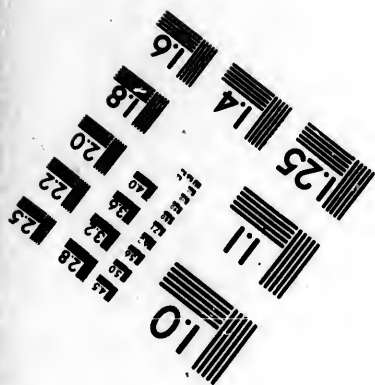
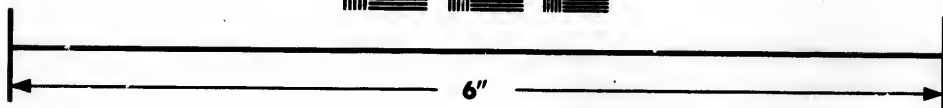
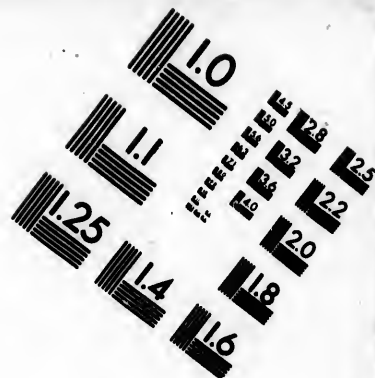




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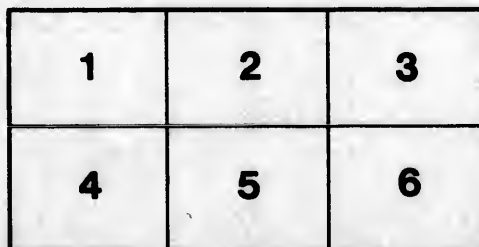
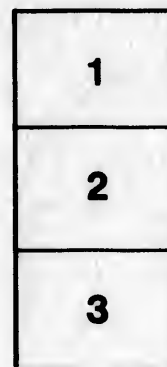
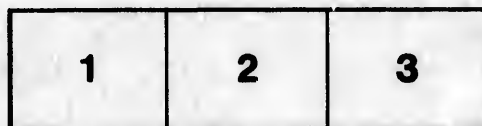
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SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

AND

THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING.

WITH AN APPENDIX

CONTAINING

THE STATUTORY PROVISIONS AND THE REGULATIONS RELATING TO
CONTINUATION CLASSES, DUTIES OF TEACHERS AND PUPILS,
AGREEMENTS, ETC., THE COURSES OF STUDY AND
REQUIREMENTS FOR HIGH AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
COUNTY MODEL SCHOOLS, NORMAL SCHOOLS,
AND THE ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE.

BY

JOHN MILLAR, B.A.,

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TORONTO:

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PREFACE.

THE following pages are the outcome of several years' experience and observation as a teacher, and of a careful study of many of the best books on systems of education and on the science of pedagogy. The aim has been to prepare a volume especially adapted to the wants of Canadian teachers in High and Public Schools, and to present, in an intelligible and scientific way, the broad outlines and essential characteristics of School Management and the principles and practice of teaching. Many well-known features of our educational system render it unnecessary for the purposes of the teachers of this Province to discuss, at any great length, several topics that find a legitimate place in standard works of the kind that are designed for use in England or in the United States. The fact that in Ontario every candidate for a position as teacher is required to take a course of professional training, will be a sufficient excuse for omitting many details and useful illustrations that are readily and fully brought to notice in the County Model Schools, the Normal Schools, and the School of Pedagogy. It should also be recollected that our High and Public Schools are placed under the supervision of Inspectors whose scholarship and practical acquaintance with education enable teachers to receive officially from them timely suggestions that might otherwise call for consideration in a book on the government of schools. The statutory requirements

respecting uniform text-books, programmes of study, duties of trustees, etc., have, to a further extent, limited the scope of the work. It is believed, however, that other matters of School Management, which concern both High and Public Schools, are discussed more fully, and it is hoped not less scientifically, than in the larger volumes that are now in use.

In the preparation of the work, advantage has been taken of the valuable contributions from leading American and European writers to the subject of pedagogy. It would be impossible to give full credit to the many persons—many of them teachers or Inspectors in Ontario—from whom the author has, under various circumstances, gathered opinions which have helped to form his convictions on many questions here discussed. He has not scrupled to make use of any available facts or arguments from the Educational Reports of other countries that in his judgment throw light upon the function of the school, and he has not hesitated to dissent from the views of some eminent writers upon a few topics concerning which his reading and observation have led him to form different conclusions. He may, however, claim to have been guided mainly in the formation of the views set forth, not by the study of theories, but by the practical knowledge he acquired as a teacher, either as assistant or as principal, in the rural school, in the graded city school, or in the High School, or Collegiate Institute.

It is hoped the book may be found to embody the leading thoughts on school organization, instruction and government, so far as they are serviceable in the school-room. Attention is not given—partly for reasons already mentioned—to the many mechanical details of school work. The object has been to describe the fundamental principles that should direct the

PREFACE.



teacher in the discharge of his duties, and to furnish a scientific basis upon which the intelligent educator may build his own methods and shape his own devices. The wants of young teachers, and especially the needs of ungraded schools, have been carefully kept in mind, but it is felt that the great principles that underlie teaching and discipline are the same for all classes of schools and for all subjects of instruction.

Some chapters, though dealing with subjects, the consideration of which could not be excluded from a treatise on School Management, necessarily introduce questions that have, in Canada, as well as in other countries, been matters of some controversy. It is not, therefore, to be presumed that the opinions expressed will meet with universal acceptance. An effort has been made, however, to discuss every subject fairly, and though the author cannot hope to agree with the theories and methods advanced by all persons, the belief is entertained that the conclusions he has reached will be concurred in by the great body of teachers, Inspectors and other practical educationists.

No attempt has been made to describe or suggest methods of teaching specific branches of the curriculum. The many valuable books, in which this kind of professional work is taken up, should be carefully studied by those who aim to become specialists in certain departments. What most teachers need, however, is not a knowledge of "methodology," but a thorough acquaintance with those broad principles of psychology and the science of education that are applicable to every subject of the school course. There is danger that the value of "methods" and "lesson plans," which are not, however, condemned, may be unduly magnified in the minds of young teachers, and that "specialization" in the case of

High School work may be unreasonably exalted unless wide scholarship and ability to teach a number of subjects are continued to be regarded as necessary attainments of those who are to become educators in the highest sense of the term.

It is becoming more generally acknowledged that from a moral, intellectual, and material point of view, national education is the great question of the future, and that progress can be secured *only by raising the status of the teacher*. Higher attainments in all matters that concern the qualifications of the teacher are felt to be needed, and the conviction is growing that in the performance of his duty the important work of *character building* must be maintained as the chief function of the school, and that this truth must place in the foreground the *personality* of the educator as the great *desideratum*. To train his pupils so that they may become useful citizens—men and women of the highest character—influenced by lofty aims and filled with noble impulses, should be the ambition of every person who enters the profession. If this volume shall help to inspire candidates for the teacher's calling with higher aspirations for advancement and usefulness, and shall, in some measure, increase public interest in the important question of national education, the author's labors in its preparation will not have been in vain.

JOHN MILLAR.

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT,
TORONTO, May 2nd, 1896.

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"What is the Teacher's work? It is to develop the mind, to mould the heart, and to form the character of the future citizens, magistrates, and rulers of our land? It is to teach and implant that which is the only true guarantee of liberty, order, and social stability—the essential element of a country's prosperity and happiness."

—Extract from official circular of August 14th, 1850, the first addressed to the teachers of the province by the Rev. Egerton Ryerson, LL.D., Chief Superintendent of Education.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

CHAPTER I.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL.

Correct Views Needed.—In order to know how to manage a school well, it is important to have right views regarding what is to be accomplished. Every person active in educational work should understand the nature and extent of his responsibilities, and the means by which his duties are to be performed. One of the chief causes of failure in teaching is the lack of well-defined purpose on the part of those entrusted with the training of pupils. A knowledge of the end to be reached determines the means to be employed, and directs aright the methods to be used. A wrong view of education leads to bad school management, and this produces bad teaching, bad discipline, bad training. Without a proper conception of the ends to be sought, the principles to be followed, and the methods to be adopted, in managing a school, there can be no ideal, no distinct aim, and no right appreciation of the value of the teacher's work. The function of the school, its responsibilities and its limitations, are matters that should be understood by the practical educationist.

School Management.—School Management is that department of the Science of Education which treats of

the best means of directing school affairs so as to secure efficiency. It includes not only school economy, but also school discipline and school ethics. It has for its object the regulation of all school work, and embraces all that pertains to the training given by the teacher. The organization of the school, the government employed, the programmes of study taken up, the methods of instruction adopted, the examinations held, and the promotions made, are all included in what the term implies. The school buildings and furniture, the use of text-books, attention to records, as well as the duties of inspectors, teachers, trustees and pupils, are matters connected with the same department of education. The scope of School Management is therefore very extensive, and many volumes would be needed to convey a fair knowledge of its details. In a more restricted sense, it merely includes a knowledge of those principles of the Science of Education which will enable the teacher to direct intelligently the forces at his command. In other words, the principles and general methods by which pupils are taught and governed, are what it mainly embraces, and the teacher is successful in the Art of Teaching, who trains children to be symmetrically developed men and women, in a physical, intellectual and moral sense. Certain modes of procedure, based on the Science of Education, have come to be recognized by educators as means for securing good results. An account of these methods, together with any practical rules drawn directly from scientific considerations, or suggested by experience, forms the subject matter of the Art of School Management. It should be felt, however, that no mere knowledge of practical rules can be of much service to the teacher who does not make himself acquainted with the principles upon which they are based. Education

is both a science and an art, and in the work of the school-room the principles of the former, and the rules of the latter, are inseparably associated.

The Science of Education.—The Science of Education, upon which School Management is based, is very complex in its nature. Its principles are drawn from many different branches of knowledge. It has, besides, its own peculiar sphere of investigation, and it includes a great variety of truths which concern the growth and development of mind and body. It helps us to analyze mental processes and the laws of human progress, to discover causes of social conditions and sources of national greatness, and to unfold to the practical educator the means by which his work may be successfully accomplished. It has a complex practical problem to solve. It aims to do certain valuable work for the individual and the community. It points out rules, methods and principles for the accomplishment of its object, and thus embraces the Art of Teaching. It strives to find out a rational basis for the use of such rules as experience has justified. It seeks to bring to light the philosophic truths of psychology, physiology and ethics, and thus to secure full recognition of what is needed to make better teachers. Its value cannot be ignored unless teaching is to be regarded as the work of the empiric, and methods of instructing and modes of governing are to be considered as a collection of ingenious devices.

It follows that education to the teacher becomes an applied science, and the more thoroughly he masters the principles to be employed, the more successfully will he perform his work. A knowledge of School Management secured by a mere study of methods, leads to mechanical teaching, weak discipline, and defective intellectual and moral results.

Education.—The definition of education depends upon the point of observation, and the particular object intended to be gained. The utilitarian, the moralist, the philosopher, and the statesman will, in each case, have his own ideas on the question. The subjects of the curriculum that afford culture or training, and those that have a more direct bearing on the practical side of life, have their respective advocates. Teaching that best prepares pupils to make a living satisfies many persons; but a broader outlook holds that man cannot live by bread alone. The command, "Be ye perfect," expresses the goal to which each should aspire in the process of self-education, and the aim of the teacher should be to prepare his pupils for perfect living, and this includes the promotion of continuous efforts for self-improvement. In its full sense, education calls for the harmonious development of all the powers of body and of mind. Complete education will embrace the training, by appropriate exercises, of the physical and mental faculties. This will necessitate the acquisition of such knowledge as will benefit the individual and the community. The child is not to be trained primarily to become a member of any particular sect, calling or profession. However important these matters may be, they are only of secondary consideration to the teacher. The chief object he should have in view is that of training each pupil to become a man or a woman in the highest sense of the term. Any narrow conception of the scope of education limits the horizon of the educator, and restricts the application of those principles upon which every efficient system of instruction is based.

"The purpose of education is to give to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable."—*Plato.*

"I call a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skilfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both public and private, of peace and of war."—*Milton*.

"Education is the preparation for complete living."—*Spencer*.

"Education is the preparation of the individual for reciprocal union with society; the preparation of the individual so that he can help his fellow-men, and in return receive and appropriate their help."—*W. T. Harris*.

Kinds of Education.—To reach full development the child passes through a complex process. This process is harmonious, beautiful and consistent, but it is varied in its nature. The varieties of education are parts of what must be combined in due proportion if the result is to be complete. If any essential department of education is neglected, the effect will be harmful or disastrous. The fully educated person has stored his mind with knowledge in such a way that his intellectual faculties give him skill and power. His moral nature is so developed that he has a delicate appreciation of duty, and a will that readily responds to the dictates of an enlightened conscience. His body has been trained to perform its functions in obedience to the intelligent demands of his moral impulses. He has, besides, recognized his relationship to his Maker and to his fellow-beings. In addition to these essential features of a general education, he has, so far as his ability and opportunities will permit, received such special training as will fit him for the position in which he is placed as a member of society. It is evident education has many sides, but it is convenient to speak of it under the heads here enumerated, viz.: (1) Religious Education; (2) Moral Education; (3) Intellectual Education; (4) Physical Education; and (5) Special Education. The first of these is chief in importance; but, as will be shown hereafter, it does not come within the range of ordinary school work. Special

Education, except in a slight way, has also no place in the programmes of elementary or secondary schools.

Means of Education.—All the influences in life that go to form character are the means that give a person his education. In early infancy the child is educated by the experience gained through the natural activity of the instincts. The simple knowledge acquired in childhood develops mental activity, and the exercise of the intellectual and physical faculties forms habits. Under the guidance of parents, influences of a potent kind are brought to bear on the plastic nature of the child. If these influences are exercised with definite purpose, and in a methodical and otherwise judicious manner, a great and good start has been made before the school days have begun. Impulses that are the product of the home, of association with young companions, and of the environment generally, soon mould the nature of the child. Self-education commences before school life is entered upon, and continues to be the main process in every educational force. In the school the intellectual faculties are exercised under the intelligent guidance of the teacher, and the moral convictions are formed or strengthened. In his intercourse with society in his own reading and reflection, and in his relations with the Church and other organizations, the opinions and habits of the pupil are powerfully directed. His training does not end when he leaves school. The education which is carried on in mature years, when the full possession of his mental powers has been gained, further determines his character as a man and the position he will occupy. The more commanding his position in life, and the greater the demands made on his mental faculties, the more continuous will be the forces that make for higher intellectual development.

Scope of School Education.—School life has to do with various aspects of the nature of the child. To promote his moral well-being comes first in value. His intellectual faculties are cultivated in order that he may readily acquire such knowledge as will enlarge his powers and increase his skill. In view of the dependence of mental development upon bodily strength, the school must give due attention to physical culture (Chapter II.). Human happiness, as well as human usefulness, depends largely upon the cultivation of the moral nature. Intellectual exercises should be carried on at all times with the object of building up character. As will be shown hereafter (Chapter V.), good teaching implies good moral training; but it is well known that the intellect may be sharpened while the moral nature is blunt. There can be no sound cultivation of the moral faculties that does not enlist in its service the intelligence of the pupil. A mere apprehension of the rules of conduct, without a rational conception of righteousness, will never raise a person high in the scale of moral dignity. When the intelligence is exercised regarding moral principles, and when these principles are actually tested by daily applying them, they become more pregnant with meaning, more commanding in obligation, and therefore more serviceable as guides through life. Harmonious development demands that other agencies than the school should perform their functions. The duties of parents or those of the Church cannot be thrown on the teacher. Religious, moral, intellectual and physical education should be carried on concurrently; but this does not imply that the scope of school education is the same in each case. It is not the province of the teacher to prescribe the food necessary for the soul any more than it is to prescribe the kind of food which parents should give

to their children for the nourishment of their bodies. A want of due recognition of the function of the school, and a tendency to ignore the other educational agencies, have given rise many times to gross misconceptions and unreasonable expectations.

Limitations.—The school is limited in its functions; and, as a consequence, the responsibility of the teacher, though great, has also its limitations. The school is a powerful agency in mentally and morally enlightening the people. It is desirable to magnify the calling of the teacher, but the practice of measuring his worth by the success of a few brilliant pupils should be deprecated. In this respect the teacher is exposed to great temptations. The public have not a ready means of measuring a teacher's worth by the highest standards. The best work is not always noticed. Honors won and certificates gained by the bright members of the class are too often the only tests appreciated (Chapter XVI.). As a teacher sows, so will he reap. The desire to turn out clever pupils as graduates of his school is not to be ignored, but the teacher who puts forward success of this kind as the chief criterion of his ability, may find his value estimated by his own standard when failure comes to students of his school who have weak intellectual powers.

It is not the function of the school to furnish brains to children. "Education can improve nature, but not completely change it," was the opinion of Aristotle. No educational process can *draw out* what is not in the mind. The most skilful teacher has no philosopher's stone to turn into gold what is only lead. The average pupil is not a genius. It is not in the power of the school to create, but to strengthen and improve. The child at birth is not

without inherited tendencies. Failure to recognize this fact has led to many disappointments in education.

The function of the school is not to supersede, but to supplement, the education of the family. It is bound, so far as opportunity allows, to maintain equally with the parent, the pupil's bodily strength. It must foster the growth of morality, which it is the duty of parents to implant, and must make up, so far as possible, for any defects in parental discipline. It must strengthen with due prudence religious sanctions (Chapter IV.), as the only sound basis of morality, and never use any means that would arouse denominational hostility.

It is not the function of the school to train pupils for special callings in life. What occupations pupils should follow may often need guidance, but in no case should the Public School be made an institution for fitting pupils for any particular trade or profession. Doubtless the success of students in school will often determine the course subsequently taken up; but mental development necessarily gives greater choice in deciding upon a future career, and in any country with an efficient school system, aspirations and ambitions are not only to be expected, but to be commended.

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CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL CULTURE.

Importance of Physical Training.—Any system of education would be seriously defective that did not give prominence to the laws of health. The value of bodily strength was felt by the Persians, the Greeks, and the Romans; and the nations of modern Europe and of America are becoming more fully alive to its demands. The researches of science, and especially the study of hygienic laws, are saving intelligent nations from blind empiricism. Protection against disease is an important matter, since a condition of health is the foundation upon which all physical culture must rest.

It is clear that matters of every-day occurrence call for more attention to all that affects bodily vigor. Not one person in ten takes proper care of his health. Broken-down constitutions indicate lamentable negligence. Statistics show an amount of sickness that might have been lessened. Premature deaths are numerous. Experimental psychology has furnished us with data that may be turned to great advantage. Sweden has pointed out the large number of boys and girls—especially the latter—that are troubled with headaches and weak spines. Germany has called attention to the defective eyesight of many of its people. French physicians have urged a halt regarding the pressure of school studies. Educational reformers in England, Canada and the United States are strongly advocating

more attention to physical training. The words of the immortal Juvenal—"Mens sana in corpore sano"—embody a principle which should be widely recognized.

The Duty of the School.—Physical culture must have its place in the school. Physiology and hygiene should form part of the curriculum. Sanitary conditions cannot be ignored by trustees. The health of the child, his rapid growth during school age, and the effect of this rapid development upon his ability to study, demand the careful attention of all school authorities.

In a new and sparsely settled country, where the inhabitants are mostly connected with agriculture, some of the dangers to health which beset large cities are absent. The problems relating to school life become more complicated when questions affecting a supply of pure water, the disposal of sewage, the heating and ventilation of large buildings, and the organization of graded schools, are pressing for solution. The haste to advance from one class to another, the demands upon the young organism in the critical period of its growth, the aspirations that stimulate mental activities, and the numerous exposures to danger, render it imperative that the work of the school should be carried on in such a way as will not foster intellectual development at the expense of bodily vigor.

Instruction in Hygiene.—The ignorance of the most elementary principles of hygiene so often shown, proves that the subject should have its place in the public school programme. It may be made interesting to pupils if divested, as it can be, of many of the terms pertaining to anatomy, physiology and chemistry. Children should have some scientific knowledge of the food they enjoy, the air they breathe, the rest they require, the bodies they use, the care required of the eyes, and the voice to be trained.

It is irrational to require students to understand mathematics, history, botany, drawing, philology, etc., and at the same time to give them no means of gaining a knowledge of the muscles, the nervous system, respiration, digestion, the evils of narcotics, the circulation of the blood, and the laws that govern the development of the body.

Healthfulness of School Site.—The site of a school should not be chosen where children may be exposed to accident, or where there is danger of contracting disease. The day is gone by when, for the sake of getting a site for nothing, a school is located near a swamp, or near stagnant water, where malarial or miasmatic vapors abound. If built in a town or city, it should not be placed where the occupants breathe the gases and effluvia arising from improperly drained streets, neighboring factories or stables, or leaky and defective sewers. Apart from sanitary requirements, the surroundings should be attractive, the grounds fenced, well laid out and ornamented, and necessary provisions made to secure ready ingress and egress. For purposes of health, one of the most important accessories of the school-house is the play-ground. Whether it is used as a place for continuing the discipline of the school-room, or simply as a spot where the children may be free to pursue their games, its size, location and exposure should be carefully considered. Pupils are more easily controlled when their environments are agreeable. Good facilities for play and recreation are essential to good discipline. Interest should be taken in Arbor Day observances and in every other means of improving the school grounds. The cultivation of the æsthetic taste in these, and in other directions, will secure greater regularity of attendance, and promote good order and that

love for school life which, in itself, is helpful to physical growth.

The Building.—This is not the place to mention in detail the requirements of school architecture. The regulations compel trustees to comply with important sanitary conditions. In the erection of a school-house, utility, comfort and beauty may be combined. Health is the first consideration. It is hard to preserve order in a room where no regard has been paid to these requirements. The school-house should be the pride of the community. Commodious schools furnish more working space and a better supply of pure air. Small, low, over-crowded school-rooms show wretched economy. A few paltry dollars will often be grudged for what may be needed for the comfort, health, and even for the safety of the lives, of children.

School Furniture.—The furniture of a school should be selected with due regard for the comfort of the pupils. Good order, as well as health, forbids the use of seats that are too high or too low. Dangling feet or cramped limbs are soon attended with restlessness and disturbance. In a rural school, seats of different heights are usually provided. Even in a graded school, unless there are practical difficulties in the way, a similar arrangement has its advantage, when pupils of different sizes are put in the same class. The object is sometimes met by the use of foot-rests, or by means of "adjustable" seats and desks—i.e., seats and desks that may be adjusted to the size of the occupant. It is to be regretted that sufficient attention has not always been given to the question of suitable school furniture. Not to speak of nervous disorders, round shoulders, sunken chests, curvature of the spine, and other physical defects, which are often due to improper positions

of pupils in school, much inattention and disorder are traceable to the same causes.

Heating.—The temperature of a school should be from 65 to 70 degrees, Fahrenheit, so that every pupil is comfortably warm, whatever part of the room he occupies. The thermometer should be frequently consulted. A temperature too high or too low distracts attention, renders pupils dull, destroys intellectual activity, and endangers health. School trustees are slow in adopting modern methods of heating. A common stove, without any provision for ventilation or any plan of moistening the air, is still found in many rural schools and even in some city schools. Defects of this kind render it the more imperative for the teacher to see that the children are not exposed to draughts, or to excessive heat or cold. Carelessness here is next to a crime. More excusable to neglect grammar or arithmetic than to be blind to the importance of the health and physical comfort of the pupils.

Ventilation.—Good school work needs pure blood, and pure blood largely depends upon pure air. Anyone who in winter enters a crowded and badly ventilated school, and notices the vitiated atmosphere which pupils and teachers breathe, will not wonder at the disastrous results to health that are ascribed to bad ventilation. Bad air sends noxious elements to the blood, depresses the organs of circulation and respiration, produces languor, and destroys the pleasures of school life. It makes the pupils stupid, and it is apt to cause the teacher to grow irritable and cross. In a badly ventilated room the energy flags, weariness follows, the work suffers, and the order is poor. Listlessness, headache, giddiness and dulness are signs of a vitiated atmosphere. In a well ventilated room a good teacher feels energetic, and the children readily respond to his demands for mental exertion.

The question of ventilation is closely connected with that of heating, and both are now receiving much attention. Unfortunately, window ventilation is still the only method adopted in a great many schools. To protect the pupils from exposure, and to keep the room supplied with pure air, will require careful study. The lack of thought on the part of the teacher often compels children to sit in a room which for one hour is filled with a hot, stifling atmosphere, and for the next with air almost as cold as that outside. A teacher who becomes so absorbed in teaching as not to anticipate the state of the atmosphere for the next hour, is unfit for his position.

Lighting.—Light is essential to good health. A half-lighted room has a gloomy look, and exercises a depressing effect on teacher and pupils. Children should not be allowed to sit with the sunshine either coming in their eyes or beating on their heads. It is a mistake, however, to exclude sunlight from the room. Large windows and plenty of them will, with a judicious arrangement of blinds, readily secure all that is desired. Pupils should not be required to face the windows. Facing the light often produces pain in the eyes, headache, general nervous irritation, and possible injury to the sight.

The best light for a school-room is from the left of the pupils. Buildings are not always planned with this object in view, and, therefore, greater care devolves upon the teacher. Too often low windows, glazing (which diminishes the light), and badly tinted walls are to be found, as well as an arrangement of furniture which brings pupils in their own light. The cultivation of house plants is to be encouraged, but the absurd habit of darkening rooms by placing too many plants in the windows should be avoided.

Cleanliness.—"Cleanliness is next to godliness," is a maxim the truth of which science will not dispute. Nothing is more certain to sanitarians than that disease revels in dirt, dampness and darkness. Soap and civilization are inseparable. A free use of water promotes mental growth as well as physical vigor. The school-room must be kept scrupulously clean, and children must be trained to avoid bringing in dirt, spitting on the floor, or forming other objectionable habits of this nature. A judicious teacher can, without giving offence, accustom children to pay proper attention to personal cleanliness. Much good may be accomplished by giving plain talks to little children on the necessity of forming regular habits, and on the consequent importance of attending promptly to all the calls of nature. In these matters parents are often remiss, and a false delicacy limits teachers in their duties.

It is time trustees were compelled to give more attention to the construction of the outside buildings. Care should be taken to have the closets frequently cleaned, and placed under regular inspection. Apart from sanitary considerations, negligence here is an obstacle to moral training, and a sure sign, if overlooked by the teacher, of bad discipline. The paths leading to the closets, where the latter (as is generally the case) are separated from the buildings, should be kept free from dampness, dirt or obstruction. In winter the snow should be promptly cleared away. Carelessness is a sure sign of neglect on the part of the responsible school authorities. Disinfectants when needed should be applied. It is scarcely necessary to add that the closets, if not properly connected with the building, should be screened or sufficiently retired, and not conspicuously placed in the play grounds. Separate provisions for the sexes is imperative.

Fatigue.—The brain, like any other physical organ, is benefited by effort, but it becomes wearied with over-exertion. For healthy exercise it needs the nourishment that comes from good food, pure water, fresh air, and a vigorous circulation. Mental exercise should be suited to the stage of development and to the age of the pupil. The first intellectual efforts should not go much beyond the acquisition of knowledge gained through the senses. The power of attention cannot be secured at once, and further time will be needed for that of conception, judgment and reason. To attempt at an early age the abstractions of grammar, the principles of science, or the reasoning of mathematics, is to produce weariness and to dwarf the intellect.

Fatigue may often be prevented by a wise arrangement of the time table (Chapter XII.). In the case of young children, school life should not be made unhappy by assigning much home work. There should be no interference with the necessary physical exercises of the evening. Abundant sleep is a primary condition of sound health, profitable study, and mental and physical growth. Frequent alternation of bodily and mental exertion will often prevent fatigue and promote physical, as well as intellectual, development. It is a sound rule in elementary classes to avoid the continuation of any effort up to the point of weariness. Children need rest, and any neglect of sleep or recreation is pernicious in its consequences. A healthy child is benefited by mental exercise, provided the exertion does not cause fatigue. The annual examination, if the classification is good, should never injuriously affect the bodily condition of a scholar who has had during the year proper intellectual work of a reproductive nature. When work has been done in a

hurried way, and pupils expected, by storing their memories with badly-digested matter, to complete in one year what should require two, it is no wonder that the examination is approached with nervous anxiety, or that it demands a vast expenditure of effort, and gives rise to worry, fatigue and even bodily collapse (Chapter XVI.). Good teaching produces pleasure and not fatigue.

Mental fatigue may be due to the neglect of bodily exercise, but it is a mistake to require immediately from the over-taxed student a large amount of physical exertion. His condition may demand economy of nervous energy, perfect repose of brain, and therefore no difficult gymnastics. A good walk, or a run in the green fields, will free the mind and rest the head better in such a case than any system of physical exercise. There are physiological reasons that should prevent a thoughtful teacher from ignoring the apathy often shown to drill and gymnastics by intellectual students. Severe gymnastics are not desirable in any case. To become a scholar and an athlete is difficult.

Physical Exercise.—Physical growth, like intellectual or moral development, cannot be secured without exercise. Lessons in hygiene will not give bodily strength. Exercise of the body is a direct relief from exercise that is purely intellectual. If the limbs are exercised, a better growth of the various structures of the brain is the result. Bodily exertion promotes also moral restraint, and secures better discipline in school. Too often it has been supposed that physical culture is valuable only because it sustains and improves the bodily strength by expanding the lungs, quickening the circulation, and developing the muscles. It does all this and more. It contributes to brain growth, and to the symmetrical development of the mental faculties.

In the matter of moral training it promotes courage, fortitude, determination, and obedience. It tends to restrain the appetites and passions, as well as to check tendencies to selfishness.

Each class of physical exercises has its own characteristic effect. Athletics will develop perseverance, courage, and power to adapt one's self to emergencies. Greece, Rome and England present illustration. Gymnastics will develop endurance and faith in one's powers, as witnessed in Germany. Calisthenics, as practised in Sweden and France, will promote grace of movement. No one of them should dispense with the spontaneous exercises of the school-yard.

Exercises which call into action the greatest number of muscles are the best. In addition to the ordinary occupations of life, there is a variety of common forms of exercise. Walking, using the bicycle, riding on horseback, rowing, swimming, skating and playing lawn-tennis or football have their respective advantages. They take persons into the open air and sunshine, and thus supply the lungs with air, enrich the blood, and exercise the muscles.

There is danger of over-straining in physical as well as in mental exercises. This is especially true during the nascent period of each organ. Some exercises of a physical kind, as well as some of an intellectual nature, should not come early in life.

"The body does not grow alike in all directions and at all times. In the first stages of development the lower organs receive the most nourishment, and at a later stage the brain and arms. Each organ and each faculty has a nascent period. When we shall have determined the order of the nascent periods, we shall have a scientific basis for education never before known. The nascent period of the arms comes before that of the wrists and hands. So the child should work with full-arm movements before being

expected to make use of the fingers. . . . If an organ is exercised much before the period of greatest growth, it is dwarfed and stunted from over-work. If not exercised till after that period, the energy developed goes to waste. If the work comes before that period, the organs suffer from over-work; if after, from under-work."—*G. Stanley Hall.*

Recess.—Study exhausts. Amusement of the proper kind is the best hygienic agency. Recreation is essential to good work. School life must have its periods of play. The more studious the boy the more vigorous should be the recreation. Injury will follow any reversal of Nature's methods of recuperation. Three or four hours of daily work may be plenty for pupils under seven years of age. The number, length and distribution of recesses must vary with the ages of children. Exercises during recess should, if the weather permits, be taken in the open air. Play is the most healthful of all exercises. "Play," says Richter, "is, in the first place, the working off at once of the overflow of both mental and physical powers." Plays which are dangerous, or which tend to make pupils rude, should be prohibited. The intermission gives good opportunities for judging character and developing the moral nature of children. It helps to cultivate a healthy public sentiment among pupils. The outbursts of passion, differences of opinion, and accidents of the play-ground, are positive forces of childhood. They are primitive embryonic forms of that society in which adult life moves.

"I am a great stickler for the old-fashioned recess—the wild recess; the pupil bursting out of the school-room, running about, shouting, and pushing his fellows. It is the recess that recreates the pupil and restores the nervous energy. After the enjoyment of a little freedom and a run, the child returns to the school-room and does his work better. But these set exercises which strain the attention of the child are hurtful."—*W. T. Harris.*

Games.—For the older pupils hardy and vigorous games should be encouraged. Cricket, football, lacrosse and baseball have long held prominence. In the case of High School students, football has at present most popularity. Even younger boys may engage in this game if they are not allowed to come into collision with those much bigger and stronger than themselves. It is well for the teacher to be frequently on the play-ground to suggest games, and thus quietly to select what is invigorating and refining.

