farming are not attained until the end of the season; often not then. Soils in and of themselves may be very uninteresting things; fertilizers still more so; and the same may be said of some of the farm processes. The interest of the adult is easily sustained, because he can foresee the result. To him the end means money and profit; but the child in the early years of his school life cannot foresee the end. He has little interest in profit or loss; he will not, he cannot, wait for his result until the plant matures and the crop is sold. In order to sustain his interest, the results must be immediate, as they appear to him to be in grammar, arithmetic, and any other school subject. It is here that the art of teaching will always be indispensable. The more mere knowledge any agricultural expert has, the more dangerous he might become in the schoolroom from this very fact; for if he lack the teacher's art, his superior knowledge of agriculture can but serve to carry him and his instruction still farther away from child-interest and thus discourage and disgust the child with the subject. It is for these reasons that the normal school must train teachers to teach agriculture; for scientific farming is the most complex of the nature arts and sciences. The adult learns it in some direct and condensed way.

If the normal work for training teachers of agriculture should be added to the agricultural college, the latter would need to incorporate into its organization a complete normal school. If agriculture is to be added to the normal school, the latter must have the services of agricultural teachers as part of its faculty. The first alternative would require the agricultural college to duplicate everything the normal school does. The second alternative would require that the normal school should secure the services of several agricultural experts for at least a part of their time, as is now the case at the Utah State Normal School. This year we have found it sufficient to receive from the agricultural college the services of an expert on soils and farm crops, of another on economic entomology, of another on horticulture, and of another on birds. We get the services of one professor one day each week thru the school year. This is, of course, in addition to the regular

nature-study instruction, which requires two days more per week, and is given by the regular professor and director of nature-study in the State Normal School of Utah.

In those states in which the three institutions, the university, the agricultural college and the normal school, are entirely separate and apart from one another, the agricultural college should maintain a branch experiment station on the campus of the normal school, so that the specialists in charge of that station would also be available for use by the normal school. This co-operative work between the two schools could be managed as extension work on the part of the agricultural college, just as the farmers' institutes are part of its extension work. This normal institute, as a species of extension work, would be a center for this kind of activity, and would no doubt accomplish more than many or perhaps all the other institutes devoted directly to the interests of farmers. That is, in its final results it would train the teachers and they would disseminate what they had learned; and thus the benefits to agriculture would be enormously multiplied.

The government in its appropriation to agricultural colleges should set apart a specific portion of the appropriation to be used in state normal-school work, as the officers of the state normal school should direct; but the expert work should all be done by the agricultural-college faculty. It would be indispensable that the financial aid devoted to the purposes of normal instruction should not be uncertain and must not be left to the discretion of the agricultural college. The management of the normal curriculum must be with the normal school. It knows best just when, and also how much agricultural instruction should be given to the prospective teachers of the community. This is precisely its business and function. It will prescribe, broadly, the subject; but the details and character of the work to be given must be determined by the agricultural college experts, who alone can keep abreast of recent progress in agricultural science.

The third alternative is the attempt to train teachers in agriculture without any co-operation between the two schools. This is possible, but expensive and unsatisfactory. No doubt certain recreative garden work could be done; and also some nature work; but this is not sufficient and would result in failure, so far as efficient training of teachers in agriculture is concerned, or it would result in a gradual duplication of work and equipment of the agricultural college.

The Utah State Normal School is on most friendly terms with the State Agricultural College which has promised all the aid possible. We hope in the immediate future to have an agricultural experiment station located on the normal-school campus.

Our school garden now comprises six acres under close cultivation. An expert gardener gives his entire time to it, with some assistance during the growing season. This land is cultivated as a commercial garden. It is expected to pay its own way. Our director of nature-study maintains that the best lesson in farming will be the concrete demonstration of how a farm, garden, or orchard may be made to pay; and therefore that the garden as a whole and each separate class garden should be cultivated for the sake of profit, as well as for the sake of beauty, recreation, and education.

We have found already that we could, if we had the facilities, base most of the school work upon the activities that center round the school garden. Our nature-work in the fall begins with the study of weeds, and each grade is expected to identify its assigned groups. Certain cultivated products and also certain wild plants, insects, and birds are assigned to each grade. Along with these laboratory studies, the actual harvesting of small farm crops is given. The children sell the crops harvested from their special garden, put the money in the bank, figure the cost of the product, make out the bills, and carry on all the business and banking essential to such work. In this subject, they study a specimen rather than a book. The specimen is their book. What they tell about it is their oral recitation; what they write about it is their writing-work and English composition; their drawing or modeling of it constitutes their art; their estimates of its value and calculations made about it form their arithmetic. The raising of it and the preparation of the utensils necessary in

its handling, make up part of their manual training. The same vegetables cooked in the domestic-science classes, furnish part of the material for their work in cooking.

The arguments presented aim to sustain:

1. The great importance of agricultural education, and the extreme difficulty in successfully teaching it in the common schools, both elementary and secondary; also that the teacher of agriculture, more than the teacher of any other subject in the curriculum, should be professionally trained for his work.
2. That this training can best be done in a university which combines with it on one site the agricultural and the normal school.
3. That if the normal school undertakes the work of training agricultural teachers by itself on a separate site, it should have, to be most successful, the co-operation of the agricultural college.
4. That for the agricultural college to train competent teachers it would be necessary to duplicate the equipment and faculty of the normal school.

In conclusion I will say that the movement for industrial education will make its most rapid and successful advance along the line of agriculture. To give all teachers at least some agricultural training will not only mean a revolution in our educational system but it will give such an impetus to agriculture as our country has never seen. I have great faith in this movement as a wonderful stimulus in socializing school activities, that is, in making the school organic with life—the ultimate aim of our democratic system of education.

CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AND STATE SCHOOL AUTHORITIES IN PROMOTING AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

DICK J. CROSBY, EXPERT IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EXPERIMENT STATIONS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

In the promotion of agricultural education there are many problems which will require the combined efforts of all the educational forces in this country to solve. The movement for agricultural education is so large and withal so new, it has come upon us so suddenly, that we find ourselves unprepared to meet all of the demands it makes upon us. It comes nearer to being a national movement than any other recent movement in education. The combined legislation of the federal Congress and the legislatures of the several states and territories has built up a national system of agricultural education, which includes the following units: (1) The National Bureau of Education, which acts in an advisory capacity with all of the units concerning the expenditure of federal funds for education and serves as a general clearing-house of education; (2) the United States Department of Agriculture which acts in an advisory capacity on matters relating to the expenditure of federal funds for research in agriculture and on matters relating to agricultural education in particular, and is itself engaged in research to increase the fund of knowledge in agriculture; (3) state agricultural experiment stations, engaged in adding to the sum of knowledge concerning agriculture, and (4) state agricultural colleges engaged in educating some 60,000 of our young men and young women along lines of agriculture, mechanic arts, and home economics. For the support of these state research and educational institutions the federal government is now expending about two and one-half million dollars annually and the several states and territories are taxing themselves to the amount of over eight millions. The government is also expending over nine millions annually for the work of its Department of Agriculture and Bureau of Education, so that altogether something over twenty million dollars are expended annually to increase our fund of information on industrial subjects, largely agricultural.

Of late the agricultural-education movement has grown at a rate that is truly astounding. The agricultural colleges, which for some twenty-five years waged a fierce struggle for the right to be—a right questioned not only by the older types of colleges but also to a surprising extent by the farmers themselves—have in recent years found themselves and

gained the loyal support of their constituents. Agricultural education has become so popular that it is no longer sufficient for the agricultural colleges to turn out leaders to take positions of influence and trust in the colleges, stations, and other educational and research institutions. They must also train young men in a more practical way for the work of the farm, the dairy, the orchard, and the forest, or else there must be special agricultural schools for this work. Several secondary agricultural schools have come into the field and struck good, clean furrows; others are following. But this is not all-satisfying. There must also be some instruction regarding this great fundamental industry of our country in the public high schools, and even in the grammar schools where conditions are favorable.

You can see at once how, with every added demand along this line, the problems of teaching and administration multiply. There are teachers to train—who shall do it, the colleges or the normal schools or both? What sort of courses are suitable for the training of teachers in this new line of instruction? For it is new, something far different than instruction in language, mathematics, physics, or chemistry. There are courses of study to prepare for these grammar schools, public high schools, technical agricultural high schools, and agricultural colleges. Who shall do this—each local institution for itself or some central agency or some combination of forces representing both the local and the central agencies?