It is no harm to allow girls to "romp" and take abundance of outdoor recreation. False views of decorum often debar them from play. Every school-yard should have a portion fenced off for the girls, where they may play ball, lawn tennis, or other games. More physical vigor, and less music and painting, would not harm many young women.

Gymnastics.—High School and College students need a system of bodily exercises to develop muscular strength, and to promote general physical culture and health. In the employment of the severe gymnastics, regard should be had to the age and physical constitution of the students. Much injury may be done by requiring all the members of a school or class to perform the same exercises. It is doubtful whether, up to the age of entering a High School, pupils need much more than abundant opportunities for the outdoor sports and recreations in which their natural activity will prompt them to engage. False views of the purposes of gymnastics are often held. It should be understood that the object is not to turn out athletes, but to promote physical culture. The practice of sending all the members of a class into the gymnasium to engage indiscriminately, and without direction, in any exercises they may choose, is to be condemned. The building should

be properly heated, and fitted up with simple appliances of the most approved character, and the regular masters should give proper directions regarding the exercises, unless a special instructor is provided.

Calisthenics.—This system of physical exercises for girls is based on the same principle as gymnastics for boys. Apparatus may or may not be used. The movements are neither violent nor complicated. Unlike the common active sports of girls, their advantage consists in their systematic regulation, so as to give regular action to the muscles. A great variety of beneficial, graceful and interesting exercises may be performed with such simple instruments as wands, dumb-bells, light-weights, etc. The movements train to promptness, develop grace of body, promote harmony of action among a number of pupils, and break up sluggishness. A judicious use of calisthenic exercises will prevent many nervous ailments to which girls are liable. Care is necessary in their use. When not taken in the open air, the room during winter should be properly heated, and should be well lighted, ventilated, and kept free from dust. The dress worn should be light and easy, and the exercises should not be prolonged. Much intellectual exertion must not be expected if the physical system has become jaded and fatigued. The exercises, for neither boys nor girls, should be taken immediately before or after meals. Early in the morning, or near evening, is the best time for both gymnastics and calisthenics.

Military Drill.—Military or Swedish drill may be an efficient substitute for certain gymnastic exercises. It is found to be not only an effective means of giving physical culture, but an excellent method of forming habits of attention, order, subordination, and prompt obedience.

Many a boy with ungainly walk, stooped shoulders, or sluggish movements, may be cured by a few months' practice in drill. The body becomes better set up, the chest is expanded, the shoulders are thrown well back, and the head is kept erect. The step also becomes elastic, and the limbs are moved with ease and precision.

Drill is a method of physical culture that is inexpensive to trustees, and capable of being taken up by any intelligent teacher and adapted to the conditions of all classes of pupils. Too often the real purposes of drill are lost sight of. The main object is to develop the body, and not to foster any ardor for military glory or display.

Manual Training.—This is a late addition to the curriculum of city schools in some countries. The most grotesque notions are prevalent with many persons as to the object of Manual Training Schools. A boy is not taught a trade but he is taught many principles that underlie all trades, and he acquires facility in the use of all the common tools. A Manual Training School affords the students of a large city opportunities which those in the rural districts enjoy. It co-ordinates literature with art, and both with science and mathematics; so that the youth learns that no form of honest labor is without its inherent dignity, and that beauty and utility are not necessarily separated from the every-day life of the mechanic. Incidentally, Manual Training Schools furnish physical culture, which, though limited in its scope, is highly valuable to the class of boys that attend these institutions. Schools for girls are also established.

REFERENCES.

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CHAPTER III.

INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT.

The Chief Work of the School.—The main business of the school is the intellectual development of the pupils. This statement does not mean that a higher object than growth in intelligence is not the end of education. In the formation of human character, it may be assumed that the proper order of mental faculties is (1) Will; (2) Sensibility; (3) Intellect. It is true, nevertheless, that the reflex action of sound intellectual culture is the principal means by which the propensities and tastes of an individual are ennobled, and his moral sense strengthened. Self-exertion is, in most respects, the only instrumentality that secures culture. None of the faculties can be developed except by exercise, and no exercise is to be commended that is not directed by intelligence. Hence the need of guiding children until they have acquired sufficient knowledge to direct their exercise themselves. The school furnishes the best means of enabling children to acquire that knowledge by which their mental and bodily powers may be intelligently directed and improved.

The Acquisition of Knowledge. — Intellectual development is mainly secured by the proper acquisition of knowledge. This implies that the teacher should possess the necessary knowledge, and have the ability to impart it aright. If reading, writing and arithmetic are considered in their possible applications, it is evident their acquisition

may be regarded as the basis of school education. They furnish that elementary knowledge which is to serve as food for present mental and moral growth, and as a foundation and starting point for future acquisitions. If viewed as instruments of learning, it is clear the child needs real knowledge to fit him to discharge intelligently the duties of life. He must acquire information in those branches that contribute to his happiness and usefulness.

The possession of knowledge does not guarantee wisdom. The person who knows a great deal is not necessarily educated. An educated person has power and skill, which depend upon the proper acquisition of knowledge. Judgment and reason are not always characteristics of a mind stored with learning. It follows, therefore, that the methods of instruction in school have much to do with the usefulness of the information which children receive.

Cramming.—This is a term used to denote a faulty method of imparting knowledge. It implies the practice of filling the mind with badly arranged facts, and not allowing sufficient time to generalize them, to compare them with previous acquisitions, or to determine their full significance. Knowledge put into the mind in such a way is not digested or assimilated, and instead of furnishing power and skill, becomes useless lumber. Cramming and educating are not the same. The former is pouring something into the mind ; the latter is developing the mind by appropriate exercise. Cramming unduly develops the memory. Good teaching cultivates all the mental faculties in proper proportions.

In elementary education, cramming is especially pernicious. Crowding the memory with definitions, rules, facts, names, dates, etc., is one of the common forms it once assumed. The powers of the mind were also burdened

with a multiplicity of studies. Its most noticeable form of late years is undue haste in promotions from one class to another. The imprudent desires of parents to see their children put in a higher class, and the habit of estimating a teacher's worth by the success of pupils at examinations, are obstacles in the way of checking the evil.

Unfair criticism is, however, often heard in this connection. There can be no mental growth without exertion. Intellectual activity is not a sign that cramming exists. A school where children are not earnest is poorly managed. Written examinations properly conducted are not an evil, but a benefit. To gain power and skill the acquisition of knowledge is necessary, and knowledge is of little intellectual value if it has not been the result of activity, labor, study, self-denial. In a school where pupils are not ambitious, desirous of being promoted, and anxious to pass examinations, the teaching is poor from a moral, as well as from an intellectual, point of view (Chapter VI).

Instruction.—Instruction is the main process of imparting knowledge. To become intelligent, pupils must be trained to exercise the powers of the mind on the knowledge they receive. In this way they become educated. Children are not necessarily being educated when they receive instruction. This is where mistakes are often made. Instruction is only a subordinate branch of education. The former enables the pupil to learn many things; the latter, to use knowledge aright. Instruction gives resources for a course in life; education furnishes rules serviceable for all times and for all careers.

All instruction should be educative. Its methods should cultivate the mind and the heart. Knowledge should throw light upon the rules of duty, and remove prejudices, unmanly passions and evil tendencies that are the result

of ignorance. Instruction should supply mental food that can be digested. It should influence the feelings and the volitions. Nothing should be put into the mind that will not train and develop its powers. Instruction, to be educative, must follow natural laws. It must, therefore, develop in proper order the senses, the powers of observation, and the faculties of language, abstraction, generalization and reason.

Instruction, to be educative, must awaken interest. New matter must be added to the old by natural connection. What is familiar must be made the basis for acquiring what is unfamiliar (Chapter XVI.). Fondness for the subject must be cultivated. Dislike for a lesson must be removed. Satisfactory attention demands that there be no antagonism between teacher and pupil. Fear is opposed to interest.

Instruction, to be educative, must keep in view the chief aim of teaching. Knowledge must be regarded only as an instrument. In giving instruction, the teacher must deliberately ask if the information imparted fits into the harmonious development of the child's powers. The whole future of the child must be considered (Chapter VI.).

Observation.—Before entering school, children have acquired many ideas from their environments. Their powers of observation have already received considerable development. Their senses have been cultivated. They have formed impressions. Their powers of perception lead to the reproduction of simple ideas, to simple generalization and to simple abstraction. Conception, or the faculty by which the products of perception are grouped, supplies them with a variety of materials for thought. It is evident, therefore, that young children should be furnished with plenty of objects on which to exercise the senses.

Ideas and words should go together. Instead of the

maxim, "Things before words," the principle to be followed is, "Things and words." Sound teaching calls for the direct progress from ideas to words, and also the converse process which comes from going back to things from words.

It is clear that the instruction given to pupils during the first years of school life should be mainly from their surroundings. Elementary science should have a place in the course, for the purpose of developing and training the senses and creating the habit of observation. The eye learns to see by seeing, the ear learns to hear by hearing, and in like manner the other senses are trained. The maxim of Comenius is true, "Let things that have to be done be learned by doing them."

Children must be directed so that they may learn to observe with order, regularity, accuracy and rapidity. It is not so much what is acquired that is valuable, as the habit of observation acquired. The child, properly trained, gains knowledge with little expenditure of time or labor, and with constant pleasure. The powers of observation are extended to facts of geography, history, drawing and a variety of subjects besides natural phenomena. Observation goes on with the development of memory, imagination and reason.

Attention.*—The power of continuous attention is the most valuable result of intellectual training. Ability to fix the mind upon that which is brought before it shows a high degree of mental development. The aim of the teacher should be to instil such habits of self-control as will train his pupils to direct at will their own intellectual

*Consult on the subject of *Attention*, "Applied Psychology," McLellan, page 50, and "Outlines of Psychology," Sully, chapter iv.

activities. Power to interest pupils in the early stages of instruction is most valuable. Young children need constant change of exercises, short and well-adapted lessons, and the presentation of the known before the unknown, the simple before the complex, and the concrete before the abstract. It is a serious mistake to expect a young pupil to be able to fix his mind long on one subject. It is a grave wrong to scold a child for not doing that which is beyond his strength. Like other powers both of body and mind, attention grows in strength and vivacity by being frequently exercised. Pupils are not all interested alike. Skill is needed to hit upon devices that will keep a number of children steadily active in one direction for a long time. Care must be taken to keep them in good spirits. To cultivate a love for knowledge is more valuable than to impart knowledge. Haste in study weakens the power of attention, and it is to be condemned.

Imagination.—The faculty of imagination, or the power of reproducing fictitious combinations of conceptions, exists to a greater or less degree in every mind, and has its effect in moral and intellectual actions. The neglect of its cultivation is pernicious, but not more injurious than its abuse by undue stimulation. The work of the imagination is complementary to that of observation. Its function is to lift the mind from the contemplation of the actual and to carry it beyond the field of mere observation. Almost every branch pursued in school affords some means for the cultivation of the imagination. Its best fields are found in geography, history, and poetry. Stories told to children may, if used with discretion, afford a most valuable opportunity for the purpose. The delineation of ideal life which is true to nature should be pictured to children. That in which the sentiments are ambiguous in character, or morbid in action, should be carefully avoided.

For young children pictures which do not give details are the best means of exercising the imagination. With older pupils elaboration, attention to artistic finish, and description in language, may be used with advantage. When the teacher can throw himself into his subject so as to excite the curiosity of his class, and carry his pupils along with him by the force of sympathy, the effect will be intensified. In all cases it is the duty of the teacher to watch carefully the trend of the child's imagination. The power gained must be such as will promote the right kind of intellectual and moral development.

"It is natural for the imagination to *project* itself; to attempt to embody its images in outward form. These outward modes of expression may be very largely guided and controlled without interfering unduly with the inward moods and dispositions whence they flow. Drawing, modelling, designing, even plaiting, stick-laying and machine work may be made, not only means of training the impulses, the sense organs and the functions of intelligence, but also the imagination. Composition work and essay writing are means which should not be neglected; the choice of subjects and the mode of treatment both being of importance."—*McLellan*.

"The imagination of the pupil can be led by means of the classical works of creative imagination to the formation of a good taste both as regards ethical merit and beauty of form. The proper classical works for youth are those which nations have produced in the childhood of their culture. These works bring children face to face with the picture of the world which the human mind has sketched for itself in one of the necessary stages of its development. This is the real reason why our children never weary of reading Homer and the stories of the Old Testament."—*Rosenkranz*.

Memory.—The power of reproduction is an important acquisition. Ability to retain and recall the ideas we have formed is a valuable feature of intellectual development. Without memory the fruits of conception and

imagination would go to waste. The memory is efficient according to the accuracy with which it retains ideas, and the promptness with which it produces them when required. A good memory will exhibit fidelity, tenacity and readiness. Ability to retain and reproduce impressions is largely a matter of cultivation. In training the memory a wise discrimination is needed. What is important, general, or principal must be remembered, instead of what is trifling, specific, or subordinate. Much help may be gained by attention to classification, order, localization as to time or place, similarity in character and points of contrast. With the same object in view instruction should be definite, hurry should be avoided, and attention and perseverance should be constantly cultivated. (Chapter XIV.)

An impression is reproducible in proportion to the strength and vivacity with which it is first made. It follows that for the purpose of fixing an impression, a real object is better than any picture of it, and that a picture of it is better than a mere verbal description. Direct sensations, concentrated attention and frequent repetition, develop the power of reproduction. It should be understood that forgetfulness is not necessarily a sign of carelessness; but rather an indication that the impression formed is weak and that repetition is required.

"A considerable element in the art of teaching is skill in putting questions to children so as to exercise their power of recalling and reproducing what they have learnt. It is only by frequent going back that the meaning or content of verbal knowledge is preserved fresh. In order to test the knowledge of things, the teacher must call on the pupil to give out what he has learnt in his own words. By such skilful questioning he will find out how far the learner has seized and retained the distinctive features of the subject matter attended to, so as to keep his mental images clear and distinct."—*Sully.*

A pupil must acquire much on faith, but it is irrational to insist upon committing to memory words, rules and formulæ without connecting with them some intelligent apprehension of their meaning. Memorizing which calls forth no exercise of the pupil's conceptive power, no exercise of the imagination, or no cultivation of the reasoning faculties, is not to be defended. Memorizing, or "learning by heart," in order to produce a show of knowledge, should be condemned. Children must, however, commit to memory many things they do not rightly understand. With the young, memory is strong and logical perception weak.

"It sounds very fascinating to talk about understanding everything, learning everything thoroughly, and all those broad phrases, which plump down on a difficulty, and hide it. Put in practice, they are about on a par with exhorting a boy to mind he does not go into the water until he can swim."—*Thring*.

Language Training.—Training in language and in ideas should go on concurrently. The habit of giving what are called "language lessons" is liable to much abuse. There is no necessity of any artificial plan to help the child to give expressions for his perceptions. The ordinary conversations will suffice. An attempt to force the development of speech may lead to vain and thoughtless garrulity, or to the production of erroneous impressions.

The school is concerned in the correction of the bad habits of speaking that may be formed in early childhood, and in that development of language which comes from knowledge and the necessary association of words and ideas. There is considerable diversity of opinion regarding the best methods of teaching grammar, composition, reading and other subjects that give exercise to the language

faculties. It is clear that from the inseparable connection between words and conceptions, every subject of the curriculum should be used to some extent for purposes of language training. It therefore follows that the teachers of mathematics, science, etc., are responsible, along with the teacher of English, for perfecting the pupil in his vernacular language.

Ability to use the English language well shows a high stage of mental development. The power to express valuable thoughts in choice composition comes from the best kind of intellectual training. Perhaps there is no better test of sound scholarship and of a well-cultivated mind than the reproduction in writing of what a person has studied, considered or investigated.

The Reasoning Faculties.—The prevalence of error and the force of prejudices show the need of training in that which will enable one to form correct opinions. Children should be taught at an early age to check selfish motives, to search for true principles of action, and to exercise due caution in restraining their emotions. The child soon learns to observe with exactness, to compare readily, to trace analogies, to detect differences, and to come to simple decisions. Gradually the cultivation of the judgment may be extended to matters that are complex and abstract, and moral questions may receive consideration.

An attempt at sustained argument is out of place in elementary classes. To some extent, however, there may be a beginning in formal demonstration before Euclid is taken up. The great difficulty which some children experience in mathematics is due partly to haste, and partly to an entire neglect of any preliminary training of the reasoning faculties. Ability to reason well is not

possessed by many. It implies good thinking, and good thinking is not to be expected without wide culture. While it is a mistake to expect a high development of the reasoning faculties from every student, it is also a mistake to suppose that any child can be made intellectually or morally strong if denied the aid that comes from those subjects that are known to be valuable for this purpose. Children need to be warned against hasty induction, against taking a mere accidental circumstance for a condition or cause. They should also be directed to draw conclusions from principles, and cautioned against making wrong deductions.

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CHAPTER IV.

THE PLACE OF RELIGION IN SCHOOL.

The Problem that is Presented.—The great importance of moral training as a department of education, and the generally accepted opinion that morality must rest on a religious basis (See duties of teachers in Appendix), have given rise to much discussion regarding the place of religion in the Public School. The consideration of the question cannot be overlooked in a work on School Management.

Among those who discuss the duties of the teacher regarding religion, there is much difference of opinion. There is a sense in which religion cannot be taught in the Public School without presenting very serious practical difficulties. If children require such religious teaching as will induce them to believe that the acceptance of the special doctrines of their Church is a Christian duty, or that the interpretation of the Bible as given by their denomination is the only sound one, it is clear that religious instruction cannot in a mixed community become part of the school programme.

There is another sense in which religion may be given a place that will meet with general approval. If religion is mainly something that should be observed in all the actions of life, it is hard to see how it can be excluded from the school, the farm, the shop, the office, and the legislative halls. The practical problem, so often discussed, is whether religion may be taught in such a way as to meet with the

approval of different denominations. The pedagogical problem—the solution of which has a prior claim for consideration—is whether the teacher must give religious instruction in order to make moral training effective.

Unfortunately many persons have too often ignored the the solution which educationists give to the pedagogical problem, and by assuming that the one who trains in grammar and in morals must also train in dogma, have given rise to animosities which have promoted neither charity nor any other Christian virtue.

The science of education and the judgment of the ablest teachers should afford the best means of ascertaining the proper place of religion in school. If it once can be established that instruction in religion and training in morality must be combined by the teacher, there can be no justification, apart from expediency, for undenominational schools. No nation can ignore the ethical training of the young. Morality must be taught in school even should national education be abandoned and sectarian schools restored. On the question of the place of religion in school, three views are advocated by different classes :

1. **Secular Schools.**—One class of persons oppose the use of any kind of religious exercises. They base their objections generally on the question of expediency. They hold that denominational differences render it impossible to give religion a place in the school without stepping on the dangerous ground of sectarianism. For the purpose of avoiding strife, and with the object of providing an educational system acceptable to all classes, they favor schools that are purely secular. They assume, that if all exercises of a religious character are dropped, no sectarian difficulties will arise and that a position of neutrality is the

only safe one to be taken by a State with a mixed population. It should be mentioned that the term "secular" is used with considerable indefiniteness. With some it, means merely the absence of religious instruction, and with others a neutral attitude on the value of religion.

A system of secular schools that leaves the value of religion an open question, cannot settle the difficulty. It will not meet the wishes of those who believe that religious instruction should form part of the daily work of the school. It will not satisfy those who hold that religious motives are essential to moral training. Besides, if difficulties present themselves to the teacher, they will not be removed by any compromise of this kind. To abolish religious exercises does not prevent, and cannot prevent, the reference to religion that comes up in giving effective instruction in literature, in history, and in science. To exclude religion from the school is impossible.

A few persons of this class are not friends of religion in any form, and object to the use of any incentives in moral training that are based on principles to which they do not subscribe. A position neither for nor against religion is what they maintain should be taken by the teacher. It is evident, however, that a neutral attitude is practically impossible. No neutral ground on the question of religion will be received with favor by any Christian body. The so-called neutral position would be a surrender. Every class of citizens should, doubtless, receive reasonable consideration, but concessions should not take the form of capitulation. Freedom of the State from Church control is now generally accepted as an axiom of government. The acceptance of this principle does not, however, call for the abolition of all laws founded on Christianity, or the removal of any references to the Deity from school books

in order to satisfy, if possible, some one who says in his heart there is no God. It should be recollected that agnostic writers of eminence have never denied the value of religion in ethical training. Herbert Spencer recognizes the importance of Christianity as a moral force, and the late Professor Huxley advocated the use of the Bible in school. As a people we are a Christian nation, and while the conscientious convictions of all classes should be respected, it will be unsafe to pander to that element which has done harm to civilized nations, and which is certainly not made up of those who are most active in the community in preserving law and order, and in sustaining those institutions that have for their object the improvement of the race. The man of intelligence and uprightness, even though his religious opinions are far from what would be considered orthodox, never objects to the formation of character on Christian principles. That very small minority which is made up of those who scoff at religion and have no respect for Christian ministers should not dictate to the majority.

2. Denominational Schools.—A second class of persons assume quite an opposite attitude, and maintain that religious instruction should form an integral part of school work. They believe that morality cannot be taught effectively unless lessons in religion are given in the school. They hold that the Church should have due recognition in the course of study prescribed, and contend, with more or less definiteness, that instruction in the Bible, in the catechism, or in the dogmas of the Church, must have a place in the programme.

It must be admitted that persons maintaining these views can appeal to the general acceptance of such opinions for centuries. It must also be conceded that

every Christian nation of Europe has attained its present educational status under a system largely of this kind. The Public School is the gift of Christianity to the race. Its primary function was to impart religious instruction. With the establishment of absolute religious freedom and the multiplication of sects, it lost the distinctive characteristics it had received from the Church. By the diffusion of intelligence among the masses there has resulted an increased development of the intellectual element. It has accordingly been urged that any lessening of the influence of the Church on the original purposes of the school will endanger morality. It has been further contended that any sound instruction in moral duties must be based on definite denominational principles, and that authorized religious views are essential as a guide to conduct.

Opinions of this kind prevail among some of the most intelligent members of the community. Separate or parochial schools, and denominational colleges, have been preferred by many people. Unanimity regarding the comparative merits of national and denominational education is far in the distance. Unanimity on this question, as well as on many other questions, is not, however, essential to national greatness or to educational progress. It is better to have some variety in social, political and educational agencies, than to have dead uniformity. Private schools, for instance, are not usually regarded as efficient as public ones, but they have their use among people of diversified aims and marked social distinctions. In like manner denominational schools and colleges, though not generally preferred in this country, have their own field of usefulness, and often stimulate the state institutions to greater activity in many things that pertain to

the formation of important phases of character. The advocates of denominational education press upon public attention the need of duly recognizing religion as a factor in moral advancement. The *raison d'être* of sectarian schools and universities is a belief that the religious element cannot, with safety to the State, be ignored. Their existence furnishes the conviction that undenominational institutions cannot retain popular sympathy if religious sanctions are set aside as incentives to right action.

It should be mentioned here that the vexed question of State aid to denominational schools and colleges, as well as the extent to which they should be under public control, is a political phase of the subject the consideration of which would be foreign to a work of this kind.

3. National Schools.—A third class of persons hold that moral training in school requires religious sanctions, but not religious instruction. This opinion prevails in this country and in the United States, and it is steadily gaining ground in most countries of Europe. Wherever the separation of Church and State has met with favor, and wherever a spirit of union and tolerance has grown, there has been less demand for dogmatic instruction in religion, and greater importance has been attached to the essentials of Christianity. Increased good-will among different classes, and the removal of sectarian questions from the arena of politics, have promoted united efforts in educational, as well as in social and philanthropic, movements. More frequently than formerly, to do good in this life has been proclaimed as the chief duty of the Christian, and the character of men has been felt to be of more value to the State than their doctrinal views. The Church, like a tree, is known by its fruit, and no one Church, it is held, produces all the good fruit.

It is felt that no denomination can claim exclusive possession of those principles that are essential to morality. Good citizens are found among both Roman Catholics and Protestants. Neither moral worth nor material prosperity is dependent on a belief in the special tenets of any one sect. National greatness and national progress do not require the people of the State to adhere to any one form of Christian faith. Judged by the experience of England, France, Germany, Italy, Canada and the United States, religious instruction, even when given in schools, is no guarantee that people will be free from sin and crime. Children have turned out bad who had all the advantages from religious instruction in their homes, in the church, and in the school. In spite of the evident advantages of religious instruction the conclusion must be admitted, that, apart from the question, by whom it should be given, it can never make up for defects in the other factors that are essential to the development of character.

Every civilized nation has assumed in its legal enactments, and in its administration of justice, the omnipotence of God. The civil oath which is exacted by the State shows the character of the national will. It assumes that religion is a quickener of the individual conscience, and that a belief in moral responsibility is firmly established in the human heart. On these grounds the use of religion, but not necessarily religious instruction, has its place in every well-conducted Public School. Like the State, the school may employ for its own ends those motives and incentives which human nature possesses as its divine attributes.

The State does not foster the special views of any sect, when it admits religion to be the essential basis of morality. The value of religious training may be assumed without an examination of its principles.

"You might as well say that we shall not use the sunlight, unless we teach the chemistry of it; that we shall not breathe air unless we analyze it in the schools, as to say that you cannot use religious sanctions, unless you use the dogmatic definitions of religion. We do not want definitions, we do not want dogma stated, but we want recognition of God and obedience to His will."—*White*.

The end of the school is not to teach religion, but to train children to become good citizens. The advocates of sectarian schools often say that the parent has an inalienable right to decide how his child shall be educated. It may be admitted that he has certain rights, as well as duties, regarding the religious, moral, intellectual and physical training of his children. He cannot relieve himself of any of his natural obligations should the State make no provision to grant him assistance for the discharge of his duties. If the State, in its interests, decides to confine its efforts to what will assist the parent to train his children morally and intellectually, their religious and physical wants must still receive the attention of the parent. The parent is a criminal in the eyes of the law if he allows his children to starve even though he assumes the State should supply them with food. His religious obligation is not removed if the State, in its wisdom, should also refuse to do regarding religion what it assumes should be left to the parent or the Church. In either case the will of the State, and not that of individuals, is supreme.

The aim of national institutions of learning is to develop character, and religion is simply an instrument to be used for the purpose only so far as necessary. If religion is not the end of the school instruction in its doctrines can form no part of the teacher's duties. If religion is to be ad led to the subjects of the Public School curriculum, it is evident from its transcending importance it must receive greater recognition on the time table than either reading or arith-

metic. The Normal School course must, in that event, include methods in Bible teaching, and results must be tested in the same way as in grammar, history or arithmetic. Once the necessity of religious instruction in creeds or dogmas is admitted, the establishment of denominational schools instead of national schools is the logical outcome.

Morality is not confined to the teaching of any one religious body. Those who do wrong have not lived up to the doctrines of their Church. The motives which flow from a belief in a personal God as the creator and moral ruler of the world; in the dependence of man on his Maker, and in his obligation to love and serve Him; in the immortality of the soul, and in the accountability of every intelligent person to the Supreme Being, are recognized principles of every efficient system of ethics. Reverence for authority is a necessary condition of obedience to law, and this implies a reverence for, and a belief in, the Source of all law. These facts prove that in promoting moral training, the teacher is required to assume all the principles of Christianity that are essential to his purpose. No teacher is justified in excusing himself for any failure in securing moral results on the plea that he is precluded from using the highest incentives. As a matter of fact, moral training is secured in the good Church school by exactly such means as it is secured in the good Public School. Without inviting comparisons, it will scarcely be held that the moral character of pupils taught in sectarian schools is superior to that of those trained in national institutions. The population that reaches this continent from countries where education is denominational, is certainly not made up of those who are more obedient to law and stronger upholders of order than the people who have grown up in this country under the influences of national schools. Here

no caste, no social barriers, no religious animosities separate those who have been taught in the same school. Education to them becomes the temple of the nation, uniting all classes, all nationalities and all creeds. The school effaces unreal distinctions, develops the noblest features of humanity, and unites in a great brotherhood those whom Christianity would include in a common fold.

The efficiency of national schools is the crowning evidence of the soundness of the principles upon which they have been established. More and more have the sectarian barriers in the case of colleges been thrown down. By the federation and affiliation of various educational institutions, a national university, undenominational in its character, has been developed in this country. Our High Schools are supported by all religious bodies, and scarcely a whisper is heard in favor of establishing secondary schools under sectarian control. Parents have little fear regarding the ethical training given by good teachers. The adherents of various denominations are found in the same Public School, and unless bad qualifications mark the teacher in charge, the religious convictions of no child are in the slightest way interfered with, and the training given tends to build up Christian character.

"The inestimable glory of the *common* school is that it contains all the necessary factors of an embryonic democracy. With the altruistic motive controlling the teacher and his methods, the conditions are perfect. Here measures and gauges of history are acquired by actual experience; here civics is essentially practised; the roots of after life, the springs of action, are all here. Home is the centre; the Church makes home better; but the common school is the place where the lessons gained in both may be essentially practised. Here classes learn to respect each other; the children of the rich and the poor, the intelligent and the ignorant are fused and blended by mutual action and mutual love. The common schools present a perfect means of moral training, order, work and play, all tending to the cultivation of true manhood."—*F. W. Parker.*

Religious Sanctions.—It is assumed that religion is the basis of morality, and that religious influences have directly or indirectly contributed to the moral status of every well-conducted person. It is assumed that any attempt to base moral obligation solely on human authority has always resulted in the weakening of the conscience and the enfeebling of the will, and that no nation has ever achieved moral excellence that did not hold the Supreme Being as the final source of obligation. It is further assumed that however some philosophers may theorize, no system of ethics has yet been proclaimed that shows any signs of superseding the morality of the Bible.

When children have been admitted to school they have already received in their homes and in the Church some preliminary training in religious beliefs. Under ordinary circumstances they will continue to receive from the same sources further religious knowledge. If these statements are admitted, the teacher has already, without giving religious instruction, the essential incentives at hand for the highest type of moral training. This attitude on the question of religious instruction does not exclude religion from the school. It merely prohibits the teacher from giving lessons in the Bible, in any catechism, or in the dogmatic principles of any Church. The principles of Christianity cannot be excluded from the school so long as proper discipline is exacted and efficient instruction given in the ordinary branches of the curriculum. No school can be fairly called "godless" where the teacher's duties, from a pedagogical point of view, are faithfully performed. The use of the Bible in school for moral ends does not necessarily involve its use in the technical sense of the term. While the teacher, if well qualified, will be acquainted with the Bible as the best work on ethics, he is chiefly

concerned with morals or practical ethics. It is not necessary for him to investigate and discuss before his class the ultimate basis of moral distinctions, in order to teach his pupils to be obedient to their parents, to be honest and truthful, and to abstain from every kind of wrong-doing. Sufficiently imperative sanctions for good conduct may be accepted as binding upon children irrespective of their denominational training.

It is here contended that apart from the assumed practical difficulties in the way of giving, through the teacher, religious instruction in the Public School, sound principles of teaching would condemn the methods of this kind which are ordinarily proposed. The question is one to be discussed in the field of pedagogy, and not in that of theology or politics. What the schools need to promote better moral training is not more religious exercises, but better teaching. It is not an addition to the school programme that is wanted, but greater skill in taking up the branches already found in the curriculum. Better qualified teachers will secure better discipline, and good discipline means good moral training (Chapter V). The well qualified teacher will use with intelligent discrimination, motives to right action in such a way as to form good habits in his pupils, and to promote in them, as a consequence, that line of conduct which is the result of habitual efforts to do right. What the teacher is called upon to do is not to give lessons in the common doctrines of religion, but to use religious sanctions as school incentives at such times, *and only at such times*, as sound discipline will warrant. A good teacher will rarely bring to his aid the highest class of incentives (Chapter IX). Neither the parent nor the teacher will find it prudent to use, without extreme care, motives of a religious character in order to induce children to do right.

"Yet there is danger in associating the influences of religion too closely with the routine work of the school; it is at least as probable that the former will thereby be brought down to the level of the latter, as that the latter shall be raised to the level of the former. There are strong reasons why religious motives should not be used as ordinary means of discipline. On the one hand the influence of the religious sentiment as a practical principle of conduct, to overrule the many more palpable motives which present themselves to children, and particularly to children at school, is, even in the most favorable circumstances, seldom so great as to be relied on. . . . As for the habit which some indulge in, of appealing in a routine way to such motives in connection with the incidental faults of childhood, nothing is more to be reprobated; its folly is only equalled by its criminality."—*Currie*.