CO-OPERATION AS IT NOW EXISTS

Fortunately for us who have drifted into the current at nearly flood tide, some of these problems began to appear about twenty years ago and steps were then taken to give them careful consideration. Soon after Congress appropriated funds for agricultural experiment stations a national organization known as the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations was formed. Membership in this association was granted to each agricultural college and each agricultural experiment station, to the National Bureau of Education, to the United States Department of Agriculture, and to the Office of Experiment Stations which was organized about this time to represent the department in its relations with these institutions. This association brought together the leaders in agricultural education from all parts of the country and brought about conferences and discussions which were very helpful in showing these men what they were not doing. The need of some fundamental study of the pedagogics of agriculture became more and more apparent, and finally about 1895 the association appointed a standing committee on methods of teaching agriculture, of which the director of the Office of Experiment Stations has been a member from the first. This committee made its first report in 1896 and has made ten reports since that time, all of which have been published by the Department of Agriculture and are now available. There have been seven reports on college courses in agriculture, two on secondary courses in agriculture, and two on elementary courses in agriculture. The courses outlined in these reports were not intended to be followed implicitly by all of the colleges and schools in the different states and territories but were aimed to form the basis of a systematic and progressive treatment of the subject of agriculture, and as such they have been eminently successful. It is doubtful if any institution has followed these courses in their entirety, but their influence is plainly discernible in nearly every college and school course where agriculture is taught.

This co-operation with the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations has brought the Department of Agriculture more and more into the field of agricultural education as a co-ordinating agency, a sort of clearing-house for information on the subject. Thru its Office of Experiment Stations the department has helped the association to conduct a graduate school of agriculture where methods of teaching and some of the more fundamental problems in agricultural education are discussed by a corps of the most noted experts to be found in this country and Europe. It has also aided the agricultural experiment stations, colleges, and schools to secure suitable investi-

gators and teachers. The Office of Experiment Stations maintains a card catalogue of about 1,500 names containing a record of the training and experience of teachers and investigators in agriculture and allied subjects, to which it can refer readily when requests for candidates are received from any of the institutions.

One of the important functions of the Office of Experiment Stations is that of collecting and disseminating information on agricultural education and research in this country and abroad. It has a staff of twelve experts who are constantly engaged in examining the agricultural literature of the world and preparing it for publication in such form as to make it widely available in this country. The office publishes a technical journal known as the *Experiment Station Record* which contains a record of the results of every experiment conducted by an experiment station in this country as well as the more important investigations of some eight hundred experiment stations in foreign countries. In this publication there is a department of agricultural education in which textbooks, bulletins, circulars, and important newspaper articles on this subject are reviewed and some of the more important notes concerning the progress of agricultural education are given. The office also publishes a series of popular bulletins known as "Experiment Station Work," in which the results of investigations appear in a form suitable for the use of the non-technical reader—the farmer, and his children in school. Then there are various technical bulletins on the investigations of the office, circulars embodying the reports of the Committee on Instruction in Agriculture and other publications containing information of popular interest.

The other bureaus of the department of Agriculture are also doing many things which are of service to the cause of agricultural education. The Bureau of Plant Industry, for example, has efficiently aided the school-garden movement by distributing seeds, by preparing publications, and by supervising the school-garden work of the schools of the District of Columbia, part of which is done on the department grounds. The Bureau of Soils has aided in the location of farms connected with agricultural schools. All the bureaus are issuing many publications which are of use to teachers and students, and it is the policy of the department to furnish them to the schools as freely as existing legislation will permit. The Office of Experiment Stations has the advice and assistance of all the bureaus of the department in the preparation of its publications on agricultural education, and it should also be said that the present Secretary and Assistant Secretary of Agriculture have done all in their power to advance the interests of agricultural education and make the department broadly useful in this cause.

As a natural result of the accumulation of data in the Office of Experiment Stations concerning the teaching of agriculture in this country and abroad, educators in all parts of the country have come to look upon the office as a source of information and advice whenever new problems in agricultural education arise. The office is frequently called upon to aid the state school authorities in planning new schools of agriculture and courses in nature-study and elementary agriculture for the primary and secondary public schools, for normal schools, and even for private and denominational schools and colleges.

As an example of this kind of work the office was asked to send a representative to California to meet the teachers and farmers of the state in a large convention at the State Agricultural College and confer with them regarding the introduction of agriculture into the school system of that state. The director of the office, Dr. A. C. True, attended this meeting and outlined briefly his views, which were that instruction in nature-study and school gardening should be introduced into the first six years of the primary school, with more formal instruction in agriculture during the remaining two years of the grammar school and thruout a portion at least of the high-school course. He recommended also the establishment of additional agricultural high schools to meet the demand for comprehensive training in agriculture on the part of students who could not take the college course in agriculture. He was then asked to prepare a plan for introducing agriculture into the public schools, which he did, and as a result of this work a number of county superintendents have taken steps to introduce agriculture into all of their schools and have

succeeded in getting many of their teachers to undertake this work. Provision has also been made for two state agricultural high schools since Dr. True's visit to California.

As another example I might speak of our work in Georgia. The legislature of the state passed an act providing for 11 agricultural schools in Georgia. Those who were charged with the duty of organizing these schools had a pretty good notion of what they wanted to accomplish but were without experience in arranging the details of courses of study and outlining laboratory work and field exercises. The Office of Experiment Stations was asked to assist in this work and sent its expert in agricultural education to Georgia to study the situation and confer with the governor, the state superintendent of public instruction, the chancellor of the state university, and the president of the State Normal School at Milledgeville, concerning courses of study. After the conference our expert was asked to outline at considerable length courses in agriculture, horticulture, and forestry, with laboratory work and field exercises, which he did. These courses were submitted to the dean of the College of Agriculture, the governor of the state, and the board of trustees of the school of agriculture and formally adopted by them.

Just now we are co-operating with the county school authorities in Cecil County, Maryland, in developing a small country high school in which agricultural teaching is a prominent feature. The man who is engaged in that work is sent out during June, July, and August to aid in training teachers of agriculture in summer schools and teachers' institutes. Apparently our friends in the different states would like it if we could supply them with four or five such men.

And so we might multiply examples, but these are sufficient to show the nature of the work which the Office of Experiment Stations is called upon to do in co-operation with state school authorities. There are a hundred and one other things concerning which the advice of the office is solicited. Our correspondence on agricultural education is very large and is growing every day. Scarcely a day passes that we do not send out from 100 to 1,000 or 1,500 publications to be used in schools.

LINES OF FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

With the present interest in agricultural education and the rapid growth of the movement for the introduction of agriculture into secondary and elementary schools and its attendant problem of training teachers for this work, it is evident that for many years to come there will be a large demand for just such clearing-house work as the Office of Experiment Stations has been engaged in during the past ten or fifteen years. The work of outlining courses of study for different types of schools has only just begun. Thus far in our work for secondary and elementary schools we have dealt only with the subject of agronomy. There still remain for consideration such subjects as horticulture, forestry, animal industry, dairying, farm machinery, farm mechanics, and agricultural engineering, all of which are important and will be taken up as soon as the resources of the office will permit. The work of training teachers to take up the agricultural instruction in normal schools, agricultural high schools, and public schools, with its many attendant problems, has only just begun, but the correspondence and the requests for literature on this subject are already large. Plans for agricultural high schools and for the organization of courses in agriculture in the public high schools and in consolidated rural schools are being made in all parts of the country, and everywhere new problems are presented concerning which the advice of this office is sought. This work will continue and will grow until agricultural courses in all of these different schools attended by the sons and daughters of the farmers have been organized on an efficient basis.

The department will also be called upon for many years to come to aid the agricultural colleges in bringing the results of the investigations made by this department and the experiment stations into pedagogical form for use in the agricultural colleges and these different schools. This work is now proceeding too slowly to keep pace with the accumulation of material and too slowly, as indicated above, to keep pace with the development of

institutions giving instruction in agriculture. It is now generally recognized that no other agency than the Department of Agriculture, which maintains an intimate organic relationship with the state institutions for agricultural education and research, is so well equipped to perform this important function. As the Commissioner of Education said at the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the Michigan Agricultural College, "The national Department of Agriculture is undoubtedly to continue its remarkably wide and influential work, its expert investigations, the issuance of manifold and vastly useful publications, and its furtherance of all manner of agricultural education and research in the several states."