The Duty of the Church.—The parent is responsible for the training of his children; but whatever education of a religious nature he is not competent to give them, should be undertaken by the clergy or the authorized representatives of the Church. If the Sunday School and other agencies of the Church are not sufficient to provide religious instruction, the denominations concerned should either separately or unitedly supplement their ordinary functions. In most communities the machinery of each religious body performs its work without any call for aid from the school authorities. In some towns and cities the trustees have placed the schools at the disposal of the Churches for giving to the pupils on certain days instruction of a religious nature. There is no reason why school hours might not be set apart for this purpose. In a Roman Catholic community, for instance, it would be quite consistent with the position here taken for the authorities of that Church to give religious instruction at stated hours to children of its faith. In Protestant communities, each denomination might adopt a similar plan, or two or more denominations might unite

in the work of religious training, with excellent results. In some localities, both Protestants and Roman Catholics have shown such liberality as to unite in securing suitable addresses from the clergy of the different denomination represented. A method of this kind adds to the value of those religious sanctions which every good teacher employs, and surrounds the work of the school with an interest helpful to education as well as to religion. It sets at rest the cry for religious teaching in the school, and gives more definiteness to the responsibilities of the Church, the home and the school. It makes no departure of a reactionary kind from the principle of non-sectarian education, but calls for the full utilization of the respective functions of teacher, parent and clergyman. It gives freedom to each Church, each locality and each parent, and adds no additional responsibility to the teacher, or relieves him in any way from the obligation of discharging those duties for which he has been trained. (See Sec. 7 of Statute in Appendix).

Devotional Exercises.—Devotional exercises have had a place in the daily programmes of most schools. Unless there are special reasons to the contrary, it is best to hold them at the beginning of the day's work, when the teacher is free from the worries of the school and when reverence and solemnity are most easily secured among the pupils. Generally the reading of a short passage from Scripture selections, recommended for the purpose, and the use of a short prayer, constitute all that is necessary. A song of praise or thanksgiving may be added with advantage in elementary classes. The object is not to impart religious instruction (as the Bible lessons should be read without comment), but to recognize the obligation to God of both teacher and pupils, and to

awaken and deepen religious emotions, as well as to afford a suitable preparation for the sacred nature of school duties. Freedom should be given trustees to meet, within reasonable limits, the prevailing religious sentiment of the locality; and the conscientious scruples of parents should be guarded. Experience has shown that where a spirit of religious toleration and patriotism influences school authorities, no difficulty will arise in connection with exercises of this kind. If they are conducted in a perfunctory manner, or are attended with any partisan feeling, no good will result. If the Bible or the form of prayer is not read in a reverent manner, it is clear incompetence marks the teacher as unfit for his calling. Fortunately the day of immoral or irreligious teaching is past, and few teachers are now found who fail to recognize the sacred nature of the usual devotional exercises. The age of wrangling over trifling denominational differences is, it is hoped, also over, and broader views of Christian duty have promoted more charitable feelings among neighbors holding different religious sentiments. Teachers of ability and experience will readily testify to the value of devotional exercises, as a means of strengthening the moral convictions of the pupils, and of sustaining the discipline of the school. Persons who see no good in such exercises have probably in mind the defective qualifications of many teachers a generation ago, and the contentions in some localities where partisan animosity and sectarian bitterness predominated, rather than Christian zeal and Christian liberality. It would certainly bode ill for that Church unity for which many work and pray, if on the educational field of battle a united front cannot be presented against the common enemy—ignorance and crime.

CHAPTER V.

MORAL TRAINING.

The Need of Moral Education.—The highest aim of education is the formation of character. Sound ethical training, no doubt, calls for the due cultivation of the intellectual and physical faculties, as well as the development of the emotional nature. Mere physical and intellectual power may, however, do harm if achieved regardless of moral training. Morality is essential to the welfare of the State. History affords numerous illustrations of the disastrous results that follow when the intellect is sharpened, but the moral nature neglected. The rapid growth of knowledge among the community, and the increased power which intellectual attainments give, render the question of national ethics more and more pressing on public attention. The extension of commerce, the growth of industries, the spread of democratic institutions, and the dependence of individuals and communities upon one another, make it imperative that principles of righteousness should form an essential part of every child's education. The numerous opportunities presented to persons of sharp intelligence for the sudden acquisition of wealth, the facilities for gaining political power, and the temptations to which young men of mere shrewdness are exposed, show that if training in right action is ignored in a system of popular education, ruin may come to the State in spite of our much-valued civilization. The money value

of mere sharpness is strikingly apparent, and the intense passion for gain is noticeable on every side. The rapid growth of cities has, no doubt, increased the efforts to do good, but it has also stimulated the worst forces of the times. The altered relations of the working-classes to other sections of the community, have created serious social disturbances. The rapidity with which intellectual power has supplanted physical force, has given the man of brains extraordinary influence among his fellows, and has made the outlook, though on the whole encouraging, yet in many respects alarming. Every day brings its disclosures of untruthfulness, dishonesty and corruption. Intemperance and profanity are prevalent; defaulters and gamblers exist; and scandals in public life are not unknown. It is idle in the face of crimes brought to the public gaze by means of the press, and in view of what the courts reveal, to deny the urgent need of training in morality. The changed conditions of our day demand that ethical instruction should be given by the school, as well as by the home and the Church. The time has gone by when the family could suffice for its own needs either commercially or educationally. The separation of Church and State has rendered it necessary for the latter to discharge some of the functions at one time assumed by the former. The responsibility of the parent is still the same, and the vitalizing office of the Church is no less essential than formerly; but more than ever the ordinary citizen is accustomed to look to the school as the great agency of modern times for effective assistance in the moral, as well as in the intellectual, development of his children.

Unjust Charges.—Admitting the prevalence of evils which perplex, but which should not discourage society,

and admitting the responsibility which must be shared by the school with other educational agencies, charges are frequently made against the Public School which are grossly unfair. The imputation that the school is greatly at fault is too serious to be passed over. If training in right action is lost sight of by teachers, we may look for a future of national disaster or ruin such as befalls every people who depart from righteousness. The frequency with which crimes are committed by persons who have a fair intellectual education, and the resorts to the tricks of the sharper by many graduates of our schools, are mentioned as proofs that knowledge is not the blessing it has been claimed to be. The Public Schools are said to be sadly deficient in ethical training. It is contended that they turn out loose upon society thousands whom they have helped to make sharp rogues; that they give pupils the impression that passing examinations is a sure equipment for duty; and that they inspire children with an ambition for attaining place and wealth as the great aim of life. Hence comes the occasional clamor for the addition to the curriculum of formal ethical training, and for the incorporation of religion with the traditional three "R's" of the Public School course.

The science of education has to do with all knowledge, and it is yet very imperfectly understood; but the average ratepayer regards himself as fully competent to settle problems which are so complex in their nature that they baffle the efforts of the greatest statesmen. For every evil that afflicts the community some persons are ready with a remedy. Too often the imperfections of the school are regarded as the only source of prevailing troubles. More attention to the subject of the curriculum is often assumed as all that is needed to make the people wise, happy, prosperous

and moral. It is a fact that no human agency is more beset by advocates of plausible nostrums than the Public Schools, and while investigation and fair criticism should always be welcomed, any remedies not founded on sound pedagogical principles should be rejected.

The charges referred to spring sometimes from prejudice, but more frequently from careless observation or wrong deduction. They are so often repeated by those who might be assumed to possess good judgment, that they become dangerous. Some persons have called for the authorization of suitable text-books in ethics, or the regular use of the Bible in the teaching of morals, while others go so far as to condemn any system of education that is not controlled by Church influences. Now, it must be at once asserted that it is very unfair to make the school the scapegoat for all the evils that are rampant in society. The school is not the only agency upon which rests the responsibility of promoting morality. The teacher cannot go into the streets and by-ways and compel children to come within the range of his influence. He cannot visit the homes of his pupils and counteract the bad training of those who have reached positions of parental authority without realizing its responsibilities. He cannot always implant principles of obedience, truthfulness, honesty, courtesy and charity, in the minds of children who, from their infancy, have been furnished with examples of an opposite kind. It is too much to expect during the short time which the average child remains in school that the teacher's influence will overcome the bad associations too often met on the streets, the vile literature so readily procured, the wickedness of the low theatre, the degrading effects of the saloon sustained by public opinion, the example of fast young men, and the hundred other evils that pollute the currents

of life in all large cities. It cannot be denied that the school has its duty to perform, and that it may become in future a far more effective means of promoting morality, but it is unreasonable to expect teachers to be able to stamp out evils which society constantly tolerates. The school should, no doubt, be the efficient ally of every agency that helps to make righteousness the dominant force in the community. It is safe to say that, in spite of the alleged defects of the school every parent who is not relegating his own duties to the Church or to some other agency, finds no more effective support in promoting morality than the well-qualified school teacher.

The Personality of the Teacher.—A teacher of high moral character is the chief requisite of moral training. "As is the teacher so is the school," is a maxim which applies as much to the power of the teacher to impress his own moral qualities, as to the ability he wields to inspire with his own intellectual power. In the early life of the child there is shown a remarkable power of imitation and a readiness to incorporate in his own nature whatever is exhibited in the conduct of those by whom he is surrounded. The deportment of pupils towards their teachers and towards one another, the kindly way or the uncouth manner, the attention or listlessness, the polite words or the rude reply, are all daily inwrought in permanent outline and unfading colors into the warp and woof of which the habits are thoughtlessly formed. A teacher should exemplify in his own character all he would have his pupils become. That strict adherence to honesty and truthfulness, that close application to duty and regard for life's opportunities, that calmness of manner in periods of disturbance, and that spirit of Christian unselfishness which he is desirous of cultivating as traits

in the character of each pupil, he must possess as essential elements of his own qualifications. A high standard of living is demanded of the teacher, not only for its direct influence upon the young, but also for the added power which his words of counsel give. The child naturally looks to him for guidance, and if he finds in the teacher a spirit of reverence, sincerity, honesty, truthfulness, industry and unselfishness, he is disposed to practise these virtues himself. The teacher, whether good or bad, leaves his everlasting imprint on every child placed under his care. He can hide nothing from the child's power of intuition. Whatever the teacher is becomes immortal through the souls of his pupils. Of all lessons, the best is the living lesson. Example is always better than precept. The Christian teacher will not hide his light. If placed in charge of a school, it matters little to what Church he adheres. No need for him to give lessons in the Bible, creed or catechism; he is the real text-book. If he has formed his kinship with the Divine, and has recognized the source of the highest inspiration for his duties, he will be a living epistle, known and read of all.

The life of the teacher outside of school must be in keeping with the moral principles he tries to inculcate. It is idle for him to expect his pupils to profit by his moral instruction, if truthfulness, honesty, temperance, prudence and diligence, are not characteristics by which he is known to the community. Dr. Arnold, in writing of the qualifications desirable in a teacher, said, "The qualifications which I deem essential to the due performance of a master's duties here may, in brief, be expressed as the spirit of a Christian and a gentleman. . . . He should study things 'lovely and of good report;' that is, he should be public spirited, liberal, and enter heartily into the interests, honor, and

general respectability and distinction of the society which he has joined."

"The personality of the headmaster is everything. It is the ultimate source of power in the school, the central organ which sends out its life-giving currents through the whole organism. And let me here add that, if I am in favor of excluding direct religious teaching from our schools, I am not in favor of excluding religious influence. That, too, flows from the personality of the true master. For if he be reverent, a truly pious soul, humble in his estimate of self, not valuing his petty schoolmaster's authority on its own account, but using it lovingly as an instrument for higher ends, he will be sure to communicate of his spirit to his pupils, and by that spirit will open their hearts, better than by any doctrinal teaching he could give, to the reception of the highest spiritual truths."—*Adler*.

"As Milton would have the poet himself a poem, so the excellent teacher of morals will be morality incarnate; showing forth its gospel as well as its law in the daily exhibition of sweetness and light, he will be 'not virtuous, but virtue' itself! How difficult, but how necessary, is such a preparation of the heart and will in a well-rounded instructor of children or of men, one does not need to reiterate to the teacher who has found his true vocation."—*Gilman*.

"Not the most eloquent exhortations to the erring and disobedient, though they be in the tongues of men or of angels, can move mightily upon your scholars' resolutions till the nameless, unconscious, but infallible pressure of a consecrated, earnest heart lifts its holy light into your eyes, hallows your temper, breathes its pleading benedictions into your tones, and authenticates your entire being with its open seal."—*Huntington*.

"The most vital element of governing power is a positive moral character and life. We thus come back in our analysis to the one essential fact of the school, the *teacher*; and we reach the one essential fact in the teacher, *character*. Through all the methods and measures of the school must run the vitalizing influence of the teacher's inner life. . . . If the writer had the power of making one law for the governing of American schools, and only one, and this in a single sentence—a law to be written over every school-

room-door—he would have little difficulty in determining what it would be. It would be in about these words: *No man or woman shall enter here as a teacher whose character and life are not fit models for the young to copy.*—White.

Good Discipline Promotes Morality.—A poor disciplinarian is a poor teacher of morals. A pupil learns every-day morality as an art and not as a science. In early childhood the will and example of the parents are supreme in directing thought and in securing action. The power of imitation is strong in infancy. Selfishness soon appears, and skill is essential in forming such habits as will cultivate a regard for the rights of others, and foster a spirit of self-control. Gradually the knowledge and reason of the child become factors that require careful attention, if right conduct is to be cultivated. Soon doing right may become a habit, and every successful effort in that direction strengthens the will and promotes moral training. The function of school government is training pupils in habits of self-control, so that they may become self-governing in conduct. Self-control implies self-denial, subordination of present to future good, resistance to temptation, and the cultivation of all those qualities which make virtue itself. Cases are constantly arising in the discipline of the school which, if dealt with calmly, seriously, and judiciously, promote habits of regularity, punctuality, accuracy, courtesy and many other valuable features of character. Ethical truths and maxims, expressed in a didactic form, often fail to make moral duties intelligible to a young pupil, or to bind his conscience. More effectively are his moral convictions strengthened by having his surroundings pure and healthful, by watching carefully his efforts to overcome temptations, and by cultivating his power to choose the right and to reject the wrong. A good

disciplinarian will see that all the arrangements of the school make it easy for pupils to do right. A moral man, if deficient in powers of discipline, will make a poor teacher of morals. Many a Christian father, from a lack of governing power, finds his son, instead of proving a blessing to him in old age, bring down his grey hairs with sorrow to the grave. The good example of a moral parent or teacher is not enough. Judgment and skill are essential in moral training. Heart power is valuable, but will power is also needed in that discipline which cultivates morality. Kindness is praiseworthy, but not when it becomes indulgence. A child properly trained grows up feeling that the observance of law is a duty. The discipline of a well-conducted school gives him a power which draws steadily in the direction of right action. Under such conditions his nature becomes accustomed to yield to right inclinations (Chapter VI.). The school that is exerting the best moral influence, is not the one in which most attention is given to religious instruction, but the one that is under the best discipline (Chapter VIII.).

The machinery of a well-managed school is a most powerful instrument for forming good habits in a pupil and for strengthening his will, so that he may overcome the evils to be met in the battles of life. Some of the sterner virtues which are much needed in this age, are especially fostered by a well-organized school. Such an institution draws pupils from all classes and conditions, and gives them a foretaste of those social and industrial relations for which they are to be prepared. The school is an epitome of society. Justice, forbearance, courtesy, and obedience to authority are drawn in as the breath of school life, when a good state of discipline is established. The school is a society or a community with interests common to all its

members. It promotes, as no other agency can do, those altruistic virtues which characterize a Christian people. The various exercises of the day help to enthrone reason and will above desire and caprice, and thus tend to exalt the spiritual man above the natural man. That discipline is bad, and does not promote morality, which is secured only by the force of authority. That system of control which cultivates a spirit of obedience to law by means of intelligence, and which leads each pupil to subordinate his selfish interests to the general good, is more valuable to the State than the study of civics. It is not formal lessons in the duties of citizenship that is needed in school so much as that discipline which fashions the young into self-directing beings, which gives them rational conceptions of their duties to others, which trains them to industrious habits, and which promotes those other virtues that render them useful members of society. (See Duties of Teachers in Appendix).

The Moral Value of Good Teaching.—Bad intellectual training is a hindrance to ethical culture. The bad teacher of the subjects of the curriculum, even though he be a moral man, is a poor teacher of morality. The right direction of the will is inseparable from the cultivation of the understanding and the feeling. The acquisition of knowledge and the creation of a right disposition must proceed together. Any defect in the former affects the latter. In the management of the child perfect uniformity and consistency are required of the teacher. The law of conduct, the relations between cause and effect, the love of approbation, the desire for personal comfort, the force of habit and obedience to authority, are matters that come up in the ordinary work of the school. The demand for better moral training can be met only by providing better teaching. Skill in

selecting illustrations for each lesson, in making use of judicious questions, in receiving answers from pupils, and in attending to the other features of a recitation, greatly affect the moral as well as the intellectual impulses of children. There can be no more erroneous opinion than that of supposing that the best intellectual teaching and the best moral teaching may be secured apart—one from the other. There is no neutral ground in human thoughts, words or actions. The moral disposition of the child is not a department of his nature, but the tone and attitude of his whole life. Every well-taught lesson in grammar, arithmetic, botany or Latin, is a force in the development of moral character.

To say that a teacher does his work well from an intellectual, but not from an ethical, point of view, is a contradiction. "As a man thinketh in his heart so is he," and "out of the heart the mouth speaketh," are sound pedagogical maxims. To train a child to act and speak rightly he must be trained to think rightly. This implies that the person giving the training should have power to direct thought. Habits make up character, but habit is developed by "doing," and this in turn calls for skill on the part of the one who directs. Good teaching stimulates, inspires, controls, and fixes mental action. If a thought or an act is right it leads up to what is good, true and beautiful. If wrong it leads down to falsehood, dishonesty, sin. The good teacher leads his pupils to think, to speak and to act correctly, and thus develops moral as well as intellectual tendencies. When a child is trained to form true conceptions, to arrange facts logically, to reason accurately, and to grasp the force of conclusions, he is thereby receiving moral training. Power of abstract thought and ability to form complex judgments are absolutely essential

to the growth of right motives. To acquire a spirit of charity and liberality, intellectual culture is needed. Truthfulness requires as its basis the power to adjust the mind accurately to realities. Honesty is best promoted by imparting an intelligent conception of the rights of others. The will is most easily trained when knowledge and feeling are wisely brought into play. In short, intellectual training is organically related to character and conduct; and that country is doing most to promote moral training in its schools, which is doing most to provide well-trained teachers.

Incidental Moral Instruction.—The moral training given in school should be mainly incidental. Impressions are most lasting when made without formality. The incidental and every-day lessons in diligence, honor and truthfulness, imparted when some school experience in class or on the playground has prepared the minds of the pupils to receive them, are of more value in character-building than are the moral truths which some distant facts illustrate and teach. The proposal, sometimes made, to prescribe, for school purposes, a course of lessons in religion, or some text-book in ethics, arises, if the teacher is to use them, from a misconception of the way character is formed. Morality is no more to be taught by rote, nor in any other way by means of a book, than football or swimming. Doing good is the only way to become good. Familiar talks to young children on conduct have their value, but they should never take the form of lectures or labored sermons.

“Every Public School teacher is bound, then, I hold, to make the school hours a time for instruction in character, so far as this is compatible with the chief object of imparting the elements of knowledge. But this does not, by any means, necessarily imply

that we should add a new branch to the course of study, which is often too full already of varied subjects, or that text-books of virtue or moral theory shall be put into the hands of children in order that they may learn to define elaborately and recite by rote the rules and distinctions of a formal morality. On the contrary, I can imagine few studies more dry, repulsive and ineffectual in reaching their proposed aim than such a study of morals! In the highest degree it is true of instruction in this art of life that it should come direct from the teacher's lips and pure from the teacher's heart and example."—*Gilman*.

A school may have no formal teaching of rules of conduct or instruction in precepts, but it may have what is better—it may have a moral atmosphere from which the life of the child is unconsciously built up, in the same way as a plant or a tree. Books on ethics are, doubtless, valuable to the teacher. In fact, every educator will include in his professional reading some of the best works in moral science. Just as in the case of instruction, in drill or in gymnastics, where the pupils are not usually dependent on a text-book, the teacher will not fail to read on the subject of ethics some good treatise that deals with its principles. If it is not wise to use the Bible as a text-book in school, there is no reason why its precepts may not be appealed to in the ordinary work of the school. At all events, the Bible, as the highest court of appeal in settling questions of conduct, will always be within the reach of the teacher. In any case moral lessons should not, as a rule, be assigned a fixed place on the programme. The force of a moral precept depends almost entirely upon its adaptation to the time and circumstances. When the minds of children are open for the reception of the special truth, the good seed may be sown. With young pupils occasions of this kind will often occur, and short—very short—moral lessons may then be appropriate.

"Your Committee would mention, in this connection, instruction in morals and manners, which ought to be given in a brief series of lessons each year with a view to build up in the mind a theory of the conventionalities of polite and pure-minded society. If these lessons are made too long or too numerous, they are apt to become offensive to the child's mind. It is, of course, understood by your committee that the substantial moral training of the school is performed by the discipline rather than by the instruction in ethical theory. The child is trained to be regular and punctual, and to restrain his desire to talk and whisper—in these things gaining self-control day by day. The essence of moral behavior is self-control. The school teaches good behavior. The intercourse of a pupil with his fellows without evil words or violent actions is insisted on and secured. The high moral qualities of truth-telling and sincerity are taught in every class exercise that lays stress on accuracy of statement."—*Report of Committee of Fifteen, Dr. W. T. Harris, Chairman.*

Incidental instruction in morals calls for high qualifications on the part of the teacher. Wide scholarship, professional training, and the skill that is gained by experience, are important requisites (Chapter VII.). In no part of his duties will judgment, tact and common-sense be more in demand. The events of each day will continually furnish ample opportunities for introducing timely instruction and wholesome advice regarding matters that affect character. Instruction of this kind must be given without apparent effort, and with no departure from the ordinary duties. In the case of young children, the little incidents of the school-room may be employed to encourage, to stimulate and to strengthen the efforts to do right. With older pupils, the facts from biography or history, the inspiring thoughts from literature, the beauties and mysteries which science reveals, and the logic of mathematics, may be used without ostentation to build up moral excellence. A teacher is not prohibited from using,

in their place, illustrations from the Bible. He must have little power as a teacher of morals who cannot turn to profitable account the parable of the wise and foolish virgins, that of the talents, that of the sower, or that of the prodigal. The history of Joseph, of Moses, of Daniel, or of Paul, is not beyond the use of a good teacher. After all that may be said in behalf of moral training, the need of the schools is teachers who have the requisite qualifications. The gentle admonition, the tender, loving rebuke, the word in season, will never be wanting to him whose strong sense of duty and steady desire to imitate the Great Teacher are joined to high academic and professional attainments.

Ethical Value of School Studies.—Study, by improving the knowledge, skill, power, and taste of pupils, is a valuable means of training in morals. All the subjects of the curriculum may be made serviceable for this purpose, but some branches especially may be taught with marked ethical effect.

The accuracy of expression, which is cultivated by language teaching, promotes veracity and checks tendencies to exaggeration. The gems of literature found in the school readers, if committed to memory, have a humanizing and elevating influence on children. The grandest feature of literature is its ethical side, and he is no true teacher who gives instruction in the subject without inspiring his pupils with a love for all that is beautiful, noble and true. A knowledge of literature will help to make persons happy, useful, intelligent, respectful and respectable. If it does not fit them for a future life, it helps them to illumine many of the dark places of the world, and gives them a better opportunity to prepare for a world to come.

Biography and history present examples of noble manhood, exalted character, true courage, firm integrity,

consecrated usefulness and lofty patriotism. Both of these subjects, as well as geography, supply abundant material for inspiring children with a love for their native land. In learning the history of the nation they ought to feel elation at its progress, its greatness, its victories and its future. A child should realize the glorious inheritance that has been handed down from his forefathers, and should be stirred with a determination to defend the liberties of his country and to keep its honor untarnished. No disposition should be shown to foster that spirit of "jingoism" which dwarfs philanthropy, retards the march of civilization, and engenders feelings of animosity between neighboring nations. The deeds of noble heroism revealed in the pages of history, the contests for righteousness waged through the centuries, and the triumphs of truth and justice, may, if properly taught, impress children with an admiration for what is moral in all that contributes to human or national greatness.

The study of mathematics is very valuable in developing habits of accuracy, and in showing the advantage of settled and permanent principles of conduct and procedure. Arithmetic gives vigor, freedom, and clearness to the mind, helps to bring the faculties under control, and puts a pupil continually on the alert. Its value in the cultivation of the logical faculty is well known to every experienced teacher. The study of mathematics is pre-eminent in training the mind to the habit of forming clear and definite conceptions, and of clothing these conceptions in exact and perspicuous language. Euclid is particularly valuable in this respect. The study of mathematics develops the power of upholding what is true, and of exposing what is false. The disciplinary measures necessary in teaching this department promote habits

of accuracy, honesty, independence, perseverance, quickness of perception, and powers of deduction.

Natural science claims a place in the school not exclusively, as some suppose, on account of its utilitarian objects. It has a high ethical value in the unfolding of principles which have for their basis order and the investigation of law. The student of elementary science is led to weigh evidence carefully, to connect facts, to determine the natural sequence of events, to make simple experiments and to draw conclusions. The study of science cultivates the spirit of thoroughness, the faculty of perseverance, habits of self-reliance, patience in the presence of difficulty, and absolute loyalty to truth. Under the guidance and inspiration of a competent teacher, the laws of design and adaptation, which the study of nature reveals, will implant in the minds of children that reverence for the Creator which lies at the basis of religion. The student who looks into the mysteries of physical phenomena, who observes the beauty and grandeur of the world about him, who counts the pulse-beats and watches the ebb and flow of respiration in the human frame, is led to realize the tender solicitude which is exercised by a Power not visible to mortal eyes.

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CHAPTER VI.

CHARACTER BUILDING.

The End of Education.—The formation of character is the end to be sought in all the efforts of the teacher. The educated person is one who possesses mental and physical power, systematized knowledge, intellectual skill, pure and elevated tastes, and right habits. It is further assumed that one who has been so trained that he can be depended upon to act rightly has a good character. It follows that besides the original meaning of the term, the word "character" has come to have an ethical significance. It is customary to find it used for "good character." A good character means a moral and virtuous condition of mind, and such control of the feelings and thoughts as will subserve the ends of morality. In this respect it follows that the moral character of a person is the sum of the tendencies and habitudes which he has acquired, and which are called *virtues*. The excellence of his character is estimated by the strength of these dominant dispositions.

The mental equipment of each individual is the product of inherited and acquired forces. Hereditary tendencies are powerful, but they may be controlled and directed to a large extent by the influences to which each person is subjected. In childhood the forces which form character are mainly determined and guided by parents and teachers. Later in life a person is largely left to his own judgment

and strength of purpose. To do his part in developing such forces as will cause his pupils to act aright is, therefore, the main work of the teacher. He is successful as a character builder if he influences those placed under his care that, when they enter upon the activities of life, they will follow with persistence what is reasonable, just, and virtuous.

Periods of Development.—A child inherits from his parents a physical constitution and a wide range of aptitudes. His nature is extremely plastic, and therefore it is possible to lessen constitutional weaknesses, and to develop elevating powers and tendencies. It is the duty of the parent to supply whatever is needed to promote proper physical and mental growth. In the formation of character, many tastes must be cultivated, the feelings must be controlled, the habits must be formed, and the will must be strengthened. As soon as the child is admitted to school, new activities are aroused, new tastes are developed, and new habits are created. It will at once devolve upon the teacher to strengthen, check, create or destroy tendencies, tastes and habits. For this purpose there is needed discretion in the use of that stimulus, incentive or punishment which the conditions require. The ultimate aim should be to subordinate the physical and intellectual nature to the control of conscience and will.

Systematized Knowledge.—In the process of character building, knowledge plays an important part. Conduct that is not based on intelligence has little to commend it. The man of character is continually adding to his stock of knowledge. Where there is no intellectual growth there is no moral growth. The highest type of character demands systematized knowledge, and the acquisition of knowledge

is an object to be sought in improving the moral nature. Information gained should not depend upon the memory. It follows that "cramming," (Chapter III.) as popularly understood, has no place in intellectual development, and therefore has no use in the formation of character. Knowledge which is systematized is scientific in its nature; and, as a consequence, can be traced to the general principles upon which it rests. Only that knowledge is valuable which is available.

Power.—A properly-trained person has power within reasonable limits to gain whatever will contribute to his physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual strength. He has, besides, that energy which will enable him to think and to act in such a way as will secure good results. Education is weak unless it gives a person power to guard his health and to improve his bodily strength. It is defective unless it enables him to add to his intellectual endowments and to apply his knowledge to useful purposes. It is also defective if his will power is not sufficiently developed to cause him to resist evil by accepting what is right, and rejecting what is wrong. Power is acquired by the cultivation of proper habits.

In training to right action it is necessary to take into consideration the imitative power of the child, his intelligence or legislative power, and his will, or what may be termed his executive power. In addition, his power of reflection must be cultivated, in order to influence succeeding actions. The teacher is continually called upon to determine how he will give effect to the growth of each power, what order he will adopt in his moral teaching, what incentives he will employ, and what measures of coercion he should bring to his aid. Will power is an important object to be sought in the formation of character, but the intelligence and the emotions need to be cultivated at the same time.

Training of the Will.—The will originates and controls actions of body and mind. It controls the thoughts and feelings. Decision, firmness and constancy are features of strength of will. Defects of will, constituting the weak-minded, are inconstancy, stubbornness, irresolution and wilfulness. That which determines the will is called a motive. The child who is inclined to do wrong should be influenced by a counteracting motive.

The foundation of all education is the culture of the will. To train the will is usually the chief difficulty in education. The successful trainer of the will secures subjection and restraint, and at the same time fosters liberty and independence. The change from authority to freedom must be gradual. If hastened, disobedience may result; if delayed, self-control is not cultivated. The child becomes weak and vacillating, if his intelligence and feelings are neglected while efforts to train the will are made. Fearfulness of responsibility and weakness of purpose will follow, if the authority of the teacher is unduly used as a motive. Harsh discipline is opposed to real strength of will. The discipline which has no trace of sympathy with child nature, no provision to strengthen half-formed purposes, no appreciation of hidden motives, but a stern tone of authority, combined with relentless severity, is sure to have, as a result, minds sullen, gloomy, suspicious, and cunning.*

Tastes.—The educated man has pure and elevated tastes. Tastes are natural and acquired. Some children frequently manifest extraordinary tastes in certain directions. The early cultivation of proper physical and mental tastes is an important duty of parents and teachers. It is

* Consult "Applied Psychology," *McLellan*, Chapter VI., and "Outlines of Psychology," *Sully*, Chapters XIII. and XIV.

necessary to check any natural tendency to form bad tastes. Some bad habits, such as indulgence in the use of tobacco or intoxicating liquors, are the result of persistence in practices which are at first unpleasant. A taste for music, drawing, literature, or other subjects of study, appears natural to some persons. In most cases a taste for what is elevating is acquired by judicious cultivation.

It is evident that the tastes of a person have a powerful influence on the formation of his character. What a man relishes determines his sources of enjoyment, his associations and his activities. The likes and dislikes of a man shape his life. Indulgence in what is good elevates and refines. The gratification of evil tastes lowers and degrades. A taste may become so strongly developed that if it is evil it can scarcely be resisted by knowledge, judgment or reason. Pure and elevated tastes give power and inspiration, and become factors which largely determine the course in life that is pursued, and the character that is formed.

It is the duty of the teacher to provide such conditions as will help to form pure and elevated tastes. Those tastes that are natural should be improved if good and checked if bad. Many tastes will have to be formed in which there is no inherited tendency. In some cases constitutional antagonisms will have to be resisted. Much judgment is often needed in the use of the proper stimulus. A love for good reading, music, mathematics, etc., can be created in the case of some pupils only by skilful instruction. A love for bad literature, sinful pleasures or evil associations, can be best destroyed by furnishing, to take their place, something which will be elevating and ennobling. In creating a taste for what is good, as well as in destroying a taste for what is bad, persistent and continued use of the proper means may be required. The right stimulus

will in time produce a tendency. By repeated exercise pleasure will result ; and, as in the case of a habit which has been developed, the taste will become a feature of the character.