Finally, it seems to me that the Department of Agriculture is called upon to continue indefinitely its work of bringing together and publishing for wide distribution the results of successful experiments, successful methods of teaching agriculture, in this country and abroad. It can do this more economically than any other agency can do it. It is already examining the agricultural literature of the world, and it is in a position to bring to the attention of those school authorities who are just starting out in experiments along this line the results of successful efforts elsewhere. It has ready access to much literature that is unavailable to the general public or even to the state agricultural institutions and thus is enabled to give wide publicity to many experiments in agricultural education which might otherwise remain buried indefinitely in library alcoves. The department needs the assistance of all these other educational agencies. It needs to know their problems, to learn of successful experiments, in order that the results may be published abroad; also of failures, so that warning of impending difficulties may be given. One of the most helpful educational conferences I ever attended was one held recently in Atlanta, where much time was given to reports of failures and their causes. One of the most difficult things which your committee on industrial education has had to do has been to get definite information regarding real success and real failure in teaching agriculture. Too many of the records that have been written up have been records of anticipation. What we need, what the department needs, what the National Education Association needs, is examples of things made possible thru successful achievement and of things to be avoided because of almost inevitable failure.

The department is ready and anxious at all times and in every way possible to assist state and county school officers, teachers' associations, and individual teachers along lines of agricultural education. It does not seek to do the things which the different states can just as well do for themselves. It recognizes the fact that the education of its youth is primarily a function of the state. It will never knowingly invade the field of the Bureau of Education, with which it is co-operating and with which it hopes to co-operate more fully and freely in the future. It seeks only to fulfil to the utmost of its ability its function as a central agency to co-operate with all local agencies, whatever their type or size or official standing, which are engaged in the great movement of educating the people of the country to live happy, contended, and useful lives in the country.

DISCUSSION

E. C. BISHOP, deputy state superintendent of public instruction, Lincoln, Nebraska.—I shall make no attempt to discuss as a matter of fact the co-operation now existing between national and state authorities in promoting agricultural education. I undertake to discuss only the need and the possibilities of such co-operation.

In line with a custom somewhat general with the individual who discourses on a subject which is larger than himself—tho not necessarily larger than his interest and his ambition—I shall begin and may continue speaking mostly of something else.

I may not be orthodox in conclusions; I may be laboring under the disadvantages of a lack of a workable knowledge; what appears to me a morning mist may be a Newfoundland fog, and my discrimination of objective points may be dimmed by a wrong focus; but what knowledge, and experience has come to me, whatever insight is mine,

whatever conclusions I may reach—all is given, cautiously, yet as freely as the occasion permits.

Agriculture is the newest in its application, the most important, and, excepting geography, the most widespread of the sciences which directly concern our people. Not only the student of botany, of physics, of chemistry, of zoölogy, of geology, of astronomy, geography, and the other allied sciences; but likewise, the student of social, political, and economic science is called to contribute his best thought and effort to the development of the science of agriculture.

Agriculture has existed as an undeveloped science since the establishment of the first garden. Abel was doubtless the first man to feel seriously the need of the development of agriculture as an art. We have too many farmers yet who are farmers after the manner of Adam—forced to farm for a livelihood, but too willing to let the seeding, the tilling, the harvesting, the storing, and the utilization of products take care of themselves or be left in charge of an ambitious son. We yet have too many farmers—rather agriculturalists—who are satisfied with a scientific knowledge of agricultural facts, so far as they may be known. We need more farmers who study the science of agriculture and then practice the art of farming—which art is the applying with skillful hand of the known scientific principles of agriculture as an art, as an industry, as a business, as a profession, and as a social factor in the making of the home, the development of the state, and the control of national activities. The increased attention given in recent years to education in agriculture is only the natural development of an educational principle which found recognition in the reaction which came from the one-sided effort toward an all-classical education with the early renaissance.