Habits.—It is said that character is made up of "a bundle of habits." The knowledge, skill, power and tastes of a person are usually the result of his habits. The formation of all habits, whether of body or mind, comes by persistent effort of the intelligence and the will. Too often the acquisition of knowledge, rather than the formation of good habits, is assumed to be the end of educational efforts. This is a great mistake. In elementary schools, especially, the formation of good habits should receive greater prominence. If proper physical, intellectual, and moral habits are formed in childhood, the work of education is fairly begun. The child requires to have his physical habits so formed that he executes promptly and energetically whatever he undertakes. Indolence is soon wanting. He always does his best, and employs the organs of the body to accomplish right ends. He guards his physical energy by the use of proper modes of living, and by the use of suitable recreation and amusements. Right intellectual habits will promote power and skill. These will be manifested in ability to fix the attention, to conduct observations, to examine causes, to reflect, to persist in mental effort and to express in language what has been acquired. Right moral habits will secure prompt obedience to the dictates of conscience. The rights of others will be recognized early in life. Selfishness will cease to dominate as a motive, and self-control will hold sway.

Habits are formed by frequent repetition of acts that promote the end in view. By the aid of proper incentives the teacher leads his pupils to act repeatedly in a right

manner. The doing of what is right thus becomes a habit with children. Their modes of thinking and acting become fixed, and they become strong to resist temptation. Natural instincts are powerful, but there is in habit a weapon with which inherited tendencies and early formed inclinations may be overcome. The child is born, not with habits already formed, but with the capacity of habit. The character of no person need be bad.

Much of the teacher's power has often to be exercised in reversing inclinations that are due to defective home training and bad environments. Early habits are most readily formed, and therefore childhood, with its plastic nature, should not be entrusted to weak character builders. The teachers of elementary schools should be good disciplinarians. The activities of young children require to be carefully directed. Pupils who are restless, impetuous and troublesome, are not necessarily bad. If properly trained such characteristics may be turned to good account. They constitute the elements by which noble natures may be formed. Some of the most valuable habits which by law (See Appendix) the teacher should cultivate in his pupils, are here considered :

1. **Regularity.**—Irregularity of attendance is the bane of many schools. It is frequently due to the indifference of parents, to inefficient instruction, or to defective modes of discipline. Irregularity retards progress, and inconveniences both teacher and pupils. Truancy, if not nipped in the bud, may lead to serious crimes. Indifference to any school duty must not be allowed to grow. No child should feel that he can absent himself a day and escape the teacher's notice. The government of school or college is defective when attendance is optional.

Parents should be informed, if necessary, when their children are absent. Irregularity of attendance, if not

justifiable, should receive proper punishment. A loss of some privilege, as position in the class, may answer the purpose in most cases. By making school work attractive, and by securing the co-operation of parents, regularity of attendance may become a settled feature of the school.

Regularity as a habit is not confined to attendance. All the operations of the school should go on systematically. Pupils should be trained to habits of promptness in connection with every duty. Neglect may allow tendencies to grow that will continue through life. Fickleness may result, and become a hindrance to progress. Regularity promotes perseverance, without which the battles of life are not won. It has a marked bearing on all that affects the industrial, social and moral institutions of the country.

2. Punctuality.—In business, in mechanical and in professional pursuits, it is the man who is punctual who has a chance to win in the struggle. To be behind time is to invite failure. The school has much to do with the formation of habits of punctuality. Pupils should learn to realize the evil of lateness. Unless home duties, bad roads, long distance to school, stormy weather, or other legitimate causes stand in the way, lateness should receive no toleration. The plan of sending a pupil home for "a note" is, except in special cases, a senseless practice. When the pupil is himself to blame a "please excuse" recommendation from the parent should not be required. It may be very desirable, however, to inform the parent so that his co-operation may be gained. As in the case of irregularity of attendance, a neglect of punctuality should be punished. A teacher that allows pupils who come late to take their places at pleasure has a badly disciplined school, and fosters a habit which may cling to them in after life.

3. Industry.—The welfare of the State demands diligence on the part of its citizens. Idleness is the mother of vices, and the foe of national prosperity. Labor is a fundamental law of life. The men who get on in the world are persons of application. Diligence is a function of the will. If not spontaneous in its growth, an artificial development must be cultivated by appropriate incentives. Industry involves constant decision, self-denial, and the execution of choices. There is no wealth, no progress, no bright future, where there is no diligence. The good man works hard.

The school is pre-eminent as an agency for fostering the spirit of industry. It does not teach trades, but it imparts a love for work. It inculcates diligence, which is an element of success in every trade or calling. It calls into action the several mental powers, secures attention, and trains to habits of application. The child that is not kept busy becomes restless, mischievous, weary, discontented and unhappy. The brightest and happiest classes are those in which every scholar is usefully employed. The whole atmosphere of a well-conducted school is one of activity, and the law of work is felt everywhere.

Pupils should not be allowed to form idle habits. The taste for certain subjects may require development. Skill in making a lesson interesting will do a great deal. Patience and discernment will be in demand. Children must be trained to habits of attention, encouraged to form resolutions, and aided in carrying them out. A pupil should be habituated to perform a certain amount of work in a regular time, to abstain from thinking about irrelevant matters, to adhere to purposes without vacillation, and to avoid vagueness of thought or indefiniteness of aim. The child that is idle is sure to get into trouble. The one who

is diligent at school is likely to exhibit habits of industry in after life. A teacher who does not lead his pupils to become workers, fails in his duty.

4. Quietness.—Silence is a virtue of the school. The power to hold the tongue has a high moral value. Reason and conscience too often give place to hasty expressions, unguarded language and impulses of passion. To keep quiet may require that exercise of the will, which trains to habits of self-control. Quietness in school promotes self-knowledge, politeness, reverence and industry. It furnishes the soil in which the highest moral and intellectual virtues grow.

The example of the teacher is essential. "A noisy teacher has a noisy school." One who is fussy, boisterous or irritable will demoralize a class and provoke confusion and anger. Work, and not fear, is the means of putting a stop to whispering, clapping, pounding or stamping. The habit of speaking and moving quietly must be cultivated. Self-government and co-operation must be brought into play. Devices are needed. A talkative pupil may be cured if kept busy or placed by the side of one who is attentive.

It does not follow, however, that a quiet school is necessarily well governed. Absolute stillness may be a sign of dullness, or may prove to be the crushing effect of harsh discipline. It is a great mistake to expect young children to sit still for any great length of time. Activity is a law of their nature, and should be properly developed. Activity does not imply disorder, disturbance or confusion. Talk, when not irrelevant, is a proper feature of childhood. Conversation is in order, when it takes place between teacher and pupil. A good laugh may sometimes be all right. Pupils must be trained to feel that they have no

right to disturb others, and that the power to keep quiet is essential to the prosperity of the school and to the formation of character. Men of talk are not needed so much as men of thought and of action.

5. Neatness.—Neatness is a personal virtue, and any disregard of its value is indicative of a lack of refinement and self-respect. A loss of self-esteem is generally followed by carelessness of personal appearance. Improvement in health, intelligence or morals, is not to be expected of one who exhibits dirty face and hands, untidy clothes and unkempt hair. A slovenly way of attending to duties shows a lack of culture. An efficient workman sets a high value on neatness.

A well-conducted school fosters habits of cleanliness, order and neatness. A school-room that is dirty or untidy, from waste paper, apple-cores, nut-shells, or other refuse, shows indifference to the formation of character. Neatness in preparing exercises, and in arranging books, slates, copy-books, pens, pencils, ink-bottles, etc., will develop habits that will be continued in after life. Many children may come from homes where there is great lack of refinement. Every efficient system of education should set in motion forces that will touch the lowest stratum of society. Vigilance on the part of the teacher will be constantly needed. Pupils should not be allowed to attend to duties in a slovenly manner. Children are imperfectly trained if they are not inspired with a desire to do their best. Thoroughness is a feature not only of an orderly society, but of a well-governed school.

6. Obedience.—Submission to law and order is a mark of a well-governed community. The most highly civilized countries are those in which laws are wisely enacted and well administered. Respect for parents and teachers,

and reverence for rulers and magistrates, are virtues which, when cultivated in youth, secure law-abiding members of society.

Young children must be trained to do what they are told before they are competent to understand the value of obedience. There is a necessity for undisputed authority in childhood. As children grow older, authority may be relaxed in favor of moral suasion. The teacher must understand to what extent it may be safe to lessen restraints, and to allow a pupil to act on his own responsibility. Threats and constant entreaties are unknown in good government. Obedience should become cheerful. Unwise regulations and commands weaken a teacher's influence. No law should be a dead letter. Rules should be carefully considered before being made. An injudicious order should be promptly withdrawn. For advanced pupils—especially those in a High School—it is often well to see that rules meet with favor before being announced. Pupils should be led to feel that they and the teachers have a common interest in good government. In a well-disciplined school the students are self-governing. Commands should not be multiplied or needlessly repeated. The practice of the best teachers favors "few rules." The governing force of the teacher should never be exhausted. Children are not so much impressed with the power they see as with what they feel is kept in reserve.

The school should make up, as far as possible, for defective home training. The boy who refuses to obey his parents may, under the influence of a good teacher, become quite amenable to law. The good example of other pupils often cures stubbornness and obstinacy. The boy who refuses to do what is required of him must be dealt with

promptly. Isolation from the other members of the class, until there is time to speak to him in private, may be prudent. An opportunity for reflection frequently hastens reformation. Signs of repentance should be recognized, and honest efforts to do better should be encouraged. Firmness and discretion should mark the teacher's methods.

7. Truthfulness.—Truthfulness has been called the central pillar of character. Without it society could not be kept together. Exaggeration, equivocation, dissimulation, the breaking of promises, and trickery of every kind, are departures from this virtue. The man whose word is as good as his bond has weight in the community. The educated man is a searcher for truth; he is also a lover of truth.

The way to make children truthful is not by set lessons, but by constantly cultivating habits of truthfulness. Pupils should be instructed in the great value of accuracy, but this is not enough. They should be compelled—wisely, kindly, lovingly—to abstain from all kinds of deception. Children should feel that they can be trusted. It is a serious mistake to call a pupil a liar. Dr. Arnold's view on this question is too well known to need repetition. No use should be made of cunning, espionage, or any underhand method of ascertaining facts. Falsehood, when made clear, should be followed by suitable punishment. It should be remembered that untruthfulness is often the result of fear, habit, or thoughtlessness. Fear should never become the governing agency in promoting truthfulness. Children often receive scanty credit for the struggles they make to do right. The teacher who cannot look down into the heart of a little child, and understand its conflicting emotions, has much to learn.

Tall-telling should be discouraged. It leads to mean,

sneaking habits, fosters an uncharitable spirit, and provokes resentment. There may be occasions when pupils may be expected to tell what they know about crimes that have been committed. Immoral tendencies must be crushed, and the honor of the school maintained. To deny a teacher assistance in a crisis is to prove the existence of a very bad state of discipline. Instances of this kind should be rare, and furnish no warrant for indiscriminate reporting.

8. Honesty.—Honesty is a cardinal virtue of a well governed school. Without a regard for the rights of property, and without a respect for character, all trust would disappear. Pupils must be taught that it is dishonest to take advantage in a bargain, to seek credit for what is not their due, to cheat in games, or to retain property found, when the owner may be ascertained. Children may be selfish in infancy ; but, if properly trained, they soon betray a sense of shame or wrong when detected in the act of appropriating to themselves what belongs to others. A pupil shows resentment if his rights are invaded, and it is evident his sense of justice affords a ready means of cultivating the habit of honesty.

Pupils are often slow to recognize the forms of dishonesty that do not consist in taking valuable articles of property belonging to another person. They should be taught that dishonesty cannot be excused because the thing in question is trifling in value, because it belongs to the school, or because custom has sanctioned the fraud as harmless. They should understand, as they get older, that when they interrupt the class, take up the time of the teacher unnecessarily, or keep other pupils back by their indolence, they are not dealing honestly with their fellow pupils. They should learn that it is dishonest to depreciate or

misrepresent the talents, attainments, motives, or opinions of others, either by exaggeration or suppression of some important particular. In short, the cultivation of altruism, or rather that Christian unselfishness which is embodied in the Golden Rule, should be a paramount object in character building. Pupils so trained are not likely to go wrong. "Bring up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it."

The cultivation of this virtue requires discretion. Children are ready to catch the spirit of the one who leads them. It will not do to be suspicious of pupils. It is not often that a child is entirely bad. To tell a pupil that he is dishonest, and will yet go to the penitentiary, may be sufficient to crush all germs of manliness.

Deliberate breach of honesty must be punished. Property destroyed must be made good. Lost articles, if found, must be restored to the owners. The habit of copying from another must be prevented. Vigilance on the part of the teacher is necessary to put a stop to various dishonest practices. A teacher who is literally or metaphorically blind is no good. Many a form of dishonesty, if not checked, will become a disease which will sap all self-reliance or honest independent effort, and will extend its degrading influences to the after life of the pupils.

9. **Courtesy.**—The man who is gruff in his manner, rude in his conversation, or selfish in his disposition, repels people and fails to win success. True manliness exhibits gentleness, refinement, and that politeness which is void of veneering. Right actions proceed from right thoughts. Courtesy is a product of good motives. Churlishness, or the disposition to tyrannize, shows a want of culture. A good heart is the basis of kind actions and pleasing words.

The school may be a powerful means to overcome

roughness, ill-manners, profanity, or the use of obscene language. The moral atmosphere of a good school is often a source of new life to children whose surroundings have made them rude, mean, untruthful, or dishonest. It should lead them to be polite, to be ready to respond with "thanks" for acts of kindness, to restrain resentment, and to cultivate unselfishness. The little responsibilities to be discharged by pupils toward one another may be turned to good account. Pride in the school and a healthy *esprit de corps*, are marks of good discipline and promises of future manly traits. It should become a disgrace in the estimation of the class for any of its members to act in an ungentlemanly or unladylike manner.

The example of the teacher is powerful. One who is lacking in courtesy should not be retained in the school. Firmness does not imply any want of kindness. Even in using words of censure, politeness should not be forgotten. A subdued tone of voice, an act of benevolence, a pleasing look, or a forgiving spirit, will often destroy malice, conquer a rough nature, and sow seeds of kindness in the youthful heart.

10. Self-Control.—For the wise man, whose self is under the control of the will, law is rarely necessary. Legal restraints are for the would-be-criminals. Character building demands the proper acquisition of knowledge so that the pupil may understand his duties; the cultivation of his feelings, so that his heart may be right; and especially the training of his will, in order that he may gain that firmness, determination, executive power and moral force which answer to the calls of duty and satisfy the conscience. The strong man is the man who can control himself. "He that ruleth his spirit is greater than he that taketh a city."

Self-control is a matter of education. The will should be trained to act in response to the best motives. It is important that strong emotions should not be mistaken for strength of will. The child must be taught to curb his feelings. In the infant stages there is need, on the part of the teacher, of affection and intelligence to prompt good resolves, to proffer suitable help and to bring into operation the best incentives. A child should eventually be secured as a result of the pupil's independent effort, rather than on account of any constant stimulus exerted by the teacher. The power of the teacher need not be lessened by cultivating in his pupils a spirit of self-reliance. If he does not give them a chance to "stand alone" they may fall, not merely when the test of an examination is applied, but when they are confronted with the actual struggles of life. Too often pupils leave school with an abundance of knowledge, but with no habits of self-control. With numerous examples of this nature, it is no wonder that people are so ready to undervalue education.

The treatment of children who have, through neglect, formed habits of stubbornness, demands patience, firmness and judgment. The absurd theory about "breaking the will" is a relic of a time when child nature was poorly understood. A pupil who has a strong will has a nobler gift than genius. The world needs more persons of strength of purpose, and fewer persons who are weak, irresolute and cowardly. The "breaking in" process is opposed to correct principles of training in the case of a rational being. Obstinacy must be cured by the use of counteracting incentives. To perpetuate a system of blind submission to authority in the school life of a stubborn boy, is to throw him eventually upon the world either broken-spirited, or so deficient in moral strength, that he rushes into excesses as soon as restraints are removed.



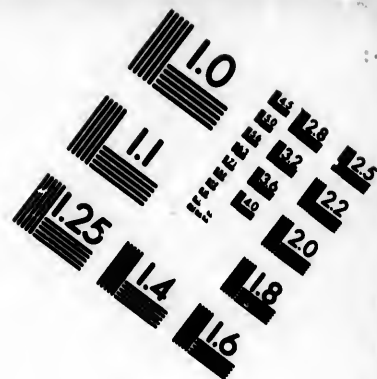
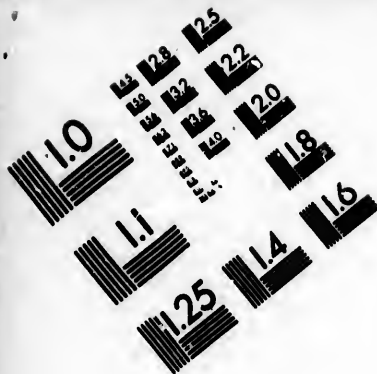
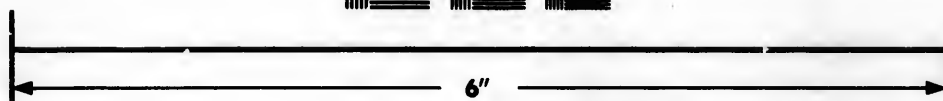
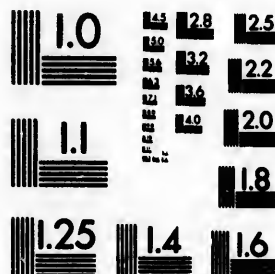


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CHAPTER VII.

THE TEACHER'S QUALIFICATIONS.

Physical Attainments.—A teacher should have good health. A person with a sickly constitution will break down under the mental strain of the school-room. That cheerful spirit, so valuable to the disciplinarian, is not often possessed by one whose frame is weak or whose body is racked with pain. The careful study that must be made of the disposition and progress of each child requires the utmost life and vigor on the part of the teacher. That indomitable energy which compensates for many faults, and almost compels success, is not to be found when the health is feeble and the body weak. Other callings should be sought by "the lame, the halt and the blind."

It is the duty of the teacher to take care of his health. Close confinement, disregard of hygienic laws in the heating, lighting and ventilation of school buildings, the nervous strain in preserving order, and the worry which wears faster than work, often undermine the constitutions of fairly robust teachers. Exercise, food, sleep, air, bathing, and dress will all need proper attention, or the energy will soon begin to flag. To govern well it is necessary for the teacher to exhibit that physical development and vigor which will furnish him with a ready supply of bodily strength for each day's work. The school has no place for the indolent, sleepy, lethargic teacher. There is no reason why good health should give

way under the duties of the school-room if proper care is taken of the body. An energetic teacher, if prudence is exercised, has no need of becoming lifeless, irritable, or "behind the times."

Scholarship.—The teacher should be a good scholar and a logical thinker. His knowledge should be far in advance of what he teaches. It should be systematized, broad and thorough. High scholarship commands respect, but ignorance is despised even by children. The teacher must know his subject, not simply from the point of view of the college student, but from the many sides that it is presented to the various pupils of his class. Good scholarship has often enabled a teacher, otherwise lacking in governing power, to control large classes by the clearness, accuracy, definiteness and fulness of his illustrations. It is probable, more than three-fourths of those teachers who are weak disciplinarians are weak as a result of inadequate academic knowledge, or as a result of having their scholarship arranged only after the manner of an ordinary university student. The good teacher knows his subject well. This implies that he also knows the difficulties which each part of it presents to each pupil.

The teacher must possess fresh knowledge—he must be a constant student—his scholarship must improve year by year. When he ceases to learn, his mind will become stagnant, his methods will become fixed and mechanical, sympathy with the pupils' efforts will cease, his discipline will become harsh, and any love he once had for teaching will grow cold. The reply of Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, when asked why he spent several hours daily in his study preparing what he had taught for years, is significant. His answer, "I wish my boys to drink from a running stream, and not from a stagnant pool," shows a deep insight into

the conditions of all true teaching. "Dead" teachers are a great hindrance to educational progress. No good teacher should become an "old fogey."

Professional Attainments.—The teacher needs special training. Academic study and professional study are very different. The former gives power to apply knowledge, the latter power to present knowledge. The teacher must not only understand a subject in relation to its principles and applications, but also in its relation to the mind of the learner. He must understand child nature and the principles and methods by which physical, intellectual and moral development may be secured. No person should be allowed to teach who has not attended a training school.

The maxim, *nascitur non fit* is misleading. Natural gifts are valuable to any one who follows a high calling. Teachers of the highest genius are rare. Skill to teach, to govern, to form character, is not generally acquired without industry. Inborn gifts alone never made a good teacher. There is a science of education which must be mastered under expert guidance by every person who is born fit to become a teacher. The well-known facts of applied psychology and the most approved methods of instruction are essential requirements of professional attainments. The development of the child, and not the subject of study, should be the guide to the teacher's efforts. The teacher needs to observe, read, think and practise, if he is to become successful in his calling. A lack of power, method and skill will make the most brilliant scholar a failure in the school-room. A knowledge of school organization, programmes of study and principles of teaching may be acquired. The elements of governing power, the conditions of favorable control and the devices of discipline may be ascertained.

The teacher should be a constant student of pedagogy, watching the progress of education, reading school journals, and taking an active part in the discussion of educational questions. His experience should make him progressive without becoming radical, fanatic, or an advocate of "fads." Every year in active work should make the teacher more valuable as an educationist.

"It is in a way perfectly true that only by teaching can one become a teacher. But not any and every sort of thing which passes for teaching or for 'experience' will make a teacher any more than sawing a bow across violin strings will make a violinist. It is a certain quality of practice which produces the expert and the artist. Unless the practice is based upon rational principles, upon insight into facts and their meaning, 'experience' simply fixes incorrect acts into wrong habits. Non-scientific practice, even if it finally reaches sane and reasonable results—which is very unlikely—does so by unnecessarily long and circuitous routes; time and energy are wasted that might easily be saved by wise insight and direction at the outset."—*McLellan and Dewey*.

"If college graduates are put directly into teaching without special study and training, they will teach as they have been taught. The methods of college professors are not in all cases the best, and, if they were, High School pupils are not to be taught and disciplined as College students are. High School teaching and discipline can be that neither of the Grammar School nor of the College, but is *sui generis*. To recognize this truth and the special differences is vital to success. This recognition comes only from much experience at great loss and partial failure, or by happy intuition not usually to be expected, or by definite instruction and directed practice. Success in teaching depends upon conformity to principles, and these principles are not a part of the mental equipment of every educated person."—*Report of the Committee of Fifteen*.

Personal Magnetism.—The great teachers of the past had an element in their character which gave them power to influence and control children. They had that personal magnetism which brings a man friends and surrounds him with associates, though he may have neither

wealth nor position to bestow. The teacher who possesses this magnetic character will not fail in discipline. He will be obeyed by pupils, sustained by trustees, and defended by parents. His presence in the school will be an incentive to right action. His bright and cheerful disposition, his apt and ready power of presenting knowledge, and his ability to inspire and direct, will draw pupils to him. He will not obtrude unnecessarily the forces of discipline. His authority will be recognized, his courage will be ready for any crisis, his sympathy, patience and toleration will be apparent in every decision, and though felt by the pupils to be simply their helper, he will be their director and commander.

Doubtless this is one of the highest qualifications of the teacher. It is largely an accumulation of the noblest features of human nature. It is natural to some persons, and its value has tended too much to exalt natural aptitudes at the expense of characteristics that are the result of scholarship and of professional training. The person who is devoid of sympathy, wanting in energy, repulsive in manner, erratic in ability, ungovernable in temper, or burdened with some other idiosyncrasy of character, should be advised by the Principal of the Training School to undertake some other calling. There are plenty of persons who will, by necessary application, become good teachers, without granting certificates to those who will never be successful in managing children.

Executive Ability.—Much of the success of a teacher depends upon his administrative ability. Good classification, well-constructed time-tables, skill in making promotions, prudence in dealing with trustees, and judgment in his relations with parents, will do much towards inspiring confidence in his ability. The best teachers are leaders.

Their counsel can be relied upon, and their judgment is cool and deliberate. They understand human character and are able to meet prejudices, and even hostility, with courage, fairness and discretion.

Executive ability calls for system in all that relates to teaching and governing. Order, regularity and promptitude are pillars of discipline. Pupils must be kept interested and busy. Pupils trained to habits of order in school will have orderly habits through life. The teacher who manages well has method in all his arrangements. The work goes on with a sort of military precision, but in such a way as to strengthen self-activity, self-control and independence on the part of the pupils.

Executive ability requires boundless energy. Energy keeps the requisite machinery in motion, infuses life and vigor into each recitation, overcomes difficulties, and evokes and directs every power of each pupil. Dulness or disorder, or mischief, or meanness, is not found under an administration of this kind. The teacher needs the qualities of a statesman and a diplomatist. The principal of a large school will require that insight into human nature which makes the successful ruler. Often the duty will devolve upon him of smoothing asperities, allaying antagonisms, enlisting educational forces, and maturing plans for important changes in the management of his school.

Tact.—No teacher ever governed a school well who had not tact. Tact is the power of meeting difficulties with promptness and discretion. Quickness of perception in taking into account all the bearings of a case and the ulterior consequences of any line of action, and a readiness of resource in appropriately adjusting means to ends, are constantly required in school discipline. Tact enables a teacher to have his wits about him in case of a crisis.

Like a general on the field of battle, he is frequently confronted with unforeseen difficulties. Without a moment's notice he has often to decide whether a stern rebuke, or the "soft answer that turneth away wrath," is to be employed. The teacher with tact is prepared for emergencies. If he makes a mistake, he retraces his steps with dignity and without humiliation. He is never restless or fussy. He checks impending danger before opposition has time to make headway. He is fertile in resource. He does not needlessly irritate or jar the feelings of children. He allays any indications towards rebellion by removing any real grievance. Disturbing elements become aids in promoting order. An angry parent is met in such a way as to become a friend, and the people of the entire community regard him with confidence and respect.

Common-Sense.—Common-sense has to do with matters of every-day occurrence. The teacher's work is in a sense mainly made up of little things. Common-sense is needed by every person who hopes to succeed. A lack of this qualification on the part of the teacher is fatal to good discipline. Without it blunders are continually made. "A lack of common-sense will cause a teacher to give lessons far too difficult, to put an absurd question to a pupil, to make uncalled-for remarks, to discourage a timid child, to whip a boy for a trifle, to keep the school-room uncomfortably warm or cold, and to do many other senseless things, where only a little judgment is needed. Some teachers have no presence of mind. They are continually doing the things they ought not to do, and leaving undone the things they ought to do. They are hopelessly "at sea" in the simple matters of discipline. They make mountains out of mole-hills, and fail to prevent mole-hills from becoming mountains. Tact may be necessary to meet the breeze

that has grown to the magnitude of a whirlwind. A little common-sense will often enable a teacher to see the gathering cloud when it is not larger than a man's hand, and will furnish him with means of meeting the storm successfully or of dispersing it.

Vigilance.—Good work in the school requires the teacher to be constantly watchful. Eternal vigilance is the price of freedom from trouble. The teacher needs good eyes and ears. A teacher who is so mentally blind or deaf that he does not know what is going on in his class, will fail as a disciplinarian. In some schools pupils may constantly whisper, pass papers from one to another, copy at examinations, or become quite inattentive, without being detected. The teacher goes on with his demonstrations regardless of noise, interruptions, or the general indifference of the pupils. If order reigns, it is only when the confusion has become so great as to call forth a storm of wrath from an angry teacher.

The teacher should be able to "take in" the situation at any moment. Any signs of interference or disorder should not escape his notice. A mere glance of the eye should bring the idle to a sense of duty. The timid child should receive the needed look of sympathy. The vigilant teacher discovers merit not less readily than he detects wrong. His vigilance should be that of a kind, sympathetic friend, rather than that of a lynx-eyed detective. Watchful government anticipates and prevents crime, dissuades from wrong-doing, and encourages honest self-effort. The vigilant teacher is not calling for "order"; he is not a fault-finder; he passes over unintentional errors; he gives serious reproof for serious faults; and meets wrong-doing with suitable punishment. The pupils know that every deviation from right, every instance of

idleness or frivolity, and every careless action, is recognized. They know, at the same time, that every effort to study, every attempt to answer a question, and every inclination of theirs to prevent trouble, is observed by a vigilant and loving teacher.

Heart Power.—Heart power means the ability to win and retain the confidence and the love of children. The loving teacher is ever affable, kind and considerate. He easily induces children to study and to preserve order. The cold, repulsive teacher may have forced quiet, and may compel pupils to study, but he creates an atmosphere in which bad habits grow and evil passions are fostered. To win the confidence of bad pupils shows high skill. Successful teachers are men and women of deep sympathy with children. They are patient with the dull, the idle and the troublesome. Their cheerfulness and enthusiasm render school-life enjoyable. Sympathy is the crowning grace of the teacher. Its possession is usually a guarantee of success. The lack of it means failure.

Love does not need to be proclaimed. It shows itself in the eye, the face, the voice, and in every movement. Children are not easily deceived in this matter. In the presence of his pupils it is impossible for the teacher to wear a veil over his heart. Children read character. They know who loves them, and he alone can lead them. True affection takes hold of the idle and wayward. The possibility of a noble man or woman is recognized. It is love that lights up the fallen, gives help to the depraved, and sends glad tidings to the heathen and the outcast. It was love that stirred Pestalozzi, and gave him abiding faith in the possibilities of child nature. It was love that made Arnold the sympathizing friend and companion to the boys of Rugby. It was love that made the founder of the

Kindergarten study the games and plays of little children to know how best to lead them to the highest state of development. It was love which was the great motive power in the life of Him who said, "Suffer little children to come unto me," and it is safe to say no successful teacher ever lived who was not guided by the same spirit.

Will Power.—Will power is essential to the man who leads or governs. Decision of character, persistency of purpose, and unflinching determination, are signs of a strong personality. Firm convictions are an essential of governing power. A vacillating, fickle or temporizing policy is fatal to good management. The teacher of strong will holds the reins firmly, while he trains his pupils to habits of spontaneous attention and cheerful obedience. He teaches his pupils to give earnest attention, to study diligently, to move quietly and promptly, to speak becomingly, and to act gracefully. A teacher who is capricious in his requirements, lacking in definiteness of aim, weak in manner, will fail to command the respect of his pupils. One who is subject to spasms of discipline, bursts of passion, or fits of coaxing, will have a bad disciplined school.

A sign of strong will on the part of the teacher is his ability to control himself. Hasty words, petulance, sudden flashes of anger, or chronic sullenness, will destroy any teacher's chances of success. To have an iron will, with an impulsive or nagging manner, is sure to blast all the finer feelings of children and to make them discontented, deceitful and quarrelsome. Pupils cannot make progress under any system of petting, begging or scolding. To train children is not the sphere of one who has no patience, no self-control, no will power.

Moral Character.—As already stated (Chapter V.), the example of the teacher is an essential element in moral

training. It is also a requisite qualification in promoting intellectual progress. A teacher who is untruthful, dishonest, or addicted to any bad habits, will be weak in his powers of discipline. Children are not inspired with high intellectual aims by one who shows by his conduct that he has not sufficient judgment or self-control to abstain from what is immoral. The best incentives to study fail when exercised by one who does not command the respect of his pupils. That sunny, cheerful, happy disposition, which is the outcome of a good life, wins. The sweet, assuring smile which comes from a pure-minded person secures confidence and promotes industry, while the frown or sneer of one whose heart is not right repels pupils and fosters in them a dislike for study. A censorious, irascible spirit, sharp criticism, sarcasm or ridicule, are not exhibited by the teacher whose nature is built up by an adherence to high moral principle.

"The physical qualities of the teacher are not themselves to be despised as an instrument of discipline. Form, physiognomy and voice play their part in well-conducted schools. It is useless to insist on those qualities which depend wholly on nature; but what an earnest purpose can control are: the general bearing of the body, the appearance of the face, and gestures. But physical qualities are of little account compared with 'moral qualities, which are the principal element of authority.' . . . External and, in some sort, mechanical means of discipline are worth nothing, unless they are seconded by the moral force which only good teachers possess; and in schools where this moral authority is well established they become almost useless."—*Compayré*.

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CHAPTER VIII.

DISCIPLINE

The Aim of Discipline.—The essential feature of discipline is training. The good teacher is the good disciplinarian. No system of government is to be commended that is not effective in character building (Chapter VI.). The object of the school should be to stimulate and foster all right and valuable instincts. When children are trained to subjugate their impulses, to recognize the supremacy of law, and to form habits of usefulness, they are receiving a good education. All true discipline forms in pupils such moral judgments and such habitual modes of action as will make it easy for them to do right when they leave school.

It is often assumed that good discipline is identical with order and obedience. If such quietness reigns that one can "hear a pin drop," if pupils study hard, and if disobedience is not shown in the class, the school is presumed to be well governed. It should be known, however, that order, attention to study, and submission to the will of the teacher, are at best only signs that good discipline may exist. They may be found where something like military discipline prevails. Children should not be treated like machines. The heavy-handed drillmaster may quell a mob by force. It requires the teacher's qualifications (Chapter VII.) to train pupils to govern themselves. An able-bodied man of strong will may crush a school into

silence, compel children to learn their lessons, and make his word become law, but the ends of discipline are no more secured when obedience results from intimidating, than from bribing or coaxing. No government is effective that has not for its object self-government. Authority should be felt and respected, but not paraded or talked about. If the pupil is continually directed, he fails to acquire the power of independent intellectual effort. As he advances, periods of effort entirely independent of supervision should be permitted. The centre of control should be gradually transferred from the teacher to each of his pupils. What they are *becoming* is to be kept in view rather than what they are *doing*.

Characteristics of Good Discipline.—In a properly disciplined school pupils are attentive. Attention forms the avenue to the higher intellectual processes. With young children voluntary attention is not to be expected; but, as they pass from the elementary stages, it is necessary that they should acquire the power of fixing their thoughts. Those habits (Chapter VI.) which constitute character—such as industry, order, neatness, obedience, truthfulness, etc.—become prominent features of well-trained pupils. In a school that is characterized by good discipline there is a high moral tone.

Good government requires that the discipline should be regular. Uniformity, firmness, and discretion are observed in the enforcement of rules. The natural instincts are followed and utilized in securing obedience. Submission to authority is maintained without any apparent effort. The discipline is unobtrusive. It is kind. Love is supreme. Fear is not a controlling force. Justice reigns. Anger, vacillation, carelessness, and unreasonable demands are unknown. Courtesy and self-control are shown by the

teacher, and the pupils catch his spirit and follow his example.

Good order is an essential characteristic of good discipline. Without it good teaching is impossible, progress is not to be expected, and the school is defective in the formation of good habits. An orderly school is marked by the thorough and systematic manner in which the lessons are taken up, by the taste exhibited in the arrangement of books, furniture, apparatus, etc., and by the promptness and regularity that attend the performance of duty by the pupils. Incentives to right action and penalties for wrongdoing are judiciously employed. There is no elaborate code of rules. Where order prevails, children are led to control themselves by their intelligence and conscience. The careless and irregular are readily brought to attention. The teacher is orderly himself, and never goes on with work until disorder, if it arises, ceases. In an orderly school attention is not secured by blustering, striking the desk, stamping the foot, threatening the idle or scolding the dull. Haste, fickleness, whispering and idleness are absent.

Conditions of Discipline.—1. Proper environments, if not absolutely indispensable, tend at least to facilitate and promote discipline. Children are more easily managed in a building that is spacious, beautiful, well-planned and well furnished. It is difficult to preserve order when physical comfort is not secured. A badly heated, poorly lighted, and ill-ventilated room imposes additional strain on the teacher's governing power. Attractive surroundings help to make children love school, and lessen the task of securing attention.

2. Authority is essential to good government. The rights, powers and duties of the teacher should be defined

by the laws of the State (See Appendix). If each municipality or district enjoys complete freedom in school legislation, the authority of the teacher is liable to be unduly restricted or hastily modified. An efficient system of education demands a fair measure of centralization. It follows that the teacher in a private school has not the aid to discipline that is necessary to good government. On this account character is more easily formed in institutions subject to public control.

3. Easy control needs the *support of trustees*. In the faithful discharge of their difficult duties teachers are entitled to all the assistance that School Boards can give. There should be no interference in those matters of organization and management which, by law, pertain to the teacher or the inspector. Meddlesome trustees are an injury to discipline. Harshness, doubtless, should not be allowed in controlling pupils, but the trustee who is ever ready to have the complaints of any busybody publicly investigated is no friend of teachers, pupils, or parents. Every good teacher should be anxious to take necessary counsel from his trustees and his inspector. The best discipline is not found where the support of the Board is wanting.

4. *The co-operation of the principal* is essential to efficient control. If the head-teacher is weak in management and discipline, the difficulty of each assistant is increased. The successful chief supports his subordinates without destroying their individuality. The spirit of order, precision and governing power which the principal exhibits should be such as may be followed by the entire staff. An inexperienced teacher should feel that in the headmaster he has one competent to give advice, ready to sustain his authority, and one who is a rampart to check disobedience or rebellion. When an assistant blunders,

care should be taken to have matters righted without lessening his influence. The principal will often find troubles arising that never would have occurred had good judgment on the part of some assistant been exercised. Too much should not, however, be expected of beginners. The one who has the main qualifications of a successful teacher may eventually become an acquisition to the school. One who is sure to fail may be quietly requested to resign. A weak disciplinarian makes it harder for the other teachers to govern.

5. Harmony among the staff must be preserved in a school having two or more teachers. A divided house cannot stand. Good discipline requires unity of action. The will of the principal should be law in all matters pertaining to management. Though vested with power somewhat autocratic in its nature, every wise headmaster constantly consults the members of his staff. An assistant who goes out of his way to weaken the influence of the principal, deserves to be dismissed. The best managed schools are those where appointments on the staff are made by the Boards on the recommendation of the principal or inspector. An efficient executive officer will preserve harmony, receive the cheerful support of his assistants, give good counsel to trustees, and prevent by his tact any serious troubles from making headway.

6. The confidence of parents is necessary in order that the government may be effective. Fitness and merit are unfortunately not always duly considered in making appointments. The candidate who has "influence" is often selected in preference to one of higher qualifications. False economy has more than once placed an inferior teacher in charge of a school. It frequently happens that some persons in a section are annoyed because their relative or favorite did not receive the appointment. Greater

care is needed in selecting teachers. It should be recollected, however, that not only fairness to the candidate chosen, but the important interests of their children as well, should prompt parents to aid the teacher in his arduous duties. To discredit a teacher in advance is neither wise nor honest. Easy control is out of the question when parents are so forgetful of the welfare of their children as to make before them disparaging remarks of the teacher's scholarship or professional attainments.

Devices of Discipline.—There are many devices of the school-room which, though not calling for high governing powers, may be employed to render control easy. Methods of this nature serve, like the conditions of discipline already described, to aid the weak disciplinarian and to lessen the strain that is inseparable from the work of even the best teachers. Their chief advantages are the removal of temptations to misconduct, and the prevention of disorder by surrounding children with what will induce them to do right. If utilized they greatly help the teacher; if disregarded, good government is impossible. Some of the most important devices are the following:

1. *The school-house and the school ground should be improved in every way that may add to their attractiveness.* Doubtless these are matters for the trustees, but in the matter of æsthetics much may be done by the teacher who enlists the aid of the pupils. Some teachers have cultivated in their pupils a taste for what is refining and ennobling. Order is more easily preserved, and attention to duty more readily secured, when beauty and cleanliness are recognized as valuable aids to discipline.

2. *Physical comfort* is inseparable from good order. It is impossible to secure attention if no relief is given to children suffering from a close atmosphere, bad temperature

or glaring light. To see that the fires are well looked after, and that the room is flushed with pure air at suitable times, is as important as imparting knowledge.

3. *The seating of the pupils* has much to do with discipline. Provision should be made for periods of sitting and standing. Frequent intermissions are necessary for young children (Chapter XII.).

Pupils should be so arranged that the eye of the teacher may be upon them. In an ungraded school the elementary classes should be so placed that hints and short lessons may be given them if necessary, while the older pupils are taught writing, arithmetic, composition and other subjects. It is not always best to put the junior pupils by themselves. A suitable place for classes to sit or stand during recitations should also be provided.

It is important to seat pupils in such a way that those who are weak in one another's presence may be separated. A troublesome boy may be managed if placed near those who are industrious. It is not well to give pupils their permanent seats till they are fairly well known. After seats have been assigned for the term, it is best to make as few changes as possible.

4. *A good classification* aids discipline. It is difficult to maintain interest when the pupils of a class differ widely in their attainments. In graded schools a common hindrance to good order is the excessively large size of classes. The only remedy is additional teachers. To expect any one—and especially a beginner—to manage sixty or seventy pupils is cruel to teacher and pupils. In a rural school, where the classes are small, an inexperienced teacher, who would fail in a city school, will often do good work. In ungraded schools, and in some High Schools, the multiplicity of classes is a constant obstacle to easy control.

When pupils are left a great part of the time to themselves, the difficulty of government is increased. Fewer classes, or a doubling up of classes in some subjects, may give partial relief (Chapter XI.). Skill is needed to adopt proper devices of this kind.

5. *A good lesson programme* is a great advantage in preserving order. A well constructed time-table (Chapter XII.) is necessary to easy control. Short, lively recitations, followed by short recesses, are needed for young pupils. Order is out of the question when pupils are exhausted. To assign certain difficult subjects as the work for the last hour of the day is to hinder good government. In an ungraded school the junior classes should not be left for the last. In High Schools, where the work is divided among the teachers by departments, many devices in arranging the time-table will require consideration. So far as practicable the subjects that exhaust the nervous energy and those that do not call for close reasoning should alternate. A change from one subject to another, if wisely arranged, increases the interest and helps discipline.

6. *Good study arrangements* are an important feature of the time-table for rural schools. Even in a graded school, it is an absurd practice to have all study done at home. Pupils do not need to be "talked to" for five hours a day. In an ungraded school, if proper arrangements are not made for study, pupils, when not engaged in a recitation, will get into mischief. Every class should be employed. While one class is taught algebra or history another class may prepare grammar or study geometry. Writing or drawing may occupy the attention of some pupils, while others are instructed in arithmetic or physiology. To keep the entire "machinery" in motion demands judgment and experience. Idleness is productive

of disorder. Pupils must be kept busy. Their employment must be profitable.

7. *A system of signals*, constituting what may be termed school tactics, may be used with much advantage in elementary classes. Mechanical movements secured in this way may save time, impart vigor, give a military appearance to the class, lessen the teacher's requests, promote order and train to habits of obedience. School tactics should be uniform and should cause no confusion. Signals should be few and readily understood. By means of a little bell, or by the notes of a piano, children may be called to attention, assembled in their places, trained to stand or sit, or to be dismissed from their classes with regularity, promptitude, and decorum. For advanced classes fewer tactics are necessary, but order is indispensable. More self-control is to be expected of older pupils. The discipline is defective when "hustling" or "hazing" cannot be checked.

8. *Pupils should be trained to assist the teacher* in preserving order. System is needed in the care, distribution and collection of books, slates, pens, pencils, etc., used in the elementary classes. In matters of this kind children may be assigned little duties which will please them and aid the teacher. Maps and apparatus may be arranged, the blackboard cleaned, and works of reference consulted, in the case of advanced classes, by some of the pupils. A boy will feel some pride if he is required, under the teacher's directions, to see that the room is kept at the proper temperature, the ventilation looked after, or the appliances for physical culture kept in their place. Mischiefs may often be checked, and better relationships formed between pupils and teacher, when such functions and responsibilities as have been mentioned are assigned to different members of the class.

9. *Physical exercises* (Chapter II.) promote good discipline. Much of the restlessness of children is due to the need of bodily activity. Pupils who take an interest in games, drill, gymnastics or calisthenics, learn more readily to become orderly and obedient. Children who are constantly on the move should be given a chance to develop their physical powers. Recess, with its fun and frolic, has its place in every well-constructed time-table.

10. *Rules of conduct for pupils should be few.* Page, that pioneer as a writer in the art of discipline, recognizes a philosophic truth when he regards "Do Right" as a rule sufficiently comprehensive to secure good government. A code of laws has its place in the preservation of order in the State, but not in the school-room. The usages of the school are best learned by practice. The constant exhibition of good conduct is more potent in influencing the effort of individual scholars than the multiplication of rules. Whatever rules are adopted, should not refer so much to matters relating to work and behavior as to matters of attendance, promotions, courses of study, etc. Rules often awaken a desire to do what is forbidden, and give the impression that what is not prohibited may be transgressed with impunity. There should be few rules relating to crimes for which penalties are prescribed. There should be no rules that cannot be enforced. Commands should be given in a firm but quiet tone, in few words, and should not be repeated. Orders should be explained, if necessary, and should not be associated with a warning or threat. The unwritten law of duty and the power of conscience will hold prominence in every well-governed school.

REFERENCES.

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CHAPTER IX.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

The Need of Incentives.—Human nature is imperfect. The government of nations cannot be secured by depending solely on the highest motives of each individual. Rewards and punishments are inseparable from obedience to law. The sense of right and the power of conscience are imperfectly developed in children. Before the intelligence and the will are trained, a child is controlled by his feelings. Almost from earliest infancy he recognizes that certain actions lead to pleasurable or painful results. The hope of reward, or the expectation of pleasure, must be stimulated so that the right course may be taken. The impulse of the moment may be strong for years, but if the right influence is brought to bear, there will arise a growing tendency to prefer a future and a greater good to an immediate pleasure. The incentives required will vary with the age, disposition and circumstances of the pupil. They will also be determined by the end to be sought in the formation of character.

Choice of Incentives.—In influencing children to right action, the highest motives that will secure the end in view should be used. Lower incentives have no permanent place in good discipline. All children cannot be treated alike. The same child requires different treatment at different times, and under different circumstances. An incentive which is not of the highest kind

cannot be defended, unless it gradually brings the pupil under the dominion of higher self-acting influences. The incentive must be educative in its results. The physician must understand the condition of the patient and the nature of the disease before he can prescribe the medicine. In like manner, ability to diagnose the intellectual and moral state of the pupil is an essential element of the teacher's qualification. "What is the disease?" "What is its cause?" "What remedies may be used?" "Which one will have the best effect on character?" These are questions which daily confront the teacher.

Two Kinds of Incentives.—1. Natural incentives are the pleasures or discomforts that ordinarily arise from actions. If a pupil attends school regularly with the desire of standing well in his class, if he studies hard in order to gain knowledge for the pleasure it gives, or if he works with energy to pass an examination so that he may gain a position of trust in society, he is in each case influenced by a natural incentive. There is a clear connection between the end to be secured and the activity called into play.

2. When an incentive is of a character that shows no consequential relation between the desired object and the effort put forth, it is called artificial. For instance, a boy may be promised a pair of skates if he goes regularly to school, he may be induced to prepare his lesson if a holiday is offered as a reward, or he may strive to pass an examination with the hope of gaining a prize. In each case an artificial incentive is used as a motive to secure a desirable object.

It is evident that the best results are not attainable by means of artificial incentives. In the hands of a poor teacher they may be productive of bad results. A good

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teacher has little need of them. At best they are merely temporary expedients. Many of them have, like some bad teaching methods, come down by tradition. If subjected to the light of pedagogical research, they will be found as unsound as the rote system of teaching history, or the rule method of solving arithmetical problems. The vital question to be settled is, whether or not an incentive is defensible on account of its consequent moral results. It will be found, in many instances, that an artificial incentive is of doubtful value as regards the pupil to be influenced, and that it has an injurious effect on other members of the class.

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Prizes.—Prizes are the incentives of an artificial nature that are most frequently used in school. In the prize system proper there is competition among several, but only a few win. It is not to be confounded with a system of rewards where each person who reaches a certain standard receives something valuable as a mark of distinction. In High Schools and Colleges, as well as in the more advanced classes of elementary schools, the test in the competition is generally a written examination. In the junior classes the estimate made by the teacher decides.

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In the prize system emulation stimulates exertion. Emulation is, in itself, a valuable incentive to human activity. Its influence is felt through all communities, irrespective of rank, age or occupation. It is not confined to those of eminent gifts or attainments. It is a powerful factor in human advancement, but it requires proper direction. There are few natures so indolent as never to have felt its warm influence. In most schools there is less need of exciting emulation than of directing it aright. The frequent use of it may do much harm. To what the love of distinction by stimulating words and the glitter of



artificial rewards, has a powerful effect on obedient and industrious pupils. To make the school a little battle-field, on which the rival combatants strive to vindicate their superiority, is to lead pupils to concentrate their efforts against their rivals, and perhaps to cherish towards them malevolent feelings. Those who by nature are unfitted to take part in the "trial of speed" often become the victims of injustice.

Emulation may, when directed by an enlightened teacher, become a power capable of achieving great results, but there is no need that its application should be limited to a system of rewards granted to those who show superior excellence in intellectual attainments. In the infant stage, where the desire is to draw out the amiable sentiments, the use of emulation should be checked. With young children a written examination is impossible, and if prizes are to be granted the teachers must assume a responsibility that may endanger their relations with unreasonable parents and with children of immature judgment. With older pupils, if the prize system does not foster envy, jealousy, deception, heartburning or dishonesty, it has at all events kept in the back-ground the higher motives of good government. If its evils are not perceptible, the explanation is that the school has been controlled by a teacher who knows how to employ the natural incentives of good discipline. The prize system is a prop to efficient instruction that is becoming less and less employed by teachers in Public Schools. It is evident only a few pupils—pupils who do not need such incentives—are competitors in the struggle. It is safe to say that no good teacher who has tested the value of natural incentive would sacrifice their advantages by the introduction of the prize system.

In High Schools the evils of the system are more easily

checked. It is, nevertheless, a development which has only a traditional value. In the language of Fitch, the system is a species of "bribery." The Science of Pedagogy proves that the practice of granting prizes cannot be defended. Public money is now seldom expended for prizes or scholarships. It may be difficult to refuse, for purposes of this kind, the gifts that come from private liberality. Custom and benevolence, and not the science of education, usually guide such acts of generosity. The contention that "inducements" are needed to draw students who might otherwise go to rival institutions, is sufficient to condemn a system not based on sounder morality. It should also be known that, if a university student is benefited by a scholarship, the measure of his private purse is not a factor in securing the reward. The winner of a prize is generally a student who would do his best in any case. No incentive can be good that may not serve as a spur to those who lag behind.

"A distinction may be made between prizes and rewards. A prize is something which can be secured by only one of two competitors, or by one or a very few of any number of competitors. All may strive, but only one, or a very small number, can possibly win. A reward, on the other hand, is something which, however many are concerned, all may attain who reach a certain required degree of excellence. The fact that one obtains the reward does not preclude others from obtaining it. If the standard of excellence is not placed too high, not above the possible attainment of any faithful, earnest and industrious student, many of the objections which are justly urged against prizes cannot be urged against rewards."—*Putnam*.

Privileges granted to pupils who win in a contest are open to similar objections. They also tend to induce a teacher to ignore the higher incentives. It is possible, if wisely directed, that the privilege of gaining a position of

honor or trust may furnish a harmless rivalry. It should be known, however, that any motive is defective in principle that tends to have the backward pupils overlooked. If the weak are handicapped for the sake of the more gifted, the discipline is wrong.

Exemptions are artificial incentives which would appear to convey the thought that the performance of duty is not a pleasure. A few examples will show what is meant: The boy who comes out first in composition is freed from writing the weekly essay. The one who does well during the term is not subjected to the final examinations. Pupils who conduct themselves well are allowed to leave school half an hour before the rest of the class. If the principle introduced can be defended, it implies that preparing lessons is unpleasant, that writing at examinations has no educative value, and that attending school is a hardship. In this connection it may be said that the custom of granting a holiday on account of a visit from some distinguished personage, is a pedagogical error handed down by tradition. If a holiday is a benefit, why wait for the Inspector's visit?

Right Motives.—No discipline can be defended that does not employ high motives in gaining its ends. No obedience to authority, no temporary interest in study, no desire to win distinction, can compensate for the habitual subjection of the will to the dominancy of the lower motives. A school may be brought to a high pitch of interest and effort by the enthusiastic use of rewards, such as prizes, promises of holidays, or the release from certain duties; but artificial incentives of this nature do not stand the decisive test of character building. They tend to bring the will into subjection to what is present and selfish, and leave the sense of right and duty weak. Discipline is defective if the natural results of effort are not made

attractive. The most efficient training of the will involves an appeal to the sense of duty. The religious motives have been the most powerful in the formation of national life and individual character. As has been stated (Chapter IV.), the religious motives should not be used except with discretion. Although the sense of duty ranks highest as an incentive, it should not be continually used in school discipline. Long before a child can be taught to act from any sense of honor, right, or duty, his nature may be employed to strengthen his will and to direct his course of action. The motives that may be used by the teacher will now receive consideration :

1. A Desire for Good Standing.—As Raub remarks, “This, as an incentive, appeals directly to the self-respect of the pupil. Every one feels it an honor to stand high in his school, and among the best in his class.” Progress implies a knowledge of one’s present and past attainments, and therefore the desire for a higher standing is a necessary and natural incentive of school discipline. A consciousness of improvement is a valuable spur to increased effort. The pupil who is influenced to-day to do better than yesterday, is sure to improve. The motive is serviceable in childhood and all through life. With junior pupils relative standing should be used sparingly. There is danger in childhood that a high rank may unduly elate, or a low standing injuriously depress. It is not results so much as fidelity that should be rewarded in the case of young children. There is danger also of fostering selfishness at the expense of judgment and self-control.

It is a mistake to hold, as some persons contend, that all methods of comparing the standing of children are bad. This theory ignores the fact that there can be no measure of progress without comparisons. It fails to admit the

force of example on human effort. In a school where each student is kept in ignorance of the standing of the other members of his class, there is little to stimulate effort. Doubtless the motive must be used with caution. The age, disposition and attainments of the pupils must be considered.

Pupils who reach a certain standing may be rewarded. If those who attain a certain rank receive a prize, the objections mentioned against the prize system do not apply. There is no competition. No pupil has any grounds for cherishing the hope that the others in his class may fail. A prize, unless in the shape of a certificate, is, however, unnecessary. It seems ridiculous to grant a prize worth four or five dollars to a student who has been awarded a certificate that is worth as many hundreds of dollars.

2. **Approbation.**—"A teacher," says Wickersham, "should commend when he can, and find fault only when he must." It is astonishing the trouble a child will undergo to stand well with his fellows, to be thought courageous, generous, skilful, or to gain influence with them. A pupil must be very low down when he cares nothing about the good-will of his teacher. Children need encouragement. It is a rare thing to find a pupil who has not some traits deserving of approval. A slight effort to improve should be recognized. It is a serious blunder to give a boy to understand that nothing good is expected of him. Many a bad boy is deserving of credit for the efforts he makes to resist temptation. The pupil is discouraged who finds that his utmost exertions fail to extort a word of acknowledgment from his unsympathetic teacher. The cold and breathless stimulus of fear seems the only power some teachers can use to arouse pupils to activity.

Indjudicious praise may make a pupil blind to his

defects. Prudence in distributing rewards is needed. It only depraves the character of children to implant in their minds exaggerated opinions of what they have done and of what they can do. Flattery is bad. Praise, as a stimulus, should be administered steadily. Approbation, when fairly earned, should not be withheld. An oversight may cause a child of gentle disposition to spend an hour in tears. Good conduct, as well as good answering, should be approved. It is not desirable to give children to understand that they merit praise merely for doing their duty. It makes approbation too cheap if it is to be bestowed for regularity, truthfulness, or honesty. As a rule praise should not be given in a formal or ostentatious manner. Unless an act shows some special mental or moral victory, no good will come by dwelling on its merits before the class. If the teacher is loved by his pupils, a quiet word of commendation, incidentally expressed, will be sufficient. A kind remark in private may also serve the purpose more effectively than public laudation.

3. The Desire for Knowledge.—The pupil who craves for knowledge for its own sake will find a prize in every truth learned. He does not need the spur of emulation or approbation to prompt him to exertion. The fear of punishment is not required to excite his mental activities. The highest scholarship has not been achieved by those whose sole ambition was to gain position, riches or public applause, but by those whose devotion to study sprang from a love of truth for its own sake. The true philosopher is a lover of wisdom, not for its practical uses, but for its intrinsic worth.

The desire for knowledge may be cultivated. To impart information, the mind of the pupil must be prepared for its reception. As Thring remarks, by way of illustration,

"It is impossible to pour water into a tea-kettle that has the lid on." The teacher may do much to remove the "lid," or to arouse that curiosity which will create a desire for study. To cause his pupils to be anxious to see, to hear, and to reason, is the first aim of the teacher during the recitation. Unless the desire for knowledge is formed, the appropriate activity cannot arise. When curiosity is aroused, the teacher should be able to meet the expectations of his pupils. The attention must be held by instructing and not by amusing. Time must not be wasted in irrelevant stories, in solving puzzles, or in answering conundrums. Teaching should be made interesting; but it should be understood that hard study is the royal road to manhood and success.

"The mind is endowed with a spontaneous craving or desire for knowledge, and this desire is specially keen and active in childhood. This natural craving of the mind for knowledge is more than curiosity—more than a desire for novelty. It is a principle of the mind, which has for its final cause or purpose the development of the mental powers and the improvement of the individual and the race. It is nature's means for securing these beneficent ends."—*White*.

"Gradually the mere instinctive impulse of the child becomes, in the more advanced pupil, the love of knowledge. At bottom there is still the spontaneous element, the natural craving of the soul for that which supports its life and ministers to its growth and development. The native impulse is now reinforced and strengthened by rational considerations. The pupil desires to know because knowledge will be of service to him in the conduct of life, will help him 'to get a living,' will give him social position, personal influence, political power and preferment."—*Putnam*.

4. Love of Activity.—Children like change and are happiest when active. To them a condition is miserable that is marked by aimlessness and stagnation. Self-activity is the basis of their growth, physically, intel-

iectionally and morally. Unceasing spontaneity is the natural characteristic of the ordinary young pupil. Idleness is a result of defective training. If the innate love of activity is properly developed, the child becomes conscious of increased power and skill. His aspirations bound up, and work becomes his very life and happiness. The knowledge of power gained, and of discoveries made by his exertions, intensifies his zeal and promotes further progress.

The love of activity should be used as an incentive, with due regard to the age and strength of the child. It is possible to overstrain, as well as to misdirect. The interest in study should not be abused. To exhaust the force of a motive will produce prostration. The evil is as serious as to neglect its use. By a judicious use of this incentive, pupils may be prevented from idleness and mischief. Fear is not demanded when children are kept busy. They should be trained to regard themselves not mere listeners or spectators, but participators in the work of the school. When pupils are trained to love work, little further inducement to duty is needed.

"Besides the craving for bodily exercise, there is a desire for employment, and a tendency to seek occupation, of a more purely mental or emotional character, often termed Love of Activity. To this feeling, not a little enhanced by the corporeal condition, is due in great measure the development both of body and mind. The mastery of the limbs, the control of the organs, the knowledge derived through the senses, the growth of intelligence, are all more or less the result of that craving for employment, which is so marked a feature of human nature."—*Gill*.

5. The Love of Self-Control.—Too often, in the training of children, the mistake of giving license is followed by the equally fatal mistake of governing without securing their co-operation. To relax authority

should not be felt as any infringement of the teacher's prerogative. Pupils brought under the influence of self-government feel the consciousness of power. Self-approval becomes to them a reward, and an incentive to master their feelings. An ideal teacher inspires pupils with such a love of self-control, that the spirit of co-operation makes the school appear to run itself. Mastery over self is a leading feature of the school. Each pupil feels that he is making conquests. Self-control is a matter of growth. The teacher who neglects its development in his pupils is under the disagreeable necessity of putting his authority unduly in the foreground. The task of government becomes greater, instead of less, as they grow older, and they enter upon the active duties of life imperfectly prepared to cope with its difficulties, or to win in its contests.

"The power of self-government is strengthened only by its free exercise, and, to this end, the discipline of the school must call into play self-restraint and self-direction. This is never done by hedging the pupil's conduct with prohibitions bristling with penalties; but the pupil must be made, as fully as possible, a law unto himself, and then be led to a cheerful and happy conformity thereto."

—White.

6. The Hope of Success in Life.—The teacher will often be met with the statements that there are too many educated persons, too many scholars that are not practical men, and too many graduates of High Schools who are failures in life. He must be prepared to convince persons who argue in this way that there cannot be too many educated men, if their education is of the right kind; that there is no more fear of too much intelligence than of too much goodness; and that a man who is not practical is not educated. A single flaw in character may bring to ruin the most brilliant graduate of a university

Men fail in life because of the want of habits of industry, truthfulness, honesty and self-control. It is the province of the school to cultivate such habits. The teacher who is successful in character building (Chapter VI.) gives a practical education. The man who is not "practical" is the one who is not well balanced. The man who succeeds as a farmer, a mechanic, a merchant, or a teacher, is the one who is thoughtful. To train pupils to think aright is the function of the school. Pupils have no true conception of the responsibilities of life, unless they are filled with the desire to make the best use of their opportunities. This is an age of freedom and not one of caste.

"The example of men who have succeeded in business or who have risen to distinction may safely be held before pupils as an incentive to study. The teacher should show that even an ordinary laborer or a mechanic succeeds better when educated to some extent, and that educated business men of all kinds are those who are most successful, unless some weakness of character be present to prevent success. Educated men are the ones who are called upon to fill all important positions under the government. They are the men who take charge of our manufactories and railways, edit our newspapers, write our books, make our laws, preside over our courts, teach our schools, preach our sermons, and, in general, to do the important work of the world."—*Raub*.

7. **The Sense of Honor.**—A well-conducted school is marked by a high sense of honor. The pupils recognize the rights of one another, and the duties they owe to those older than themselves. The boys of an ordinary school have a greater regard for honor than is generally supposed. They love fair play and despise meanness. They are ready to assist those in difficulties, to act generously to their playmates, and to maintain the reputation of the school. Many a wayward boy has been led to reform by an appeal to his sense of honor.

Manliness should be approved. Credit should be given in a proper way to the pupil who has sufficient honor to resist temptations, and to make up his mind neither to falsify nor to act dishonestly. A good public spirit should be cultivated. The moral tone of a school is bad if the misdeeds of pupils are not condemned by the other members of their class.

"If the teacher does not find a healthy public opinion existing in his school—and he will not find it unless it has been expressly cultivated—he should set about creating it; with which view his course is plain. He is the centre of the little community; it is around his opinion that the public opinion must be formed. He should seek to unite the pupils in their regard for what is good, by drawing them all towards himself in feelings of personal regard; this will make them glad to look up to him as the source of opinion. When he shows himself earnest in this, the good pupils in the school will immediately respond to him; the others, if they resist at first, will soon come to acknowledge the new power, if not by acquiescence, at least by silence, and their number will gradually decrease."—*Currie*.

8. The Sense of Right.—The sense of right is a principle that is largely the result of training. The sin and crime of the world are due to the fact that other motives generally control the actions of people. The child is endowed with the power to perceive right and wrong, and though the impulse to act properly may be weak, it exists as an innate motive, and it may be strengthened by exercise. While the love of approbation, the desire for usefulness, and the other incentives already mentioned, may be used, the conscience is to be steadily but carefully addressed. For instance, if a pupil is induced to learn difficult lessons, he should gradually be led to appreciate more highly the approbation of his own conscience than the satisfaction arising from knowledge, efficiency or honor.

In dealing with the question of right or wrong, it is important to distinguish between acts that clearly are morally wrong and those which, though they may not be wrong in themselves, may be contrary to the interests of the school. Many things may be lawful which are not expedient. For instance, theft and whispering must not be treated alike; and truthfulness and industry will require different uses of the sense of right as an incentive. While the conscience needs to be trained, it is a mistake to depend on mere precepts or moral lessons. To induce moral dispositions and principles is more important than to give formal instruction in ethics. When pupils are ready to make sacrifices for what is right, much has been gained. After moral and intellectual strength has been acquired, the sense of right, rather than that of honor or the love of knowledge, may come to be the court of appeal in deciding matters pertaining to discipline.

9. The Sense of Duty.—The highest school incentive is the sense of duty, and the other motives should be used to promote its growth. Moral perfection is not approached until actions are uniformly performed with the highest object. The highest happiness is that which flows from the consciousness of having done our duty.