The almost exclusive literary idea in education, supplemented by application of the principle that to give the boy only what he will need and can appreciate when he becomes a man constitutes misconception and neglect of the nature of the growing boy, which neglect leads to undesirable results. Under stress of the discussion of certain moral and ethical questions we frequently applaud the general statement that the boy is only a little man and is to be treated as such. Were we to apply fully such attitude in the education of the boy, the resultant product would be neither the desired man nor a satisfactory grown-up boy. Since recognition of the principle that the child, not the man, must be the object of study and that man comes to his best development from cultivation of the values on hand at whatever stage his instruction begins, we continue to search for additional avenues of approach.

Not the child in the school, not the child in the workshop, not the child as he will be when he becomes a man, not the child of the future; but it is the child of now, in his own home which concerns us. And we cannot wait until the child enters college or until he enters high school; these are the times when ideals have already been formed and when home ties have been too much broken. Our work must begin with the fireside age, when a child is a living interrogation point in a body of ceaseless activity. What are the influences that concern a child? If rightly directed the concerns that influence a child are: the duties in the home, the tasks that must be performed, the products of toil, the resultant enjoyment of effort; the relation of toil, effort, of the complete home life, to life outside and beyond the home.

In an agricultural community the study of agriculture is necessary, not only for economic reasons, but necessary for safe character formation and for proper civic development. In such a community the science of agriculture includes not only the study of plant and animal life and their adaptations, but it also includes the study of cookery, needlework, and all the home economic and manual arts which are directly concerned in the maintenance of a home in the community.

May I repeat, then, that the study of agriculture in its application to home and community life must reach the child before life-ideals are formed and before home ties are broken. This means that to be most effective, agricultural schools or courses in agricul-

ture must be so conveniently located and so accessible that the many rather than the few may attend. It means that agricultural literature must go into the home; it means that agricultural literature which enters the home must go into the hands of the child and into the library rather than into the wastebasket, unread. If one-half of the investigations made by national and state agricultural departments were known to the members of all families which should be concerned; if one-half of the good literature issued by our agricultural departments of nation and state were read and read intelligently in families of agricultural communities, such an uplift would come that we should not deem it necessary to spend so great time in discussions such as these.

We have much good material. We have many forces working for the promotion of agricultural education. The present problem is largely one of utilizing that which we now have. I shall mention seven points which, in my estimation, largely govern present possible results.

1. Agriculture as a science is not so fully developed, so definitely outlined and so well applied as other sciences which are made a part of public-school education.
2. Agriculture is not properly recognized as a science and as an art by the great body of the people whom it should most concern.
3. The place of agriculture in the curricula of public schools, colleges, and universities has not been so definitely fixed as that of other sciences. Agriculture is now in the pioneer stage, fighting its way to recognition as a part of the public-school system.
4. In many communities where it is most needed, the study of agriculture is opposed by the beneficiaries.
5. Teachers are attempting to teach agriculture without having made sufficient preparation therefor.
6. Textbooks adapted to the needs of the schools and to the needs of those preparing to teach are not yet sufficiently in general circulation. Such textbooks will be provided when we are better settled in our method of procedure.
7. Agricultural education is yet in the experimental stage. We are asking each of the other: "How can it best be done?"

The afore-mentioned facts are sufficient evidence of the need of co-operation of all agencies concerned in the promotion of agricultural education.

In those subjects which have won their way to recognition and have become in a measure adjusted to their places, we can fail in co-operation with less disaster to the cause. But where the movement is new, where the position is not settled, where the conditions were not fully defined, where we know not our own minds and hesitate to believe in the minds of others, we need the closest co-operation that may be secured in order to successfully establish and promote the work.

The great work done by our national and state departments of agriculture, to be properly appreciated and to become effective among the great mass of the people who should be interested and helped thereby, must be not only wisely distributed but well read. The question of distribution is much more easily settled than the question of reading. Printed matter, both valuable and worthless, is now so plentiful and so widely and freely distributed that the average home receives more printed literature than the members thereof have time or inclination to read, let alone study.

To be effective our good literature must have a proper hearing. Such hearing can be secured thru the agency of two points of approach. First, agricultural literature must be popularized, not only in simplicity of language, but in treatment of subjects related to home and community life. Second, the recipient of such literature must be in a receptive mood.

The first proposition includes the preparation of literature dealing with scientific agriculture from the standpoint of the scientist, the practical farmer, the child, the school teacher, and the home-keeper. Here is where co-operation is necessary in order that the valuable information gained thru departments of agriculture, experiment stations, and pedagogic sources may be conveyed in proper forms of expression to the readers concerned.