In the training of children the sense of duty must be cultivated, but it is a mistake to rely on it from the beginning. It is a blunder to appeal constantly to any high incentive before the child has acquired that knowledge and judgment which are necessary to give self-direction to his actions. The sense of duty is too abstract a term to be grasped by young pupils. The obligation arising from the will of the teacher must be very gradually transferred to law, so that they may recognize its binding nature irrespective of authority. A pupil cannot, without instruction,

be trained to act from a sense of duty. Explanations and illustrations from life are needed. As the feeling of duty is developed, it may be appealed to as a motive in discipline. It should not be forgotten, however, that even the best persons are not always influenced by the highest considerations, and therefore reliance should not be placed on the sense of duty beyond its proved strength.

The child should be taught to feel that he owes a duty to himself. He should be led to believe that character is worth more than position, wealth or reputation, and that conduct, which Matthew Arnold says "is three-fourths of life," is determined by the motives that induce actions. Every pupil should be filled with the desire to make the best of life, and with this object to make the best use of his opportunities.

"The sense of duty implies not only the perception but the feeling of an obligation to pay what is due or owed. It is the most imperative of all the motives. What a man ought to do—whether to himself, to others, to society, or to God—that he is bound to do; and there is no escape from the obligation. Coleridge truly calls the imperative *ought* 'the last word in the vocabulary of duty.'"—*White*.

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CHAPTER X.

PUNISHMENTS.

Need of Punishments.—Law is useless unless it is observed. Obedience to authority is essential to good government. Lawlessness would prevail were every individual allowed, without restraint, to exercise his own self-will. Discipline in school requires that pupils should be brought under control, so far as possible, by means of such incentives as have been mentioned (Chapter IX.). When these fail, appeal must be made to the sense of fear, through the apprehension of mental or physical pain. Whatever moral suasion may accomplish in the home, it is insufficient alone in the government of the State or in the discipline of the school. Children hardened by neglect, evil surroundings, and parental mismanagement, will be little influenced by the higher motives. Something more than precept and example will be found necessary to quicken the conscience in the case of children in whose breasts the desire to do right has been imperfectly implanted. The teacher has not always the time, even had he the gift, to restrain refractory pupils by expostulation. Instances will arise when warnings and reproofs will remain unheeded, unless pupils know, if regulations are set at defiance, there may follow punishment—"short, sharp, and decisive." Some children would, moreover, feel themselves bored if a moral lecture were inflicted on them whenever they did wrong. Less and less should punish-

ment be needed as the teacher gains more experience. At length conscience should assert its supremacy, punishment should become rare in discipline, and the constant performance of duty should result in the habit of doing right.

Basis of Punishment.—The basis of punishment, as an expedient in school control, is the feeling of bodily or mental discomfort which accompanies its infliction. Pupils are led to take a certain course in order to avoid pain. When certain lines of conduct—as for example, inactivity, carelessness, untruthfulness or dishonesty—are seen to be followed by reproof and by punishment, if repeated, the child tends to act so as to avoid the pain and discomfort resulting from such conduct. Punishments come, therefore, under the same form of stimulus to activity as rewards. There is this difference: Rewards are a recognition of merit and success; punishments are penalties for neglect and failure. Rewards, if of a proper kind, associate both teacher and pupil in a bright and hopeful regard. Punishments tend to weaken that bond of good feeling which should be strengthened, as well as formed, between the teacher and the taught. Punishments should be temporary. Rewards should be lasting. In a well-disciplined school approval, sympathy, regard and happiness will be at a premium; while punishments, regrets, sorrows and tears will be at a discount. Love, and not fear, will be the active force.

The Ends of Punishments.—1. The main object of punishment is to reform the wrong-doer. The State deals with adults, and hence punishment by the civil authority in its relations to the criminal is retributive and not necessarily corrective. It is possible more intelligent and humane views on criminology may cause nations to amend their penal laws with the object of making punishments

more reformatory than at present. The school deals with children, and therefore school punishments, while they may be incidentally retributive, should be mainly reformatory. The main question with the teacher before inflicting deserved punishment should be, "What good will it do?" If he were sure the guilty pupil would never again willingly or carelessly do the wrong, the best way would be to forgive. Once the necessity of punishment is established, the specific kind, the amount, the time, and the mode of punishment, demand careful consideration. It should be remembered that punishment alone can never effect what is required. The wish to do better must be an outcome of the pain felt, or else the punishment fails in its object. The use of incentives must follow the infliction of punishments, or the desire to do right will be weak.

2. Punishment should serve as a warning to others. This is the primary object of the State when adults are punished. The protection of society is that which is held mainly in view. The obligations of the school do not rest with the wrong-doer. It must have in view the interests of all the pupils, and therefore punishments should deter others from becoming offenders. By punishments other pupils are restrained or warned. As a consequence wrongdoing is lessened and law respected. Before inflicting punishment it becomes important for the teacher to ask, "What will be the effect on the school?" If the punishment is deserved, but the warning not needed, there may be no necessity for its use, as the wrong-doer may be reformed in some other way.

3. Punishment should serve to elevate the moral tone of the school. The moral tone of society is low when statutes are not passed to prevent prevalent crimes, or when crimes go unpunished. Public sentiment is embodied in

legislative enactments. The nature of the criminal laws of a country shows the moral judgment of the people. It is an evidence of progress when efforts are made by law to check an evil. Those who claim that "people cannot be made good by Act of Parliament" forget that statutes may be wisely passed to quicken the public conscience. When the violators of law receive punishment, what was once permissible, and perhaps respectable, becomes disgraceful and criminal. A law to prevent intemperance is a case in point.

Unless the teacher possesses such powers of discipline as will enable him to use the higher incentives, he will find it necessary to adopt some kinds of punishment to quicken the consciences of the pupils. There is danger, however, in giving much prominence to this, the third end, of punishment, lest the end may be made an excuse for its frequent use. As an instrument to educate the conscience, its use should, at best, be only temporary. The lawless and disobedient may need severe lessons to make them realize the culpability of their conduct, but the *morale* of an ordinary school should not need such educational processes.

Misconceptions Considered.—1. *Punishments should not be vindictive.* They should not be regarded as an expiation of guilt. It is too often assumed that the object of the penalty is the vindication of violated law. This assumption has given rise to the misconception that each transgression should be followed by its appropriate penalty. It is wrong to assume that a penalty, though deserved, should be inflicted. A pupil should never feel that the punishment he suffers has cleared off all scores for his crime. It should be understood that the pain inflicted is the means, but not the end, of punishment. To avenge the past, or to "settle an account," should have no place in discipline. It should not be forgotten

that the function of a teacher as a judge, or an administrator, though important, is subordinate to his higher function as a reformer. In the capacity of a legislator, a judge, and an executive officer, the higher purposes of the missionary, the physician, and the leader, must be kept in view. His duty is not to avenge, but to cure ; not simply to reward or punish, but to form character. He must have heart as well as head. He must be just, considerate and sympathetic, as well as strict, firm and determined.

(2) Punishments should not be arbitrary. Formerly it was no uncommon thing for children to be whipped for whispering, making a mistake in a recitation, coming late to school, neglecting to write a composition, or breaking by accident a pane of glass. Threats, scoldings, blows, personal indignities, and bodily tortures of various kinds, were used as punishments without discrimination and without any regard to the principle involved. One pupil does not know his lesson, and his ears are boxed ; another tears his book, and his hands are strapped ; another talks too loudly, and he is required to put on the dunce's cap ; still another is impertinent, and he is compelled to write out several pages from a book !

Children punished in this way fail to see any logical connection between the offence and the punishment. Their feelings of justice are outraged, and all sense of moral distinctions becomes obliterated from their minds. It is evident motives, the magnitude of the offence, and the object to be sought, should be considered. The pupil who interrupts the class, the one who destroys property, and the one who is untruthful, require different kinds of discipline. Dishonesty, truancy, quarrelsomeness, rebellion, and idleness, call for different modes of correction.

(3) Punishments should not be the same for pupils of different ages, different dispositions, or different attainments.

The physical, intellectual and moral development of the child must be considered in determining the degree and nature of the penalty. In the infant stages authority and love must hold pre-eminence. The punishments should, therefore, be prompt, and as a matter of course they should be very light. When the power of reflection and reason enable the pupil to anticipate the full consequences of his actions, the nature of punishments, like that of rewards, must change with his intellectual growth. With older pupils time for deliberation may be essential, and the purpose sought should not only be to reform the offender, but also to warn other pupils.

"Those therefore that intend ever to govern children, should begin it whilst they are very little; and look that they perfectly comply with the will of their parents. Would you have your son obedient to you when past a child? Be sure then to establish the authority to the father as soon as he is capable of submission and can understand in whose power he is. If you would have him stand in awe of you, imprint it in his infancy; and, as he approaches more to a man, admit him nearer to your familiarity; so shall you have him your obedient subject (as is fit) whilst a child, and your affectionate friend when he is a man."—*Locke*.

Characteristics of Proper Punishments.—1. Punishments should be natural. This will be understood more fully after dealing with the "Discipline of Consequences." It is a fundamental principle of Divine rule, or Nature's government, that pain or loss follows the violation of law. A child should feel that each school offence has its proper penalty, which is the natural result of his own misconduct, and not the arbitrary exercise of power vested in the teacher. To deprive a child of his knife because he carelessly cuts another, to put a pupil in a lower class as a

consequence of his idleness, to compel one who breaks a school-fellow's slate to pay for it, and to require a boy who insults a stranger to make a suitable apology, would be to impose in each case a natural punishment. On the other hand, to flog a pupil for lateness, irregularity of attendance, or idleness, or to impose tasks as a penalty for whispering or inattention, would be to use a punishment not natural, but entirely artificial. Natural punishments are seemingly retributive, but they are mainly corrective. They appeal to a pupil's sense of right, and are free from the degrading results of punishments formerly inflicted by teachers. It is evident experience and judgment are needed in the selection of proper punishments.

2. Punishments should be certain. Spasmodic discipline produces the most injurious effects on child-nature. The penalty should depend on the offence and not on the capricious temper of the teacher. The offender who feels that detection is sure, and punishment inevitable, may be restrained from transgression. When a pupil begins to count the chances of escape from being detected in his wrong-doing, he is on the road to a life of crime. Children should have confidence in the integrity and uprightness of the teacher. They should also know that he has ability to detect and punish crime. The certainty of punishment does not imply any slavish uniformity in imposing penalties. Obedience must, however, be sure, whether it is secured by high incentives, or, if necessary, by unavoidable punishments. The freedom of the teacher in matters of discipline must not be restrained by prescribing a code for his guidance.

3. Punishments should be just. A child's sense of justice is outraged if a punishment is inflicted that is cruel or unnatural. All semblance of undue severity should be

avoided. Whatever savors of ill-temper, or brutality, is to be unsparingly condemned. It is not the amount of pain inflicted, but the effect produced on the character of the child, that is the important consideration. Punishment should not be greater than is needed to reform the wrong-doer, or to serve as a warning to others. Justice requires that the age, sex, disposition and health of the offending pupil must be regarded.

4. Punishments should be deliberate. Anger or haste should be absent. Only in rare cases should a child be punished on the spur of the moment. There should be time for reflection. If guilt is not clear, time should be taken to secure proper evidence before a verdict is given. When guilt is established it will often be wise to consider all the circumstances carefully before the kind and amount of punishment are announced. The motive of the offender, his age, his disposition, his character, and the probable effect on the school, have to be kept in view. Doubtless occasions will arise when the teacher, who manages a school like the statesman who directs the affairs of the nation, must act with promptness as well as with courage and wisdom. On such occasions presence of mind is needed, and especially that tact which enables the good disciplinarian to use, at the time, necessary punishment, or to defer action, if preferable, until there is time for deliberation.

5. Punishments should be effective. Unless the ends of punishment are gained, more harm than good may arise. If the penalty is too mild it may be treated with laughter or contempt. If it is too severe the spirit of the child may be broken or his disposition otherwise prejudicially affected. Sham punishments are ridiculous and harmful. Unjust ones foster feelings of resentment. The effectiveness, as well as the appropriateness, of the different kinds

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of punishment should be understood. The teacher must be careful not to estimate the culpability of a pupil by the amount of annoyance given. A child should clearly understand why he is punished. If he honestly believes he is innocent the penalty should not be imposed. The greatest care must be taken to prevent feelings of anger being cherished towards the teacher. A kind word subsequently uttered may show that malice is not entertained. Reconciliation should not be delayed, nor should pupils be continually reminded of their misdeeds. Punishment should never tend to lessen the power of that sympathy, good example, and love, which should be the controlling influences exercised by the teacher.

The Discipline of Consequences.—For many school offences there are punishments which are the natural consequences of the offences themselves. A pupil who injures some part of the school property is required to repair the damage. One who disturbs his neighbor should sit elsewhere. One who quarrels on the play-ground should be deprived of recess. On the same principle falsehood should be followed by loss of confidence; abuse of the privileges of the school, by suspension; and open rebellion, by expulsion. Some faults, again, are best corrected by exercising their opposite virtues. For example, a slovenly boy may, for a time, be assigned the duty of neatly arranging the school apparatus; the use of politeness may cause a rough-spoken pupil to change his manner; restlessness may be checked by giving constant occupation.

In the "Discipline of Consequences," as set forth by Herbert Spencer and other writers, right conceptions of cause and effect are generated. It is held that authority, as a principle of discipline, does not produce a correct standard of moral action, and that it does not prepare

4m { 1. Natural & effective
 2. Aliminate feelings & sentiments
 3. Prepare for after life
 Against { 1. Not sure for children
 (2) Not always proved
 (3) Not utilitarian

pupils for active life when removed from the restraints of parents and teachers. A violation of physical, intellectual, or moral law, has its peculiar and inevitable penalty. Such violations and such penalties are seen all around us. If a man leaps from a house-top, exposes himself to cold, breathes impure air, eats unwholesome food, neglects exercise, or disregards any other law of nature, he receives a punishment which is the direct consequence of his conduct. If any one of the intellectual faculties is neglected, or its power over-taxed, the penalty must be paid. In like manner any violation of the moral law brings its own punishment. The thief, the slanderer, the drunkard, the gambler, all carry in their bosoms the pain consequent on wrong-doing. The prodigal wastes his substance, and feeds on husks; the miser gloats over his gold, and his soul shrivels up; and the hardened sinner resists all "strivings of the Spirit," and he is abandoned in his hopeless lot. The law of nature is certain, but as Huxley remarks, it is "harsh and wasteful in its operation. Ignorance is visited as sharply as wilful disobedience; incapacity meets with the same punishment as crime. Nature's discipline is not even a word and a blow, and the blow first; but the blow without the word. It is left to you to find out why your ears are boxed." It is just here that the function of the school is apparent. It is the duty of the teacher to train his pupils so that their ears may be saved from being "boxed" when school life is over.

It is evident no training is effective that does not draw attention to the evil consequences of wrong-doing. Practical educationists are right in urging that in schools should be taught the evils of idleness, untruthfulness, intemperance, profligacy, and dishonesty. Such teaching is valuable, but it is not enough. Natural punishments

are too weak for the purposes of the State, and to depend on them solely would be fatal to the moral training of children. Society is justified in adopting measures to protect itself, and artificial penalties are found sharper and more effective than natural ones. The defects of human nature cannot be ignored. In the case of children natural punishments are generally too severe. At an early age, to depend on the "discipline of consequences" would be cruel. To exercise authority, and prevent the child from going near the fire, is better than to run the risk of having the child burned.

"It is clear," says Crichton Browne, "that the system of natural consequences cannot be solely trusted to. Misbehavior is not always followed by disagreeable natural consequences that are capable of interpretation at that early age, and artificial penalties must be employed to establish the all-important association between pain and transgression, and to secure that submission which is the essence of discipline. To wait for the teaching of natural consequences, would often be to permit the moral nature to run wild, and to entail much suffering which might have been spared by mild but timely punishment of human imposition."

If all parents were sufficiently wise in the training of their children, no competent teacher would have any difficulty in discipline. It will be a long time, however, before the majority of parents will have much scientific acquaintance with the mental development of children. The professional ability of teachers, though improving, is not yet equal to the requirements for governing defectively-trained pupils. Until teachers of higher attainments are found in schools, punishments that are artificial, arbitrary, harsh, and even debasing, may be expected.

"It must however, be conceded that the successful administration of a system of natural punishment, in the family or in the school, requires higher qualifications in the governor than an artificial system. Any parent or teacher can slap, shake, or whip a child. This requires only impulse and muscle; but it requires self-control, firmness, patience, ingenuity, and sympathy to suppress the impulse to strike the offender, and effectually to enforce natural penalties.

"The experience of the schools shows that, as teachers increase in skill and personal influence, mild and natural punishments are found to be more and more effective; and this indicates that all beneficent reforms in school discipline necessarily wait on the improvement of the teachers."—*White*.

Judicious Punishments.—Judicious punishments work in children a love for the right and a hatred for the wrong. They lead to the formation of correct habits, enlist the sympathy of the well-behaved members of the class, help to form a good public opinion, and command the approval of parents and trustees. It should be understood, however, that even the best punishments may be abused. A few that may be effective, if used judiciously, are here considered:

1. *Loss of Honor.*—Idleness, indifference, and disregard of the rights of others, are justifiable grounds for the withdrawal of the teacher's esteem. If a pupil is insolent, insubordinate or careless, he is not retained on the same terms of cordial friendship as before. Severer punishments may also be necessary. The estrangement, through loss of honor, if effective, must be felt in order to evoke signs of sorrow. Any indications of a desire for amendment and reconciliation must be carefully noticed and wisely stimulated.

2. *Reproof.* *General reproof* is the mildest in its nature, and, in the hands of a good disciplinarian, it is usually effective. The mere mention of the offence before the class, and the opinion suggested in some cases that the

act was not done willingly, may be sufficient, without mentioning any name. The teacher will be respected all the more for showing his regard for the feelings of the guilty one. The other pupils are ready to condemn the crime without having their attention drawn to the criminal. The words used should show kindness, and will be more effective if uttered in a subdued tone of voice.

Private reproof may be necessary when a general reference to the offence will fail. A private interview, in which the evil consequences of wrong-doing were pointed out in kind language by a noble-minded teacher, has sometimes been a bright turning-point in the career of a pupil. A talk in this way with erring pupils convinces them of the friendship of the teacher, assures them of his efforts to save them from trouble, and encourages them to strive to reform. A boy's heart must be very flinty if it cannot be softened by kind, gentle, and affectionate advice.

Pupils should be expected to make any necessary reparation for injury done, and to apologize privately or publicly, as the circumstances require. Forced apologies do little good.

Public reproof should be administered only when the guilt is of the gravest possible nature. It is a cruel thing to break down the self-respect of a sensitive pupil. If the punishment is unjust, it lowers the teacher in the estimation of his class. Circumstances may, however, arise when discipline demands this mode of punishment. The public opinion of the school is powerful as a controlling agency. Cases may occur when the position of the teacher can be appreciated only by a public statement, in order that the offender may be corrected, and the honor of the school upheld. Censure should be used very carefully, and ridicule avoided when reproof is given. A little good-humored

satire may sometimes be required to lessen exaggerated self-esteem, and to lower the vanity of a pupil.

"Many teachers find the most effective form of censure to be a sharp, reproving glance of the eye; this is a valuable mode of correction, because it does not interrupt the progress of the work of the class as a whole; it is effective as an individual reproof, and is a sufficient reminder in cases where momentary inattention or neglect is manifest in an otherwise industrious scholar."—*Cowham*.

3. Loss of Privileges.—Privations are the natural penalties of abused privileges. This mode of punishing, if wisely employed, works marvellous results in silently, slowly, but surely teaching the pupil to govern himself. A pupil who is irregular in attendance, inattentive to his work, or given to disturb the class, may be dismissed from the recitation, may forfeit his seat, or may be placed in a lower division. A boy may be deprived of recess for being rough on the play-ground to the other pupils, or for coming late to his place when intermission is over. Every pupil should realize that his privileges are conditional on the maintenance of good conduct. In a well-disciplined school the removal of a pupil to a lower class should be a penalty sufficiently severe for any serious delinquency. An experienced and judicious teacher can make this mode of punishment invariably effective. A pupil degraded in this way should be reinstated as soon as signs of repentance justify. A young teacher, however, should be cautious in adopting this mode of controlling pupils. In the hands of a person of good-governing power, it may be utilized to secure application to study, to preserve order, and to command obedience to authority.

4. Suspension.—This is the climax to loss of privileges. Extreme caution is needed in its use. A resort to this penalty is either an acknowledgment of the teacher's

inability to govern, or an announcement of the parent's defective training of the child. There is a danger that the public, and especially the parent, may ascribe the blame to the teacher. Frequent suspensions are an evidence of weak governing power. In very few cases will parents, if spoken to, refuse to co-operate with the teacher in controlling their children. If a pupil deserves suspension, a talk with the parent will often enable the teacher to dispose of the matter in some better way. It is generally wiser and more expedient to place a pupil deserving suspension in a lower class. This course may be equally effective, and it is fully within the rights of the principal, who is responsible for the organization and discipline of the school. The offender gets a chance to improve by cultivating the habit of self-control. Public discussion is perhaps avoided, as the matter is not necessarily noticed by trustees, and the pupil is not withdrawn from the teacher's good influence and authority. A good administrator takes care that matters pertaining to organization and discipline are not forced upon the attention of the Board. Trustees may be warm friends of education, but ability to judge how teachers should govern pupils is not one of their essential qualifications.

Young pupils should not be suspended. They need to be controlled in school. If older pupils—High School pupils—will not submit to the requirements of the school they should be deprived of its privileges. Suspension, if the method already mentioned will not answer, should be used. The authority of the teacher must be maintained. Rebellion cannot be tolerated. With an efficient executive officer at the head of a High School, and a good staff of assistants, there seldom should be any need of severe punishment. Suspension should not be employed without

careful deliberation. The case should be clear. It would be a mistake to suspend a pupil if the public opinion of the school is not with the teacher. The provisions of the law (See Appendix), if suspension is decided on, should be observed. Expulsion rests with the Board. Unless a serious wrong has been committed, the parent will do his child an injustice if he appeals to the trustees. The trustees should hesitate to take any action that would lessen the influence of the teacher over his pupils.

Injudicious Punishments.—There are several kinds of punishments which appeal to wrong motives, and fail to excite a desire to do right or to secure obedience in a way that develops character. Any penalty that does not recognize the true basis or well-understood characteristics of punishments, is bad in its results. Some of the common kinds of injudicious punishments will be considered:

1. *Cruel Punishments.* These are inhuman, and have almost disappeared from the school-room. Such barbarous methods as holding up weights, standing on one foot, kneeling in uncomfortable positions, having the hair or ears pulled, or the arms pinched, are tortures of more than a generation ago. The professional training now demanded of teachers in this country saves children from the indignities of such evil practices.

2. *Opprobrious Epithets.* To call a pupil a liar, a thief, a blockhead, a dunce, a coward, or a knave, is next to a crime. Unjust and unkind words often sting deeply and rankle in the child's mind long after the event is forgotten by the teacher. No teacher who uses epithets of this kind should be allowed to hold a position.

3. *Ridicule and Sarcasm.* This mode of punishment creates fear and timidity, causes mortification and pain, and may leave wounds that are a hindrance to that

good relationship which should exist between teacher and pupil. The man who desires to influence pupils for good is not anxious to make a "hard case" wince. He prefers to manage his school in such a way as to have memories of pupils he encouraged by firm and kind language. It is no comfort to a man of fine sentiment to feel that pupils were badgered and brought to time by his withering sarcasm and stern invective. It is possible a teacher of high qualifications may use a little good-natured ridicule without danger, but the practice of "sneering" does much harm.

4. *Nagging.* The habit of constant fault-finding grows on some teachers. A sour, whining, threatening, spiteful, dyspeptic person is not fit to manage children. To gnaw pupils by the everlasting rasping of a scolding tongue, until they grow callous to reproof, is foolish and cowardly. The unhappy child who is treated in this way is inclined to think the teacher is "picking" at him, and is often ready to talk back in self-defence.

5. *Shame.* To hold a pupil up to public scorn is irrational in principle, and should be obsolete in practice. Such devices as "fools' caps" and "dunces' seats" have happily become extinct. A teacher who appeals to a pupil's sense of honor as an incentive will seldom find an appeal to shame as a punishment necessary. Doubtless there are moral offences where shame may be used if wisdom is employed in its use. In such cases it will be found that the sense of honor exists. It has little value upon hardened offenders.

6. *Keeping in.* Detention after school hours is an injudicious mode of punishment that is not yet abandoned in some places. It may be necessary to have pupils remain for purposes of enquiry regarding discipline, or to detain

them in order to assign lessons or to give assistance. Matters of this kind should not require much time. The teacher has a legal right to detain pupils a reasonable time after four o'clock for any object he may deem fit; but he mistakes the intentions of the law if he supposes that he has a claim upon the time of children for an hour or more after the school-day. To detain pupils in order to have them make up for lost time, to cause them to attend to unprepared lessons, or to pay a penalty for idleness or insubordination, seldom does good. Many experienced teachers, who once tried this kind of punishment, have no faith in its efficacy as an instrument of government. It loses its value when it becomes a practice. It punishes the teacher as well as the pupils, and never increases their esteem for him or their love for the school.

7. *Tasks.* No pupil should ever be asked to study a lesson for misconduct. The punishment is unnatural. There is usually no connection between it and the offence. To require a delinquent pupil to write out a number of words, to commit to memory a piece of poetry, to solve some questions in arithmetic, to construct a map, or to learn verses of Scripture, as a punishment, is to associate unpleasant memories with learning, and to regard as a disagreeable task that which should be a pleasant duty.

"What is this but to reveal that you think learning a lesson is a kind of penal servitude? And this is a thing we should never tacitly admit. First, because it ought not to be true; and secondly, because it will soon become true if you show that you believe it to be so. Of course, this remark does not apply to the making up for some neglect by finishing a lesson in play hours. It is a legitimate thing, if a duty of any kind is not performed at the proper time, to insist on its finished performance before the scholar begins to enjoy his leisure."—*Fitch.*

8. *Demerit Marks.* The moral standing of a child cannot be expressed by percentages. Pupils of rough disposition care little for demerit marks, but with those of gentle nature delicacy of feeling and self-respect may be sacrificed by their use for a temporary advantage. A report to parents may, in some cases, if put in general terms, do good. To give prominence before the class to the bad record of the pupil generally does harm. The person who is continually registering the mistakes made by pupils during the recitations may become expert in the art of recording, but not skilful in the art of teaching.

To save time the "self-reporting" system is sometimes adopted. Pupils are asked to tell how many times they whispered, how many mistakes they made in a lesson, and how many times they were reprimanded. The practice exposes children to strong temptation to be deceitful, untruthful and dishonest. The dishonest pupil has the advantage. While merit marks may be used in some cases as an incentive, demerit marks as a punishment will generally prove injudicious. The old system of having a "peg" to indicate daily the standing of each pupil in the class is at variance with modern ideas of discipline.

Corporal Punishment.—This mode of punishment merits special consideration. In extreme cases it is justifiable, but no kind of punishment is more frequently used injudiciously or has been more productive of trouble in discipline.

1. There are certain forms of vice which can be reached in no other way. In the case of disease it is often necessary to inflict temporary pain by means of medicine or a surgical instrument. The state of a child is a diseased one when bodily punishment is needed. Corporal punish-

ment has no virtue, only as a means of producing in the mind of the offender that train of thought which works the required reform. Page, Horace Mann, as well as most modern educators, hold that corporal punishment in school cannot be entirely dispensed with until we have ideal disciplinarians and an ideal state of society.

"This kind of punishment, provided always that it is not too often administered, or with undue severity, is the proper way of dealing with wilful defiance, with obstinate carelessness, or with a really perverted will, so long or so often as the higher perception is closed against appeal."—*Rosenkranz*.

2. The objections to the use of corporal punishment are numerous. It degrades the sufferer and diminishes the self-respect which is so powerful an agent in all moral reformation. If used much it is certain to be abused. It creates a feeling of estrangement, stirs up malign thoughts, depresses timid natures, and hardens pupils that are wilfully disobedient. It leads to the neglect of proper school incentives, and has a degrading influence on the teacher. That it is objectionable is shown by the fact that good teachers seldom resort to it. A teacher who uses it for years is lowered in his own estimation. He feels mean, and his finer feelings are blunted.

3. Only for serious offences should corporal punishment be used. Wilful disobedience or rebellion may necessitate this means of correction. The obstinacy of some children may be constitutional, and may be partly physical and partly mental, and such obstinacy may be made worse by strong measures. The evils of such a disposition may often be mitigated by a continued course of mild treatment. In the case of most children obstinacy is the result of bad treatment. A child should never be struck for inadvertences, for faults of forgetfulness, for irritability and carelessness, or

for petty irregularities. Whispering, inattention, errors in answering, neglect of home lessons, or indifference to study very seldom become so grave as to warrant the use of the rod. Corporal punishment is a coarse remedy, and has no place in school, except for the coarse sin of a pupil's animal nature. Conduct that is grossly immoral or debasing, such as the use of profane or obscene language, should be met by prompt punishment; but if the pupils are old enough to attend a High School, suspension may be the most effective remedy.

4. It is unfortunate when trustees lay down rules to restrict the teachers in the use of corporal punishment. Any limitation necessary should come from the principal. Weak health, in any of its forms, should be sacred from the touch of the rod. Rashness and indiscretion in its use may injure children of vigorous health. Indiscriminate beating may lead to bodily and mental injury, and expose the teacher himself, beyond hope of satisfactory defence, to public reprobation, if not to legal penalty. Too often a teacher, who is determined "to conquer" a disobedient pupil, is insensibly drawn into a contest, in which he sacrifices every consideration of dignity, and fails to subdue, except by brute force.

5. A pupil should rarely be punished on the spur of the moment, or when the teacher is angry. The punishment should seldom be administered in the presence of the other children. Except in extreme cases, assistants would show wisdom by not punishing a pupil until the principal is consulted. Whenever corporal punishment is used in school, a record should be kept of the circumstances. The nature of the crime, the name of the offender, and the date of the punishment should be stated, so that if the teacher's judgment is called in question, a reference to the

facts will be available. If these precautions are taken, there will be fewer appeals to this means of upholding authority. A small rod or a light strap is all that is needed. A pupil who deserves the application of a heavier instrument should be suspended, and not flogged. In no instance should the head be struck. It is a degradation to a teacher to expect him to whip a large pupil. In the case of a small one, a few slaps on the hands should suffice. Deliberation should precede punishment. In no case should the teacher allow his temper to determine the time and amount of the punishment.

6. The teacher stands *in loco parentis*, and therefore has a legal right to resort to such methods of discipline as would be used by a kind, firm and judicious parent. Teachers are sometimes brought rather hastily before a magistrate for punishing a child too severely, and too often magistrates have shown little consideration for the teachers' difficulties. In view of such possibilities, every teacher who finds it necessary to have recourse to this kind of punishment should use every precaution to prevent himself from being found guilty of severity, or even indiscretion. Canadian law is substantially the same on the question of corporal punishment as English law, and the latter is thus defined by Chief Justice Cockburn :

"By the law of England a parent or a schoolmaster, who, for his purpose, represents the parent, and has parental authority delegated to him, may, for the purpose of correcting what is evil in the child, inflict moderate and reasonable punishment ; always, however, with this condition, that it is moderate and reasonable. If it be administered for the gratification of passion or of rage, or if it be immoderate and excessive in its nature and degree, or if it be protracted beyond the child's power of endurance, or inflicted with an instrument unfitted for the purpose and calculated to produce danger to life and limb, in all such cases the punishment is excessive, the violence is unlawful."

7. Corporal punishment is not essential to good government, but the power to appeal to its use should not be taken away from the teacher. If wisely trained from infancy, a child will scarcely be able to call to mind any time when he was whipped. The child who is properly controlled by parental firmness, parental affection, and parental wisdom will not, when old enough to go to school, disobey father, mother, or teacher. To get along without using corporal punishment should be the aim of every teacher who has a high ideal of his calling. Many, who at first used this mode of controlling children, have trained themselves to dispense with it entirely. Some of the best teachers of graded Public Schools find it unnecessary for the more advanced classes. An appeal to it in the discipline of many High Schools is almost unknown. In the best of these institutions the experience and high qualifications of the principals are sufficient to secure easy control, by means of the judicious punishments already mentioned if the best kind of incentives to right action should fail.

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CHAPTER XI.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

Nature of Organization.—School organization is a system of arrangements that is designed to secure constant employment, efficient instruction, and good discipline. Its object is to enable teachers and pupils to do the most effective work with the least friction and in the shortest possible time. It is the purpose of organization to put children in their proper classes, to secure to each subject the time due to its importance, and to place each teacher where his work will be best performed.

In the organization of a school the interests of the scholars must be the first consideration. These interests will require a wise course of study to be prescribed, suitable accommodations and appliances to be provided, and such a distribution of the teacher's time to be made as will enable each pupil to be profitably employed. If the work is systematized and all the machinery of the school arranged to do the work of teaching efficiently, the control of the pupils will be more satisfactorily secured, and the training will become more effective.

Advantages of Classification.—Classification enables the teacher to estimate the progress of his pupils, to economize his time and labor, to evoke the intelligence and activity of each scholar, and to make special preparation for the work of each day. It supplies the means of increasing the efficiency of instruction, of finding constant

and suitable employment for each pupil, of establishing easy control, and of preserving order and decorum. Classification stimulates pupils, as the competition of those in the same division is an incentive to exertion. It cultivates greater attention among pupils, and where the class is large enough, a good teacher receives inspiration and arouses enthusiasm.

In a school where the pupils are well classified they aid the teacher by assisting one another during the recitation. It is well-known by educators that the presentation of new matter, first by the teacher, then by the apt scholar, and finally by the less successful pupil, is a repetition that does not weary, but becomes a direct gain to the permanence of the knowledge imparted. When the slower pupils are called upon to answer questions, their ability to do so avoids the necessity of further tests. When the more deficient members of the group are looked after, the apt and more industrious pupils will take care of themselves. If the classification is bad, or if individual instruction is depended upon, there is a lack of enthusiasm, much time is wasted, and the government is defective.

Difficulties of Classification.—A perfect classification of the pupils of a school is impossible. It cannot be attained so long as pupils differ in natural ability, physical strength, home advantages, and purposes in life. The limited period of school life, irregularity of attendance, the admission of pupils after the term has begun, the existence of optional courses of study, and the lack of a sufficient number of teachers, are difficulties in the way of an ideal classification. Obstacles are also presented by the great number of subjects to be taken up in small schools, by differences in the progress made by many pupils in different branches, and by the necessity of giving some recognition to the age and size of children.

Grades of Schools.—Schools are organized with reference to the periods of development in human life. In a national system of education, which recognizes no class distinctions, there is little overlapping of courses of study. Each grade or period has well-defined characteristics. The kinds of schools, the nature of the discipline, and the qualifications of the teachers, are determined by the wants of the different stages of physical and mental growth. (See Appendix, Courses of Study.)

From the third or fourth year to the sixth or seventh the child is trained in such a way at the kindergarten as to develop healthy, vigorous physical growth. Here happy childhood is realized, right habits are cherished, helpful emotions are tenderly fostered, and hurtful feelings are gently repressed. When admitted to the elementary classes of the Public School his restless activities must be rooted in right habits, his knowledge of nature must be extended, and a love for learning must be cultivated. He learns to read, to write and to have some idea of number. His physical well-being is promoted, his intellect is sharpened, and gentle manners and good morals become a part of his nature. As he passes to more advanced classes he enters upon a larger and even happier life. The wonder-worlds of science, history and literature begin to open to his mind, his language faculty is constantly developed, and his reasoning powers have made considerable progress. By the time he reaches his thirteenth or fourteenth year he is ready to enter the High School. A broader curriculum is now taken up. Self-control develops rapidly under a system of good government. Instead of a single teacher, he is instructed by several, who are, perhaps, specialists in their own departments. At the age of seventeen or eighteen he enters upon his college or uni-

versity course. Here he is left more than ever before to his own efforts. He reaches the highest steps of the educational ladder with, it is presumed, extensive knowledge, much intellectual power, and habits well formed. He has also, perhaps, acquired a special acquaintance with some department of study, and his attainments and inclinations may have weight in pointing out his calling in life.

It is well that care should be taken to guard the transition periods of an educational course from their peculiar dangers. The teacher who receives the children from the kindergarten should have some knowledge of kindergarten methods. Pupils in the first form of the High School should have few teachers, and these teachers would be benefited by having had experience in teaching before entering upon High School duties. On similar grounds, the university professor will be more successful in controlling young college students, if he has taught a few years in a High School.

State Control.—In the interests of education there should be a judicious division of authority and responsibility between the State and the section or municipality. The selection of teachers and the expenditure to be incurred are matters for the locality concerned. The State should prescribe the course of study, decide what text-books are to be used, fix the qualifications of teachers and inspectors, and determine the duties of all school officers. If the schools are to be well organized and the pupils efficiently trained, the recognized features of good management must be guaranteed by law. Those principles of school organization that have been accepted as sound by the leading educationists of the country should be embodied in the statutes and regulations, and should

govern all school authorities. The removal of pupils from one locality to another, and the frequent changes of teachers, render it important that uniformity in the organization of the schools should be a marked feature of the educational system. This uniformity does not call for sameness in methods of teaching and discipline. It assumes, however, that there is a period where the High School work should begin, and another where it should end; it assumes also that the qualifications of teachers will be better, and the cost of text-books less to the people, when these matters are not left to each district to determine for itself.

Basis of Classification.—The general test of classification is, no doubt, the attainments of the pupils. These may be known from their record, or by means of a preliminary examination. The knowledge which a pupil has of the subjects taught, his intellectual power, his age, and his health, should receive consideration. When a pupil is backward in some subjects, though well up in others, it becomes necessary to balance contending claims. If there is any doubt regarding the class in which the pupil should be placed, it is better to put him too low than too high. To promote, if necessary, is an agreeable duty; to degrade is a hard and unpleasant task. A new teacher will do well to adopt the classification of his predecessor as a temporary arrangement. In this way he learns the ability of each pupil before a permanent organization is made, and saves himself from hastily making any changes that may turn out to be imprudent. The final classification should be so judicious that few readjustments have to be made. Any modifications should come only from promotions—it is not desirable to put pupils back except in clear cases of inattention to duty. It is evident that the organization of a

school or the classification of the pupils, is a comparatively simple matter in a country where the system of education is marked by uniformity. When there is variety in the courses and standards followed in different schools much time is lost, and much trouble arises whenever a change of teachers takes place.

Ungraded Schools.—Rural schools suffer much from frequent changes of teachers and from the employment of those who have little experience. There is a lack of wholesome competition among pupils of the higher classes, and the great number of lessons to be taught by each teacher is a serious drawback to effective work. These difficulties would not be so great if trustees realized the importance of securing teachers competent to look after a number of classes at the same time, and to inspire pupils with a love for work. It requires experience to learn how to keep several other classes profitably engaged while a class is taught a lesson.

A new teacher should, if possible, get a knowledge of the school before he enters upon his duties. The number of classes, the extent of the course taken up, the discipline and modes of teaching of previous teachers, the names of the pupils, and the views of the community, are matters that may be ascertained with advantage. Before he enters the school his plans should be ready. Nothing impresses children more favorably than to meet a new teacher who is ready for his duties. The first day is of great importance. A few cheering words of welcome to the pupils, and a request that they attend to certain work while he temporarily arranges the classes, will be received with favor. There must be no disposition shown to speak disparagingly of his predecessor's work. "How do you like your new teacher?" is a question likely to be asked

pupils when they reach home. The teacher who makes a good impression the first day has gained much.

No teacher can foresee all the difficulties with which he will have to contend. He cannot anticipate them by any perfect scheme of organization. His temporary arrangements should be carefully examined. He should make a thorough study of his pupils individually and collectively. He should find out their attainments in the different branches. Generally, reading and arithmetic will furnish a safe guide in estimating the ability of each pupil. It may be better not to take up every subject on the programme until the permanent organization is secured. Pupils should feel from the beginning that they have plenty to do. A teacher who has to take several days to settle down to work does not know the essential elements of school management. In less than a week he should understand fairly well what modifications are desirable in the classification. In matters of organization, hints from the inspector are always valuable to the beginner.

Graded Schools.—Graded schools are possible only in cities, towns and villages. Besides being more economical than ungraded schools, they have several advantages in the matter of efficiency. They are a saving of labor. The teacher in a rural school has from twenty to thirty separate classes in different subjects to look after, and perhaps only five or ten minutes to devote to many a recitation. He finds himself largely limited to the hearing of lessons. Individual instruction is often almost out of the question in an ungraded school, on account of the number of lessons to be taken each day. Individual instruction is too much neglected in graded schools, but this may be the fault of the teacher. It is a fact, however, that children learn more by class than by individual

instruction. Pupils are sometimes kept back in a graded school, and are forced to "mark time" until the dull ones are ready to advance. This is a result of bad classification, and not a fault of the system.

In a well-graded school the division of labor among the teachers increases their skill. The teaching is superior. The teacher can prepare himself better for his work. There is more ambition among the pupils, and hence a greater desire to excel and secure promotion. Among children in a graded school there is more activity to think and observe for themselves. Better organization secures better discipline. There result greater regularity of attendance, more punctuality, better order and more industry. The superiority of the moral training given in a graded school is clear as compared with what could be given in ungraded city schools. It should not be forgotten that the pupils of country schools are freed from many of the evil influences of those attending city schools. The country boy, in spite of the disadvantages of his school, often surpasses the city boy. This fact is an argument in favor of rural life, but not in favor of ungraded schools. It too often happens that too much assistance is given to pupils in graded schools. In rural schools pupils are obliged to depend much on their own efforts, and those who succeed generally acquire the valuable habit of self-reliance. Here, again, defective teaching in the graded school, and not the organization, is at fault. It is evident that in all matters pertaining to good teaching, good discipline and good training, the graded school is superior to the ungraded one. The objections to be guarded against are: Too little individual instruction, too much explanation to pupils, too much uniformity, and too great a tendency to sacrifice

the interests of backward children. All the assumed advantages of ungraded schools may be maintained in graded schools, and the noticeable defects of the latter are not necessarily associated with the system.

On grounds of efficiency, as well as of economy, the superiority of graded over ungraded schools is admitted by educationists. In the Eastern States graded schools have been adopted by many rural districts. Children are conveyed at the expense of the district to some central school in a village or town, where they have the advantages of an improved classification. In the evening they are conveyed back to their homes, where they retain the benefit of parental oversight and of country life.

Number of Grades.—The number of classes in a school will depend upon the number of pupils and the course to be taken up. An eight years' course may fairly represent the requirements for admission to a High School, and therefore a Public School with less than eight teachers will exhibit defects in the matter of classification. With ten or twelve grades in a school the opportunities are better for meeting the conditions arising from the differences in the ability of pupils. Subdivisions of the more elementary grades are desirable in some subjects, and it may be necessary to make promotions in the junior classes every half-year. A year at least under the same teacher is, as a rule, essential to the best discipline. In an ungraded school the curriculum may be the same as that of graded schools, but, for obvious reasons, the number of classes should be less.

It follows that a Public School which is so large as to render necessary a duplication of classes, is not free from objections. A school, for instance, that has two senior fourth book classes, doing exactly the same work, presents

no advantage in the matter of organization, as compared with one where there is a single class taking up the same part of the curriculum. The latter has superior advantages on grounds of discipline. Except as regards economy, two graded schools with ten teachers each are preferable to one with the same number of pupils and twenty teachers. A High School with about three hundred pupils, under eight or ten teachers, is sufficiently large for good work. No Principal of a High School should have a greater number of pupils than he can become acquainted with. To get well acquainted with his pupils he must teach every form or division some subject.

Size of Classes.—The size of classes will depend upon the ages of the pupils, the subject to be taught, the mode of conducting the recitation, and the skill of the teacher. Young children are best taught in small classes, but with advanced pupils larger groups are essential to effective instruction. A class should never be so large as to make it difficult to retain the attention of the pupils, or to gauge the progress of each.

Reading, Latin, etc., are best taught in groups of ten or a dozen. A much larger class is desirable in such subjects as history, geography, grammar, etc. If individual teaching is needed little can be accomplished in large classes. On the other hand, emulation and enthusiasm are wanting in small classes of advanced pupils. If explanations and illustrations constitute the plan of instruction, there is a loss of power and time in teaching a few. If the question method is adopted, pupils will be overlooked if the class is too large.

If the work is to be well done, only a very skilful teacher will be found competent to manage a class of more than forty pupils. In some subjects the number should be less.

When a class is too large there is much waste of energy. Much time is lost in keeping order. Careless pupils count the chances of escaping detection, and only some of the class receive the benefits of the teacher's instruction. A teacher of only average ability, who would fail with a class of forty, may do good work with a class of twenty.

High Schools.—In the organization of High Schools some of the difficulties to be met in the case of elementary schools do not arise. Other difficulties have, however, to be considered. These are such as result from a more advanced curriculum, an increased number of subjects, and the introduction of optional courses of study (See Course of Study). The division of the work among the members of the staff must be made on a different basis, and the special scholarship of each teacher has to be considered.

The classification of the pupils should depend mainly on their knowledge of the obligatory subjects. So far as possible each optional subject pursued by a pupil should be begun where it is prescribed in the course. As this is not always practicable, pupils will often be obliged to take the optional subjects in a higher or in a lower form than the one in which they are classified. In small High Schools care must be taken to prevent a multiplicity of classes. When the staff is large valuable improvements in the classification may be made. There may be three or four divisions of the pupils in each of the lower forms, each teacher may be limited in his duties to fewer subjects, and the optional subjects may present less difficulty in classification. The problem of organizing a High School is often a complicated one, and its solution demands much executive ability.

Mixed Classes.—Boys and girls are generally taught together until they reach the High School stage. In secondary schools co-education prevails in Canada and in

the United States, and gains ground in England. In Germany, and especially in France, it has not met with favor. Economical advantages had doubtless most weight at first in placing boys and girls in the same class. Experience has justified this departure from the former rule. The objections raised against mixed schools are well known. It is said a uniform discipline cannot be administered; that girls cannot stand the same strain as boys; that the courses of study should be different; and that girls, if taught with boys, become forward and self-assertive, and lose that innate modesty and delicacy of both feeling and action which should characterize the female sex. In opposition to this, it is held that discipline is better in mixed classes; that neither boys nor girls should be pressed with work beyond their physical strength, and that the principle of options meets this objection. It is, moreover, contended that the rudeness of boys is checked and the nervous timidity of girls is lessened by means of co-education; that the character of boys is refined and that of girls strengthened by the system; that the manners of both are improved; and that the traits to be desired in either sex cannot be cultivated except by the proper association of the one with the other.

It is after all a question of judicious management. Under a skilful teacher either system will exhibit good results. A man who is lacking in character and in powers of discipline will do more harm in mixed classes. One who has the qualifications of a scholarly and Christian gentleman will have greater opportunities for good in an institution where co-education is established. A High School, which has some lady teachers of high attainments, and such accommodations as guard the interests of discipline, and provide for a choice of options, will promote

most effectively the intellectual and moral training of both boys and girls, if the system of co-education is carried out in most of the classes.

The relative merits of male and female teachers have been much discussed. Objection has been made to the custom of giving gentlemen higher salaries than ladies for similar positions. It should be understood that "filling similar positions" does not prove that there is no difference between the training given by a man and that given by a woman. The question has its economical aspects, and supply and demand, rather than sentiment, must largely govern. The real object of the teacher's work is often lost sight of in the discussion. To impart knowledge, or to prepare pupils for examinations, is not the highest aim of the educationist, but to form character. In some positions a lady's influence is superior for this purpose to that of a gentleman. For young children a female teacher is assuredly preferable. In the case of grown-up boys, and even of girls, some valuable characteristics of training cannot be secured without those features of discipline which are exhibited by the best male teachers. It should also be remembered that even boys—and certainly girls—are improved by having in the High School one or more female teachers. A great mistake is made in supposing a girl should go to an institution where she will receive instruction only from ladies. No better kind of mental and moral development can be secured by a young woman than that which she may gain in the ordinary High School.

Manifold Classification.—When each subject taught in a school forms an independent basis of organization, the classification is termed *manifold*. It has the advantage of exactness and simplicity. There is a better chance for progress in the branches adapted to the individual tastes.

On the other hand, it presents enfeebled motives to exertion in those subjects where a pupil is weak. It leads to "lopsidedness." It renders necessary a rearrangement of the classes after every lesson, and in a graded school this would cause much trouble and disorder. In buildings arranged and schools organized on the Prussian or classroom plan, the manifold (*synchronous*) system of classification has some advantages. The benefits do not, however, make up for the inconveniences that arise. Much time is wasted, and the readjustments cause confusion in the work of teachers and pupils. There is great difficulty in constructing time-tables to suit the complex system of organization that is produced, and there is no satisfactory means of fixing responsibility as regards discipline.

In rural schools the principle of manifold classification is seldom applied, except in the "doubling-up" of classes. It may also happen that large pupils, who attend only a while in the winter, are behind in grammar for instance, though fairly well on in arithmetic. Such pupils may be fit for the fourth or fifth class in the latter subject, but require to be taught with the third class in the former subject. In ordinary graded schools such readjustments are out of the question. In High Schools the arguments are against the manifold classification, except in so far as concerns the optional branches. For example, a pupil of the third form may take physics in the second form and Latin and botany in the first form.

Single Classification.—The formation of character, and not the development of individual tastes, is the work of the teacher. The different branches have their respective educational values. For young children specialization has its dangers. To prevent the undue cultivation of some faculties a premium should not be given to high

rank in any one department. Average attainments should be the main test of promotion. No subject on the course should be neglected, and therefore a minimum standard in each subject is needed. Physical culture is important, and therefore bodily strength should have some weight in classification. Moral education is of prime value, and therefore good conduct should form an essential factor in the advancement of pupils. An all-round education is what children require, and on this account there should be a graded course of studies for each form. As a consequence, the single classification is the preferable one in the organization of schools, and with the modifications already mentioned it has come into general use.

Division of Work.—With a staff of two or more teachers in a school the work of teaching may be divided on the basis of subjects, or on that of forms. Until pupils reach the High School the latter of these methods should be followed. With a class under his constant control the teacher has better means to study the disposition and ability of each pupil than he could have if his attention were divided among several classes. In the case of young children the development of character would suffer if the responsibility of discipline were divided. In elementary classes it does not follow that proficiency in teaching needs specialization. The range of the work for junior pupils is not extensive, and the teacher who, for instance, manages science well may be equally successful with arithmetic or literature. In graded schools there is some tendency towards narrowing the teacher. If the sole business of a teacher were to give instruction in one subject, as arithmetic or grammar, this narrowness could be intensified. The growth of a child does not depend exclusively upon proficiency in the branches of study. The

most potent factor in the true development of the child is the personality of the teacher. Intellectual and moral growth is retarded if, in the case of a young pupil, a new personality meets him in every recitation.

"They would recommend that the specialization of teachers work should not be attempted before the seventh or eighth year of the elementary school, and in not more than one or two studies then. In the secondary school it is expected that a teacher will teach one, or at most, two branches. In the elementary school, for at least six years, it is better on the whole to have each teacher instruct his pupils in all the branches that they study, for the reason that only in this way can he hold an even pressure on the requirements of work, correlating it in such a manner that no one study absorbs undue attention. In this way the pupils prepare all their lessons under the direct supervision of the same teacher, and by their recitations show what defects of methods of study there have been in the preparation."—*Report of the Committee of Fifteen.*

In the lower forms of a High School pupils should receive their instruction from only a few teachers. To divide the subjects taken up among four or five teachers is too sudden a change of method from that previously pursued. When pupils have been a year or two in a High School, discipline itself will justify modifications of organization. They get more breadth of view from contact with different minds. The best teachers must be specialists in their respective departments. No one person can successfully instruct pupils in all the advanced work of secondary schools. In the case of university students it is well known that a high standard can be attained only by means of a large number of professors, each of whom has made a specialty of his own department.

Promotions.—Promotions should be made at regular periods and generally at the same time for all the forms of a school. Except for the lowest classes, once a year is often enough to make regular transfers from one class to

another. Promotions at irregular periods disarrange the work, lead to confusion, and show weakness of organization. A teacher should, however, advance pupils any time during the term, if their attainments warrant such promotion. In a well-classified school it will be a rare occurrence to find a scholar who will suffer by remaining till the proper time for promotion.

Attainments and application should decide whether or not a pupil is fit to enter a higher class. It may be well in some cases to make conditional promotions. The teacher is in a better position than any other person to judge what promotions should be made. His knowledge of the class should be so definite that, apart from the records he has kept, he should be able to say who are ready to enter the next form. The oral tests which good teaching renders necessary, and the written examinations (Chapter XVI.) which are inseparable from the best instruction, will furnish him with more reliable data for deciding upon the respective standing of pupils than can be secured in any other way. Circumstances render it essential in some schools that the results of a final examination should form an important factor in determining promotions. It is better for the teacher that he should not bear the full responsibility of making promotions in the higher classes. At the same time, any system of examinations which hampers the teacher in the organization of his school is unsound in principle and troublesome in practice.

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CHAPTER XII.

SCHOOL PROGRAMMES.

Prescribed Courses.—In a well-organized school a prescribed course of study is pursued by the pupils of each class. Classification would be impossible if each pupil were permitted to select his own branches of instruction. Educationists are fairly well agreed regarding those subjects which, in the hands of the teacher, constitute the principal instruments for training the faculties of scholars. There are certain branches of knowledge that should receive sole attention before pupils are admitted to a High School, and certain other branches that should not be taken up until the University is reached. The curriculum prescribed should be one that has received the approval of those who are competent to determine the relative value of different subjects in the process of mental development. To leave the course of study to each teacher, or to each Board of Trustees, is to ignore the conclusions that have been reached by those who have made a study of the science of education. A definite and well-considered scheme of study is a great help to trustees, teachers and inspectors. It promotes systematic work, furnishes opportunities for comparing results, prevents the introduction of "fads" or injudicious programmes, and secures better skill in teaching. (See Course of Study in Appendix.)

Educational Values.—At one time it was supposed that reading, writing and arithmetic formed a course of

study sufficiently comprehensive for all who did not aspire to a secondary education. It was also held that only classics and mathematics had much value as instruments of higher culture. Scientists have for some time proclaimed that their department is of equal worth in mental development, and that the utilitarian side of education has not received due attention. French and German have, of late years, gained a prominent place in courses of study. English is now generally acknowledged to be inferior to no subject on the programme in its importance to all classes of students. The advocates of the various departments have not yet settled their differences of opinion. The conclusions reached in their report by the "Committee of Ten," that all subjects have equal educational value, have not met with general acceptance. The minority view meets with greater favor among those who have read that valuable document. The member who constituted the minority says:

"I cannot endorse expressions that appear to sanction that the choice of subjects in secondary schools may be a matter of comparative indifference. . . . All such statements are based upon the theory that, for the purpose of general education, one subject is as good as another—a theory which appears to me to ignore philosophy, psychology, and science of education."

It is useless to debate the relative value of mathematics and science, science and language, or language and history. No one of the great departments of study should be slighted in deciding upon a curriculum. What subjects a student should take up will depend largely upon the kind of training he most needs to develop his higher manhood. This will, in all cases, call for breadth of study and concentration of purpose. Those branches are most serviceable to the student that reflect in his consciousness the widest realm of thought and usefulness.

Co-ordination of Studies.—Mental development requires that each subject of the curriculum should be taken up in its proper order. There is no proper intellectual growth that does not secure harmonious development. Co-ordination of studies is the process of grouping subjects that are closely related. It recognizes that each branch of knowledge has its special value when viewed in connection with all other branches. Co-ordination assumes that human culture cannot be fully promoted if each department, or sub-department, is not commenced and carried on in accordance with its educational value.

Correlation of Studies.—Unity should have its place in the course of study prescribed. Every department of knowledge has its relations to all other departments. To recognize the proper relations of different branches is an important educational problem. The value of acquired knowledge is greatly increased when the necessary bearings it sustains to other fields of experience are clearly understood. Each study is fragmentary by itself, and should be properly blended with every other study. Not only each lesson and the course in each subject, but the entire curriculum, must be marked by unity. If subjects are properly taught, the correlation of studies is a necessity. Arithmetic cannot be fully understood if algebra is ignored. Chemistry calls for certain knowledge of physics. History is inseparably connected with geography and literature. Neither language nor science can be thoroughly mastered without some training in mathematics. Correlation, therefore, assigns each subject such a place in the curriculum as will help to bring to view its universal relations. It is a popular theory that too many subjects are taken up in schools. The impression may be, in some respects, well-founded; but too often it shows

ignorance of the science of education. Thoroughness is desirable, but limitation to a narrow curriculum does not guarantee thoroughness. To require a child to give undivided attention to two or three subjects is impossible. Before a pupil reaches the High School his intellectual appetite will not be satisfied with any narrow range of knowledge. To master one subject at a time is a pedagogical absurdity.

"Correlation and Co-ordination.—The doctrine of co-ordination proposes to arrange the various studies of the school courses along two or three pretty distinct lines, making as frequent connections as possible between the separate lines, and keeping the work of each line in close touch with that of the other lines, so that the rate of progress shall be uniform in all departments of instruction. The lines of study are to be so firmly united that the final outcome shall be a consistent whole of thoroughly assimilated knowledge in the mind of the pupil.

"One line of studies will consist of history, literature, and kindred subjects. This line is concerned with the works and thoughts of man, and may be called humanistic.

"Another line will consist of scientific studies, both physical and biological, and will include geography and kindred subjects.

"A third line, in some respects subordinate to the other two, but in the main co-ordinate, will be made up of mathematics and closely-related subjects.

"The formal studies, reading, spelling, writing, drawing, and so on, will be readily united with the first and second lines without making a distinct group. The ethical aspect or purpose of education will be provided for in the humanistic lines of studies, and the practical, business aspect will receive all necessary attention in connection with the scientific and mathematical lines."—*Putnam*.

"The good teacher seeks to give each class of faculty a fair chance of development. He knows that it is impossible to determine with certainty, very early in a scholar's career, what is the special department in which he is likely to achieve excellence. Nor is it at all necessary that you should know this too early. It has often been said that the ideally-educated man is one who knows

something of many subjects, and a good deal of one subject. You are safe, therefore, in fashioning a somewhat comprehensive course, so long as there is unity in it; and in making certain elements compulsory on all scholars, reserving alternatives and voluntary choice to the later stages of the school life. You thus cast your net over a wider area, and prepare yourself to welcome a greater variety of abilities and aptitudes. You leave fewer minds to stagnate in apathy and indifference, and you discourage the tendency to attach an exaggerated value to particular subjects, and to indulge in the idle boast of learned ignorance. And if this be done, then when the time comes for specializing, and your pupil comes within sight of the university or of the business of life, you will be in a better position to determine in what direction and for what reason he will do well to direct his energies in a particular channel."—*Fitch*.

Concentration of Studies.—To teach any subject well demands definiteness of aim. The best methods of instruction cannot be secured without concentration. Attention to one subject at a time is a sound maxim in education. If grammar, reading or geometry is the subject to be taught, philology, literature or algebra should not take its place. The thought should be fixed, however, on all the relations of the subject, and so far as may be required other subjects must be brought in to master the one under consideration. In teaching history, for instance, references to geography, literature and civil polity may be essential. At the same time it does not follow that all related subjects are entitled to the same position in the course.

The problem of concentration is not at variance with that of enriching the course of study. As human knowledge increases, the interrelated facts and forces connected with intellectual and moral development increase in number. In the curriculum of secondary schools, and in that of elementary schools to a greater extent, a few subjects should form the course of instruction. Any

related subjects that are prescribed should have their value, mainly on account of the aid they furnish in giving instruction in the principal subjects of the course.

Fixed Courses.—There are some branches of knowledge that every person should know something about. Reading, writing and arithmetic have long held pre-eminence as the foundation subjects of an elementary education. If the acquisition of knowledge is essential to mental development, it follows that an extensive field is accessible to the pupil who has gained an acquaintance with the three "R's." The elements of natural science necessarily come within the grasp of every observing mind, and history, geography, literature, composition, grammar, drawing, bookkeeping, etc., demand recognition as obligatory subjects of instruction. (See Public School Course of Study.)

It is evident that up to the requirements for admission to the High School, only a few subjects should be prescribed. Every branch of the fixed course should be introduced at that period in the life of the pupil which is warranted by the laws of intellectual growth. So long as the aim is to secure general culture, obligatory subjects must be assigned. It may be that a choice of subjects along the same lines should be permitted in secondary schools, but the leading features of an approved, fixed course should be adhered to until admission is gained to the university; and even then specialization should not allow any neglect of those departments with which the general scholar should be familiar. There is danger of narrowness if special courses are permitted to be taken up at too early a stage. What the country needs is not so much a large number of specialists, as an increased number of persons with broad scholarship and capacities for usefulness.

Optional Subjects.—The requirements for admission to a High School should embrace no optional subjects. The special conditions of the community may perhaps justify some provision for instruction in the elements of agriculture, navigation, or the mechanical pursuits. The Public School is not however designed to fit pupils for particular callings, and therefore the best instruments of culture should constitute the programme to be taken up. In the lower forms of the High School a few options may be introduced to meet the demands of pupils who aim for a more advanced course. For entrance to a University a fixed course, with some choice of options, should be prescribed. (See Courses for Matriculation.) In the last years of his University career, and especially in a post-graduate course, a student should be allowed a wide range of options.

Bifurcation.—This is a term used to indicate the division of the school into two or more branches, according to the special bent or probable destiny of the scholars. In this country, where the educational system recognizes no class distinctions, those who may occupy very different positions are trained side by side. The requirements for admission to the High School should be determined, not so much to meet the interests of pupils who desire to obtain a secondary education, as to give proper direction to the studies of that larger class of pupils who never enter a High School. In like manner, the curriculum for matriculation must have in view the effect on the course of High School pupils generally, rather than the wants of the small number who enter the University. No curriculum can be defended that does not (1) inspire students with a desire to reach the highest rung in the educational ladder, (2) furnish them with sound intellectual and moral training, should they fail to reach the object of their ambition,

and (3) render it reasonably probable that the education received will be practical no matter what course is followed in life.

The system of fixed and optional courses (See Courses of Study) in the High School programme meets fairly well the aims and possibilities of all classes of students. Bifurcation makes provision in the same school for pupils who desire to pursue a classical, a scientific, or a commercial course. On economical grounds, such an arrangement evidently has great advantages. In the formation of character, the boy who intends to enter a University will be benefited by coming in contact with those who are to become mechanics or merchants. Grammar, algebra, history and every other subject should be taught in the same way to all students, no matter what calling they are to follow or how far they are to continue the course.

"The Committee of Ten unanimously agree with the Conferences (as to question 7 submitted.) Ninety-eight teachers, intimately concerned either with the actual work of American secondary schools, or with the results of that work as they appear in students who come to college, unanimously declare that every subject which is taught at all in a secondary school should be taught in the same way and to the same extent to every pupil, so long as he pursues it, no matter what the probable destination of the pupil may be, or at what point his education is to cease. Thus, for all pupils who study Latin, or history, or algebra, for example, the allotment of time and the method of instruction in a given school should be the same year by year. Not that all the pupils should pursue every subject for the same number of years; but so long as they do pursue it, they should all be treated alike."—*Report of the Committee of Ten.*

The Daily Programme.—System is necessary in the arrangement of the duties of each day. A good teacher always has a carefully prepared programme, in which the times and subjects of recitation and study are well defined.

Regular habits are not cultivated if the work of each day is taken up in some hap-hazard or desultory way. A good time-table, carefully followed, makes the teacher systematic in his work, and prevents friction and irregularity. It makes the pupils also systematic in the performance of their duties, and induces them to prepare their lessons the better for each day. When a good programme is observed there is no time lost, the development is harmonious, and all jarring or discord of conflicting classes is avoided. It is evident no one programme will be suited for all schools of the same kind or grade, but there are certain general principles that should be recognized in the construction of time-tables.

A definite time should be fixed for each class recitation, for every intermission, for short periods of relaxation, and for study. The time to be occupied with a lesson will depend upon the subject and the age of the pupils. Young children will not require lessons more than ten or fifteen minutes at a time. Half-hour recitations will answer the more advanced classes. Three-quarters of an hour will generally meet the conditions of High School pupils. All studies should have their proportionate share of attention, and the claims of no pupils should be overlooked. There should be, as far as possible, a due alternation of study hours and recitations. The alternation of subjects should secure the restful effort which a change in study affords. A lesson in arithmetic, for instance, might be followed by one in reading, and that again by one in chemistry. The morning subjects should be those of acquisition, and such as require concentration of mind and a fresh and bright intellect. The afternoon subjects might be exercises of reproduction, or those requiring manual dexterity or affording relaxation. The order of subjects should be, as

nearly as possible, the same for each day, and for young pupils the lessons in each subject should be taken up with greater frequency than for older ones. Provision should be made so that any remarks the teacher has to make to the school or any reproof that has to be administered may not disturb the recitations. Some flexibility in the timetable is often valuable, and when the pupils are taught by only one teacher this is readily secured. In a High School, where the work is divided among the staff on the basis of departments, flexibility is not easily obtained, except in so far as will be practicable by two or more of a teacher's subjects for the same class being taken in succession. In providing a daily programme a temporary time-table is often desirable. The programme of the previous term may answer this purpose. Frequent changes are objectionable. A permanent time-table, affording some elasticity, should be devised without much delay. In a well-organized school, unless the curriculum has been altered, the main features of the daily programme should show little modification from year to year.