The second proposition, that of preparing the reader for the reception of available

literature and for inducing the beneficiary to take advantage of the opportunities open—this is the greater proposition and the one in which we most need unlimited co-operation and extensive supervision and direction.

You will pardon me for referring to conditions in our own state, but I must speak of that I know best. In the state of Nebraska the forces that contribute most largely to agricultural education are: The State Board of Agriculture, the University of Nebraska, the state and county organization of farmers' institutes, the state and county departments of public instruction and various ladies' auxiliaries and women's clubs. In the high school or any other school which is properly equipped for teaching agriculture, manual training, and home economics we have no serious problem of co-operation. Proper equipment means full apparatus and other means of carrying on the work, and well-trained teachers. Our great problem is the teaching of agriculture, home economics, and manual training to the great mass of the people who do not have access to well-equipped schools. To wait for the consolidated school and for the establishment in town and city schools of properly conducted courses in these three arts means delay beyond the forbearance of those who are demanding that this form of industrial education be given proper emphasis.

It is entirely proper for us to look to ideal conditions and to direct our activities in accordance with the best ideals, but we shall never reach the ideal by dreaming of the future and by planning our present action on a basis of the ideal future. Present action should look to the future but must be based on the means of attaining the ideal, rather than upon the ideal itself. If this generation is to see agriculture, manual training, and home economics bearing good results in the homes of our people, we must take our schools to the homes of the people. We must reach the present generation thru the medium of the rising generation. The son and the daughter, thru the efforts of the teacher, can lead the father and the mother where the father and the mother thru all the agencies within their power cannot lead the son and daughter. We need the co-operation of all those agencies which have to do with the increasing of our fund of knowledge and with its distribution thru the experiment station, the department of agriculture, state and county departments of public instruction, the college, university, normal school, high school, the town and rural school, the farmers' institute, the women's club, and other women's auxiliaries.

The extension of this work thru the agency of the public schools in our state has been effected largely thru the co-operation of the state university, which includes the state organization of farmers' institutes; the state Board of Agriculture, the state Department of Public Instruction and the state normal schools, the Department of Public Instruction exercising largely the function of management, the university providing literature and speakers, the State Board of Agriculture providing financial assistance, the state normal schools training teachers. This co-operation has been most effective in popularizing the science and art of agriculture and home economics among all classes of people. The secret of successful co-operation lies largely in a definite understanding of the part to be contributed by each co-operative agency. The greatest need is a central medium for learning the needs of each locality and for collecting, harmonizing, popularizing, and distributing the knowledge at hand. This central medium or authority should be provided with the means to gather, popularize, and distribute. This includes financial support, which financial support should secure supervising authority and sufficient force to take to every community the benefits of the combined results of the research, investigations, and experiences of all the agencies instrumental in advancing this form of education.

Each school district should have, close at hand, the means of knowing what has been done, what may be done, and what may not be done so far as experience may direct; whether such direction comes from the neighboring district, a distant district in the county, in the state, or in the nation. State supervision should be sufficient in quality and in quantity that every inquiring locality may bring to the local field the experiences, successes, and failures which have been made under like conditions.

The relation of the school district to the county, and of the county to the state, should continue in the relation of the state to the nation. If every state whose ambitious people in one or more localities desire to advance the cause of agricultural education could have the assistance on the home ground of national supervision, or rather national experience gained from the experiences of other localities in other states, we would avoid in great measure the repetition of mistakes and would bring early success where now too often success must repeatedly win its way thru common errors which are repeated in the pioneer stage of any good work. If our national experts in the various lines of agricultural education could be reinforced in number and in the increase of specialization of departments, all properly co-ordinated, so that every state could call for this assistance on the many and various occasions when such assistance is needed, the problems of agricultural education would assume a definite form that would soon become more easily solved.

I close with these thoughts: First, to secure satisfactory and reasonably early results we must recognize existing conditions and work from these conditions. Second, the various agencies for promoting agricultural education in state and nation must provide an adequate centralizing agency for utilizing co-operative instruments of activity in the agricultural field of education.

GEO. B. COOK, superintendent of schools, Hot Springs, Ark.—The present meeting of the Department of Superintendence marks a well-defined forward step in the ever-broadening educational field that spreads out from year to year showing continually greater possibilities for the public schools. I look upon the organization of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education and the prominence given this extensive phase of educational work as one of the most important and far-reaching steps ever taken by the National Education Association, not only because it is important within itself in placing the seal of highest approval upon this branch of practical training, but because this movement is in accord with the spirit of the times.

There has been a steadily increasing movement for several years, or rather a series of movements, independent one from another arising from different parts of the United States, each with the same great purpose in view yet approaching the problem of better training in rural schools and practical agricultural education from widely divergent standpoints. This has become almost the paramount economical question, involving in the most direct manner the entire social fabric of the nation. It is a matter of the food supply; the production of the raw material; the development of the nation and the recognition of the most important, valuable, and necessary factor of national life—the producer.

This question has become admittedly important from every standpoint. Congress has seriously discussed bills carrying vast appropriations for the purpose of placing agricultural education within reach of the farmer boy. Various states have already not only established their agricultural colleges but have encouraged practical training along this line in the district school. The national government has established its experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture has sent its experts over the nation and followed these with tons of literature. The most important commercial organizations have aided in this work, realizing that the development of the country, an increase in the products, means wealth for them as well as for the individual and the nation at large. Tables have been carefully prepared showing that improved methods and trained minds have multiplied the wealth-producing ratio for the citizens of entire commonwealths. These are some of the factors that have brought about such a wide and active interest among the citizenship of the nation, as well as its educational leaders, in the development of rural and agricultural education.

The growth of our public-school system has been continual and ever forward. Universities and colleges, schools of special and of general training, dot the entire land. Every state has its great educational institutions. The urban schools have developed with wonderful strides. Cities, great and small, point with pride to elegant, modern school

edifices; splendid equipment and comprehensive courses. Scarcely a town of any pretension but has its high school. The system of urban education is not perfect but it is abreast with the times.

This condition is not so generally true with the rural schools. In the more thickly settled portions of the nation, many advantages have been given the rural schools in recent years and practical training in husbandry has been taken up with unfailing success. This is just the beginning, the dawn of an era that means "a square deal" for the country boys and girls thruout the nation, in the South and West and North and East.

This movement will mean for many southern and western states just what it may be made to mean for Arkansas—that many of the educational advantages enjoyed only in the cities and larger towns will be given the children of the rural district schools; that the training in these schools will become more and more practical; that the education received in school will fit them to live in comfort and in happiness upon the farm; that the honor due peculiarly to the producer will not only be shown in empty sentiment but better methods and better understanding of agriculture in its many branches will bring greater remuneration to the farmer and, at the same time, equip him better to defend his rights and maintain the higher station to which he is so justly entitled.

I do not intend to convey the idea that there is to be a revolution in our educational system nor that these conditions will come about in full realization within a given period of time; but I do fully believe that the development toward these conditions will be noticeably rapid when conducted along gradual, rational, constructive lines that will in no way disturb the harmony of our commonwealth or the benefits of our school system which are enjoyed so largely at present.

The value of our public schools cannot be overestimated and the possibilities for increasing their direct benefits to the nation and to our state are only circumscribed by limitations which the very training given in the public schools will hasten to remove at a compound ratio. The beginning has already been made and the work can be carried on by careful attention to details, accurate business administration of our public-school affairs, and by conservation of the school funds, rather than by added expense.

While Arkansas presents a field peculiarly adapted for this development, it is also a field where the progress will be most rapid and the direct returns most noticeable. I believe that one of the most beneficial and far-reaching results of the Farmers' Co-operative and Educational Union is already becoming apparent in Arkansas in the demand for better methods and the appreciation of intensive, rather than extensive, farming. The establishment of the State Normal School and county superintendents of instruction will aid materially in advancing the great educational work in Arkansas and will facilitate the introduction of practical and manual training in our secondary and elementary schools of both city and country.

The entire nation must soon realize that Arkansas is rapidly coming to her own and is rising to the lofty eminence she so justly merits in the galaxy of states, as a commonwealth rich beyond measure in minerals of great variety, majestic forests, fertile soil, sunny skies, mild climate, and true, stout-hearted, God-fearing people, whose minds and hearts are attuned to the march of progress.

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