Time-tables for Ungraded Schools.—In a rural school with only one teacher, and with pupils who vary in their attainments from first to fifth book classes, the construction of a good time-table is no simple problem. Besides five or six classes in reading, there may be three in arithmetic, three in geography, three in grammar and composition, three in writing, two in drawing, two in history, two in literature, one in algebra, one in geometry, one in physiology, one in bookkeeping, etc. Short recitations become a necessity, even for the advanced classes, and unless wise provision is made for seat work, comparatively little can be accomplished.

"Until recently the teacher gave little attention to this point; thinking that teaching is hearing the recitation, he left pupils to shift for themselves while out of it. But now we understand that the teacher shows at least as much skill, and serves the pupil as efficiently, in providing employment as in hearing the lesson. So that what the pupils are to accomplish during study time must be as definitely put in the programme as the topic of recitation."—*Tompkins.*

The time-table must show not only how the teacher is employed, but how the pupils of each class should be occupied during each period of the school day. For instance, if some of the junior classes receive reading lessons after the opening exercises, the more advanced pupils may be expected, at the same time, to solve problems in arithmetic. A class in grammar may study the lesson for five or ten minutes before being taught, while pupils in the second book are instructed in elementary geography. The fifth book literature may be taken up while the pupils of the fourth book are preparing their work for the next lesson period. It is possible to take a junior class for five minutes in arithmetic during an interval in a recitation that arises when the pupils are solving a problem. It may happen that the teacher secures a few minutes for another class while he waits to have a short exercise written by the class in history or grammar. Such expedients are well known to teachers of rural schools. To keep all pupils profitably engaged, so as to neglect no class, will tax the skill of the young teacher. Flexibility in the daily programme becomes essential. The order of the exercises will be more easily followed than the exact time. If a class should have to be omitted at the regular time, it may be taken up during some interval that can be spared from some other lesson. Pupils should never have the impression that a lesson may probably be omitted. The

tendency sometimes observed to slight the lower classes, so as to have more time for the higher classes, should be guarded against. If there should be only two or three pupils in the highest class, it would be wrong to give them one-fifth of the time when there are forty other pupils in the school. The interests of the great majority should form a more important consideration than the interests of a small minority. The advanced pupils should be able to do much for themselves, with short lessons and occasional hints from the teacher during the day.

Time-tables for Graded Schools.—It is a comparatively easy matter to arrange a time-table for an ordinary division of a well-graded school. If the pupils are taught as one class, or in one class for most of the subjects, the questions to be settled are the order of the recitations and the time to be devoted to each. There is the additional advantage that any day a subject may be omitted, or the time of the recitation shortened, if this is felt desirable. The programme should be arranged under the direction of the principal, and in a city with several graded schools there should be uniformity in the character of the time-tables. It was a common practice years ago in graded schools to give no time for the pupils to study during the day. The lessons assigned were intended to be prepared at home, and the full time in school was taken up in "hearing" lessons. Better views on teaching have condemned such methods, and the preparation of work in school is now regarded as important a duty of the pupils as is that of engaging in the recitation. The preparation of each lesson, under the teacher's careful direction, should just precede the instruction that is given in the same lesson. The successful teacher shows his skill fully as much in getting his pupils to study wisely as he does in his methods of instruction.

Time-tables for High Schools.—The division of the work among the teachers of a High School, on the basis of departments, renders it impossible to have each subject for every class taken up during the time of the day that would be most suitable. Mathematics would, for reasons already stated, be assigned to the early part of the day, and reading, drawing and botany to the afternoon. It is evident what is desirable cannot be fully carried out. The great number of classes gives too little time to most subjects in a three or four masters' school. The expedients mentioned in the case of an ungraded school are available only to a slight extent. Every experienced High School principal knows, however, that it is often necessary to "slip in" the work of a small class here and there. Short recitations are a necessity in a small school that has not a sufficient number of teachers, and study periods become a regular part of the daily programme. The latter feature is not always an unmixed evil. The students are in this way forced to do more for themselves, and the teacher is compelled to do less "talking," but more effective teaching. The "workers" will get along under good teachers in either a small or a large High School. In any secondary school, where the pupils of a class are not trained to depend largely on themselves the teaching is defective. It is a lamentable condition when the skill of the teachers, and not the ability and application of the students, is supposed to win honors and gain certificates at examinations.

Recesses.—Times for recreation are as necessary as times for labor. For young children, two short recesses of ten minutes each should be taken each half-day. If this cannot be carried out, one in the forenoon and one in the afternoon, of fifteen minutes, should be substituted. The teacher, as well as the pupils, should take the recesses. He

should associate with them during the time of intermission. In a rural school the younger pupils, if the weather permits, might have more periods of intermission than the larger ones. In graded schools discipline will require the recesses to be taken at the same time for all the classes. In High Schools a break in the work is also needed, or the time for changing classes may afford an opportunity for short intermissions. If classes are sent out for drill or other physical exercises, the relaxation may serve, though imperfectly, the purpose of recess. The restlessness of pupils is sometimes well met by giving the school a few minutes recreation. Occasionally stopping the regular exercises in elementary classes and engaging in a cheerful song or in some calisthenic drill, will restore perfect control and bring order out of confusion.

Records.—Records and reports have their place in the management of a school, but the time of the teacher should not be taken up with what does not conduce to the welfare of the pupils. No records for mere show should be kept, and valuable time should not be consumed in calculating percentages or in striking averages. Statistics of school age, attendance and classification of the pupils should be preserved, and any necessary records that will enable the teacher to know at any time the attainments and progress of each pupil. The registers should be neatly and accurately kept. The records of the progress of the pupils will enable the teacher to systematize his work and to supply a wholesome stimulus for the pupils. School records will furnish, when necessary, a means of supplying parents with the standing and attendance of their children, and will enable new teachers to know something about the attainments of the pupils they are to teach. Any system of records that requires marks to be assigned during a

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recitation, or that necessitates a special clerk or secretary to be employed by the Board, is to be condemned. If records are properly kept they should aid in School Management, and should cause no large amount of clerical work to become a part of the duties of teachers, trustees, or inspectors. The form of the daily, general or class registers will vary with the kind of school, the system of instruction and classification, and the statistics demanded by the municipality and the State. (See Subsection 6 of Duties of Teachers).

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School Program -

I Prescribed Course

- 1. Know. of Ed. values
- 2. Ideas & cond. of studies
- " " correlation " "
- " " concentration " "

(Fixed & optional course

II Daily Program

- 1. Ungraded grades & high school
- 2. Review & Records.

CHAPTER XIII.

METHODS OF CONDUCTING RECITATIONS. 184

The Recitation.*—Ability to conduct recitations is the best test of a teacher's professional skill. Failure in imparting instruction is entire failure. Success in giving lessons usually crowns the teacher with success in his calling. In conducting recitations nearly every element of a teacher's qualifications is brought into play. About the lesson centre all the activities of school life. Here are displayed the personal influence of the teacher, the extent of his knowledge and skill, and that magnetic power which inspires to earnest, loving effort. In the recitation are concentrated the devotion, the thought, the energy and the life of the teacher, as well as the work, the purpose, the zeal, and the skill of the pupil.

The purposes of the recitation are far reaching. It secures the mental discipline of the pupil, and enables the teacher to place himself in active sympathy with those he guides and instructs. It encourages right methods of study, and awakens interest in the subjects of the curriculum. It helps the pupils to express themselves clearly and accurately, and gives them confidence in expressing their views. It makes them attentive and inquisitive; and, as a consequence, affords the teacher an opportunity

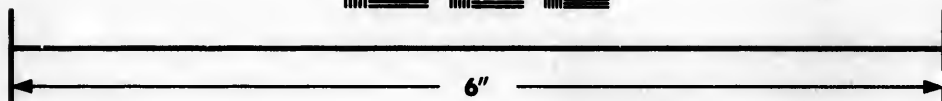
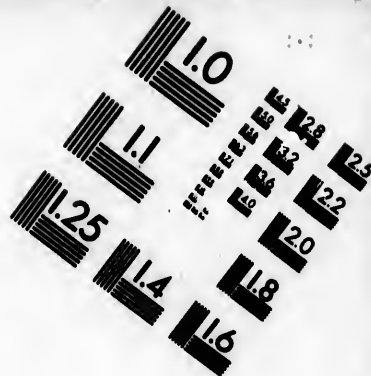
* The term "Recitation," though the popular one in this country and in the United States, is objectionable. A better expression would be "Lesson" or "Teaching Period."

to direct their thoughts and to inspire their ambition. The recitation enables the teacher to ascertain what the pupils know, to test their skill and powers, and to measure their daily progress. Errors into which they may have fallen are corrected, work is assigned which is adapted to their capacity, and suggestions are made which become useful for future lessons.

When recitations are conducted with definiteness, pupils are trained to think methodically as well as to express their thoughts in clear, precise, logical and forcible language. An opportunity is given the teacher to explain and illustrate the work assigned, to elucidate dark portions, to multiply facts and arguments, to describe additional phenomena, to suggest new trains of thought, and to keep before the minds of the pupils proper incentives to study, laudable objects of ambition and motives that tend to moral development.

Preparation by the Teacher.—The teacher must make special preparation for each lesson. To warm and inspire a class, fresh conceptions of the subject are needed. Unprepared lessons are apt to be wanting in definiteness, loose in arrangement, shallow in treatment, and lacking in brightness and impressiveness. The teacher who trusts to evolve what is needed out of the "depths of his inner consciousness" will produce work that is only random, unequal, and disjointed. Unless he makes himself thoroughly familiar with the lessons, his explanations may be faulty, and though he talks in book phraseology his language may have the semblance of knowledge, but will lack teaching power. To the young teacher, especially, the plan to be followed, the illustrations to be used, the analogies to be noticed, the information not given in the text-book to be supplied, the relations of the subject to previous recitations





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to be shown, and the varied conditions to be met, demand an equipment, which, in justice to the students, cannot be left to the spur of the moment. The teacher must be familiar with the details, relationships, and proportions of the subject. The difficulties of the pupils must be anticipated. The time of the class is too valuable to be taken up with the unskilful explanations and unnecessary digressions which are common when no preparation is made.

The notes prepared by the teacher should present a draft of the lesson with all the important points marked as regards matter and method. The notes should not show excessive detail, and should not be so slavishly followed as to destroy spontaneity. The teacher must not only prepare his own plan, but he must also, as occasion may require, rise superior to the outline he has framed. The highest art is to conceal art, and the true teacher will never appear to be more anxious to follow his notes than to meet skilfully every feature that may present itself in giving the lesson. It follows, that in selecting matter for a recitation the end in view should be fully recognized. The mental capacity of the pupils, their previous knowledge of the subject, the time at the teacher's disposal, and the best methods to be used, will require careful consideration. This may be a great tax on the teacher's time, but it will pay him who wishes to give faithful service and to win success. If system is followed from the first, the labor will be found pleasant and eventually light.

"Such a preparation of the individual lesson is the only sure means of growth in professional knowledge and skill. It is easy and customary to read books of pedagogy to no avail; the thought presented is held off at arm's length; it does not become a part of the concrete teaching life. As much as we boast of our study of psychology, it has helped the teacher but little. It is read and then placed upon the shelf, as if it had nothing to do with the real

business in hand. Now, such a preparation as here insisted on would force the teacher to feel that psychology is the very breath of life in every teaching act. In the preparation of every lesson, the psychology must be kept at the right hand. The mental processes constituting the particular lesson to be given must be traced out, classified and organized. The psychology of each lesson must be brought into consciousness. This solves the problem of interesting the teacher in psychology."—*Tompkins*.

Preparation by the Pupils.—Teaching is poor unless it tends to make pupils do much for themselves. Many teachers appear to give recitations with such elaborate detail as to induce pupils to believe that they have little to do themselves. Oral instruction, if effective, should lead the way to book study and independent investigation on the part of those instructed. The pupil (except in elementary classes) must study the lesson in order to acquire knowledge, to express himself clearly, to seek information about what he understands only imperfectly, to examine relations and principles, to gain mental discipline, and to acquire habits of self-dependence.

For young children, little home work should be assigned. It is cruel to give children of only ten or twelve years of age lessons requiring hours of home preparation. It is desirable, however, to accustom children at an early period to habits of home study. When they get as far as the second book they might be assigned lessons requiring a few minutes' home preparation. Before reaching the High School, children should not, as a rule, have lessons assigned that will require more than an hour of time out of school. In the case of High School pupils, one hour for the first form, two for the second, three for the third, and four for the fourth, will be a safe guide in determining the length of home lessons. No doubt some pupils would not be injured by more home work than is

here suggested. A great deal must be left to the good judgment of the principal; but if pupils are actively engaged in mental work during the school hours, it will be found unnecessary to burden them to a greater extent than mentioned with heavy lessons to be prepared in the evening.

Periods of study should be provided during the day. In ungraded schools such periods are a necessity. In graded schools, a part of the time of each recitation should be taken up in preparation by the class, under the teacher's direction. In this way pupils may study with profit and learn in the class-room how to analyze, to summarize, to compare, and to judge. When these processes are left to the teacher, the recitation becomes too often a repetition of the words of the book, and sinks to a mere mechanical exercise. The use of the "summary," the "compendium," and the aid of the "coach," are foreign to the science of education. In the preparation of their lessons, pupils should be trained to make their own summary to form their own outline of the lesson, and to search themselves facts from the dictionary, the map, or the more advanced text-book. No system of preparing lessons by the pupils is defensible that does not increase their skill, develop their intellectual powers, and strengthen their moral faculties. While the pupils are preparing the lesson in school, the teacher should be on the alert to give them needed help. He should not provide them with crutches, nor should he allow them to flounder in the mire when a helping hand will put them on the highway.

The Manner of the Teacher.—A teacher should take such a position as will enable him to see each child with ease. He should be careful not to fall into the common error of addressing his remarks to some few pupils

just in front of him. He should neither remain still as a post, nor walk about in a fidgety, restless way. A good teacher will not find it necessary to stand all day. His control of the pupils should not prevent him from sitting during portions of some lessons. Whether sitting or standing, all his movements should be graceful and natural.

A good manner is founded on good temper. Moroseness, fretfulness, coldness, lack of sympathy, or anger, will cause any teacher to fail in giving instruction. Self-possession, readiness of resource, vivacity of manner, the absence of a noisy, bustling manner, that cheerfulness which wins attention, and that authority which is decided, but not obtrusive, should mark the teacher in the presence of his class. The manner of the teacher should be such as will encourage the timid, but repress the impertinent. Little time of the recitation should be taken up in reprimanding pupils. A simple glance of his eye or shake of his head on the part of a good teacher, is more effective than a half-hour's scolding.

The proper management of the voice in teaching a lesson has an important bearing on the conduct of the pupils and on the effectiveness of the instruction. Some teachers speak so softly and so indistinctly that they cannot be heard by all the class. More frequently teachers speak in a tone that is so high as to be unnatural. Children are only too ready to imitate the example of a teacher who is so demonstrative as to shout his words. Clearness and force of speech are essential. Instruction should be communicated distinctly and impressively. Emphasis and impressiveness need, however, to be employed in varying degrees according to the nature of the matter dealt with. Children are apt to be troublesome if taught in a tinny, awkward and hesitating way. They should not be spoken

to in a haughty or domineering manner, but it is absurd to beg of them to give attention, or to use a beseeching tone in cultivating a love for the subject.

The explanations or illustrations must not be after the style of a person "saying his piece." It serves no good purpose to refer to things in a cursory manner. Each step in the lesson should be emphatically dwelt upon and wrought out to a definite conclusion. Indirect repetition is an essential feature of good instruction. It involves a higher and a different degree of mental activity. Impressiveness also demands recapitulation at the end of the lesson. In this way the memory is aided, not merely by a mechanical, but by a logical process. Pupils are led to discriminate what is of primary importance from what is secondary, and conclusions from arguments. For similar reasons it becomes necessary to recapitulate the substance of a series of lessons. In teaching lessons the importance of time must not be overlooked. Accumulations of illustrations, extravagant repetitions, useless digressions, and delays on unessential points, are to be avoided.

Value of Method.—In imparting instruction the teacher must recognize the pupil's natural method of learning. If pupils are brought to think in the right way the mode of conducting the lesson must be a good one. The importance of method in all kinds of skilled work is now fully recognized. The best teaching comes from clearly defined methods which are based upon laws and principles. Bad methods of instruction will develop idleness, defective observation, unreliable judgment and reasoning, and moral torpidity. The end of education must be kept in view by the teacher in the selection of the expedients of the classroom.

All prominent educators hold that the best method, and,

in fact, the school itself, is the personality of the teacher. It would be wrong, however, to suppose, on this account, that every teacher should be left free to invent his own methods. The wisdom of preceding generations of teachers cannot be neglected, and therefore the methods devised and practised by them should be made a faithful study. The teacher who wishes to profit by the experience of others must appropriate to his use the most approved methods employed by the best teachers. He must do this in such a way as to reproduce them according to his own individuality, and to adapt them to the peculiar wants of his own pupils and to the conditions of the lesson. Method is valuable, not when the teacher becomes a skilful imitator, but when his method is a natural outgrowth of his own personality. To condemn method, and to say that energy guided by inspiration will suffice, is to set aside the science of education and the results of experience.

A good method of teaching economizes time, saves labor, lessens worry, prevents weariness, promotes thoroughness, banishes spasmodic effort, inspires the teacher with confidence, and leaves his mind free to make the best use of any opportunity that may arise in the course of the recitation. Method is valuable to the beginner and to the experienced teacher. Method is essential to the highest genius, and the want of it causes many failures. Hard work alone will not guarantee success. The mental activity and intellectual effort necessary for skilled teaching will not be secured without rational and thoughtful work. Teaching is not merely a matter of drill. Such a system of instruction only tends to make the minds of pupils storehouses for dead lumber. It makes children listless and worn, and leads to over-pressure. It also causes teachers to look upon their calling as a wearisome and monotonous business.

It should be understood that a method is at best only an orderly procedure. To adhere rigidly to some set course of action is to drift into dead formalism and render teaching mechanical. The good teacher must not only know all the best methods of instruction, but he must know what plans are best suited to the circumstances of the time. The mode of conducting a recitation will vary with the subject and the conditions of the class. The plans of the teacher must be elastic and allow proper freedom of action. Circumstances must often determine the "tools" to be used. The trained teacher may have such a knowledge of the various devices employed in class recitations as will enable him to command readily the use of that method which is best adapted to the particular occasion. In considering the principal methods of giving instruction it should be understood that each of them is not separated from the others by clearly defined characteristics.

Empirical Methods.—It is sometimes urged that any plan of teaching, which has been tested by experience and found successful should be employed, without any effort being made to ascertain why it succeeds, or what are the limits of its application. Such views lead to the adoption of methods that are empirical, and, as a consequence, untrustworthy. They introduce mechanical teaching, and as their underlying principles are not understood, they are often used in unsuitable cases. It is doubtless true that various methods may be used with success by different teachers. It is true, nevertheless, that in every part of the lesson certain methods or devices may be adopted which are superior to all others for the special occasion, and the process of trying plan after plan, till one is found to succeed, and then following it blindly, has no justification in these days, when the importance of school

life forbids any waste of time or misdirection of mental activities.

Empirical methods are, however, deserving of investigation. The science of education cannot yet afford to ignore any method of instruction which the untrained yet experienced teacher has found to be useful in the school-room. An examination of empirical methods will often enable the scientific searcher after truth to solve educational problems, and to bring to notice valuable pedagogical principles.

"The mere fact that there are so many methods current, and constantly pressed upon the teacher as the acme of the educational experience of the past, or as the latest and best discovery in pedagogy, makes an absolute demand for some standard by which they may be tested. Only knowledge of the principles upon which all methods are based can free the teacher from dependence upon the educational nostrums which are recommended like patent medicines as panaceas for all educational ills. If a teacher is one fairly initiated into the real workings of the mind, if he realizes its normal aims and methods, false devices and schemes can have no attraction for him; he will not swallow them 'as silly people swallow empirics' pills'; he will reject them as if by instinct. All new suggestions, new methods he will submit to the infallible test of science, and those which will further his work he can adopt and rationally apply, seeing clearly their place and bearings, and the conditions under which they can be most effectively employed. The difference between being overpowered and used by machinery, and being able to use the machinery, is precisely the difference between methods externally inculcated and methods freely adopted, because of insight into the psychological principles from which they spring."—*McLellan and Dewey.*

The Developing Method.—Opposed to merely empirical processes is the developing method, of which the essential feature is the direct exercise of the child's faculties. It assumes that the efforts of the teacher are founded on psychological principles, and that the nature and powers of the pupil are taken into account at every stage. The

teacher bases his instruction on recognized principles of intellectual development, (Chapter III.) and leads his pupils to discover facts for themselves, and to form conclusions that are the outcome of the knowledge acquired. The developing method is at variance with all artificial teaching, and is adopted wherever pedagogy has attained its place in systems of education. It assumes that the formation of character is the real work of the teacher.

Book Knowledge.—No wise teacher undervalues the study of books by his pupils. He who has guided a class to profitable reading has accomplished much. Some of the best work of the school is the cultivation in the pupils of a love for reading.

“Book work for lessons has obvious advantages. It is definite; it puts into concise and rememberable form; it focuses, so to speak, much of what is treated discursively in oral lessons; it can be revised again and again, as often as is necessary, until it is understood. Just as oral teaching is the main instrument for awakening intelligence, so book work is the chief safeguard for accuracy, clearness of impression, and permanence. We cannot do without either. It is, however, the best teachers who are most in danger of undervaluing set lessons from books. It is the worst, or at least the commonplace, the indolent, the uninspired teachers, who have a constant tendency to over-value them.”—*Fitch*.

Oral Instruction.—Oral instruction has its place in connection with every subject taught in the school. It may be given by the teacher, either to supplement the text-book, or by way of general explanation. The teacher takes the place of the book, or gives such information as cannot be supplied from text-books. He directs children before they learn to read, and when they are able to study from books he increases their powers of acquiring knowledge, and prevents them from making blunders.

"It is chiefly by means of the living voice that scholars can be really inspired; it is only when the eyes meet, and expression and gestures are seen, and tones are heard, that there arises that subtle and indefinable sympathy between teacher and taught, which is so essential to the intellectual life of the scholar. Then only can there be that adaptation of the matter to his wants, the light glancing over unimportant details, the rest and repetition over the more significant facts, the pause after what is exceptionally difficult, the happy illustration, the *argumentum ad hominem*, the brisk and pointed question by which the teacher assures himself that he is being followed and understood."—*Fitch*.

The Lecture Method.—The lecture system of giving instruction consists in the teacher's presenting and discussing a subject, while the pupils sit and listen and attempt to fix in their minds the leading features of his address. The pupils may take notes, or the teacher may give an outline of the subject, and suggest the best method of study and the proper books to be consulted. It is only in colleges and universities, or in technical, scientific and professional schools, where the students are supposed to have considerable maturity of mind, that the lecture method is much used. The chief advantage of this method lies in the fact that the lecturer can reach a large audience at the same time, and thus present his knowledge without increased effort.

There are strong objections to the frequent use of the lecture system in schools, on account of its serious dangers. The signs of collective animation are often mistaken by the teacher for individual progress. It often leads pupils to reproduce in his own words whatever they have been taught. The desire to be interesting and fluent may cause the teacher to indulge in generalizations, picturesque statements, pretentious knowledge, and mere talk. It

occasionally fosters vanity in a teacher who imagines that to speak continuously upon a subject for some time shows cleverness. In some cases he comes to have a liking to hear himself talk, and harangues his class in the style of an orator. It is needless to add that such lecturing is not teaching. A good teacher is not necessarily a good public speaker.

The lecture method has its place. To some extent it is necessary in every lesson. With skill and judgment it becomes very serviceable in giving illustrations and explanations. The extent to which it is employed should depend on the age, power and advancement of the pupils. With little children it should rarely be employed in any continuous form. For advanced classes the lecture plan may be adopted with much greater chance of success, though perhaps in no lesson should it be used alone. Even in universities the professor who teaches a subject well relies on other methods.

When the lecture method is used it should be controlled by definite purpose, and should be kept within clearly defined limits. The lecture should be suggestive as well as definite. The facts should be stated in language readily comprehended, and in a simple and direct way. The ideas should be connected, the expressions persuasive, vivid and interesting, and the manner bright, earnest and sympathetic. Pupils must be kept interested, and with this object the points must be presented with varying deliberation and emphasis.

"Whenever the teacher does not first excite enquiry, first prepare the mind by *waking it up* to a desire to know, and if possible to find out by itself, but proceeds to think for the child, and to give him the results before they are desired, or before they have been sought for—he makes the mind of the child a two-gallon jug, into which he may pour just two gallons but no more."—Page.

The Conversational Method.—It is often the most effective means of imparting instruction to allow the teaching to assume the form of conversation. The teacher plays the part of a sympathetic friend, and, with the absence of formality or apparent desire to instruct, a pleasant chat about the subject causes the children to forget that they are taught, and induces them to learn without feeling that school work is a drudgery. The pupils are encouraged to talk and ask questions of the teacher, who in turn puts questions to them, and guides the conversation with a settled purpose. When conducted with spontaneity and simplicity, and without any conventionality, this method is well adapted to the wants of young children. Even with older pupils, it forms a very agreeable change from the lecture or the ordinary question method. A genial and scholarly teacher may, in this way, add much to the information obtained from text-books.

The method has its dangers. Skill and judgment are needed to secure brightness, freedom and naturalness, and at the same time to avoid what is artificial, indefinite, dull, or ludicrous. If wisely used it generates a love of learning, and trains the child to communicate with ease, confidence and accuracy. Caution is required to prevent random talk, rashness of statement, frequent digression, oversight of some pupils, and forwardness of manner in others. The teacher needs to have full knowledge of his subject and good control of his class.

The Discussion Method.—Occasionally the recitation may take the form of a discussion. The subject for consideration may be announced, and pupils may be asked to maintain certain positions, to present arguments, or to offer or meet objections. The teacher directs the discussion and prevents any tendencies to disorder or to the use

of desultory talk. Vigorous thought and independent expression of opinion may be fostered in this way, and pupils may learn to have regard to the views and feelings of others. Sharp retorts or personal allusions should not be allowed, and liberality of opinion, courtesy and fair play should be placed at a premium. In High Schools the discussion method, in the shape of a debate, may now and then form a feature of the programme. A good teacher will find it a great aid in interesting pupils in history, literature and other subjects, and in giving them confidence for speaking in public.

The Question Method.—The question method is by far the most valuable means of conducting a recitation. Its importance demands special consideration. (Chapter XV.).

The Socratic Method.—This is a mode of putting questions in such a judicious way that the pupil is led to discover truth for himself. It was named from the Grecian philosopher Socrates, and is used extensively by the disciples of Pestalozzi, and by all modern educators. The teacher acts constantly as a guide, and puts his questions in such a way that the pupils gain knowledge by their own effort. The pupil is led to think, to reason, to gain information, and to discover his own errors. He overcomes obstacles, surmounts difficulties, and wins victories. He becomes a worker, gains courage and strength, and forms habits of self-reliance. In the hands of a poor teacher it has little use. Teachers who are familiar with the science of education, and who understand the principles of psychology, will find the Socratic method a powerful instrument in giving original instruction. It would be unwise for a teacher to regard the Socratic method as one to be generally followed. Training questions and Socratic questions are not in all respects identical. The developing

method will ordinarily give rise to the question method, but other kinds of questioning (Chapter XV.) will be used.

"Socrates had not the spirit of a teacher of little children, and judging from his practice as we know it, he would certainly in that capacity have been a failure. He usually *drove* his hearers to the conclusion he wanted. It is the business of the teacher of children to *guide and lead*, and they require much more help and direct explanation, interspersed with the questions, than the ordinary Socratic dialogue would give."—*London*.

The Topic Method.—When this method is used it is understood that some subject is proposed for consideration. Each pupil may be required to tell all he knows about the topic assigned. Pupils in this way may be trained to give a connected statement of their opinions, and to answer questions dealing with the subject. Like other methods it has its dangers. The time of the class may be wasted in hearing recitations, and there may be little opportunity for real teaching. Thoroughness and attention may be neglected. In primary teaching the topic method should be used sparingly, and in any case it should be supplemented by other modes of instruction.

The Comparative Method.—The distinguishing feature of this method is the use of comparison or contrast. One fact, or a series of facts, having been placed alongside another, there is an examination of the two in close connection. An examination of this kind increases the knowledge which the pupil has of each and strengthens the impressions made. The method cultivates the power of observation and discrimination, and in the case of young children it becomes very valuable. It excites their curiosity, intensifies their interest, and leads them to discover points of difference and similarity in matters brought to their notice. In teaching geography, history, science and literature, the comparative method has an important use.

Illustrative Methods.—Illustrative methods render vivid what is abstract, technical and scientific. They excite interest and curiosity and stimulate investigation. In this way attention is aroused, the memory strengthened, and force, picturesqueness and impressiveness are added to the teaching. There are two kinds of illustrations.

(a) The first of these may be termed *objective*, as they bring into action the use of the senses. Objective illustrations are of various kinds: (1) Objects. These should be a well-arranged series of articles suitable to give systematic illustrations for the subject to be taught. (2) Pictures and diagrams. These should be provided, if possible, by the trustees, but the teacher should be expert in putting on the blackboard what may not be available. (3) Maps and models. Much apparatus may be provided without much expense. (4) Experiments. Mere book knowledge is now at a discount in mastering chemistry, physics, biology, etc.

(b) The second class of illustrations may be termed *oral*. There are two kinds of oral illustrations. (1) The *particular* may be used to explain the *general*. For instance, the nature of an adverbial clause may be made clear by furnishing examples. (2) One thing may be understood by mentioning another of an *analogous* nature. A river may be explained by saying it resembles a stream which the pupils may have seen.

Analytic and Synthetic Methods—The student gains knowledge by a twofold process. He observes individual cases and forms them into groups on account of certain points of resemblance. The method is called the *synthetic*. On the other hand, he may, from certain recognized principles, make an arrangement of individual cases. In this way he employs the *analytic* method. By the

analytic process knowledge is taught by beginning with the whole and proceeding to its elements or constituents. By the synthetic process the procedure is from the elements or constituents to the whole. If, for instance, in grammar the pupils are taught the general characteristics of the different parts of speech and then enabled to understand the function of the sentence, the synthetic method is used. If, on the other hand, the function of each part of speech is taught after that of the sentence is made clear, the analytic method is employed. Each method has its advantages. Generally speaking—especially with young pupils—the analytic method will be found preferable.

Inductive and Deductive Methods.—The mode of giving instruction may also be *inductive* or *deductive*. By the former general truths are reached through particular ones. By the latter particulars are reached through generals. With deductive teaching the definition comes first. With inductive teaching it comes last. Inductive methods enable pupils to discover principles and laws. Deductive methods enable them to test the truth of enunciated principles. It is evident that, like analysis and synthesis, induction and deduction have their respective advantages. All deductive teaching is by its nature analytic, and all inductive processes are synthetic. The converse propositions are not, however, true. A pupil may be taught the facts of some historical event, or those of some geographical division, synthetically, but these facts would not be grouped by induction. The constituent parts of a sentence or of a country may, on the other hand, be taught analytically, but not by induction. For young children the inductive method is preferable, but it is a mistake to infer that even with them it should be used to the exclusion of deductive processes.

Auxiliary Methods.—In addition to the proper use of the methods mentioned, various expedients are utilized by the skilful teacher. The use of written exercises and practice in written examinations (Chapter XVI.) will be found very valuable in teaching most subjects. Reviews and outlines of a series of lessons are common in High Schools. Pupils may be assigned the duty of reporting the substance of a lecture, or that of putting in writing a list of their difficulties in mastering a lesson. Different topics may be assigned to different groups of pupils, with the object of increasing the application of certain members of the class and fixing responsibility. It sometimes saves time and awakens enthusiasm by adopting for a few minutes the "concert" method of conducting a recitation. To overcome timidity the pupils in one row of seats may be required to answer together. A change in the method of conducting a recitation may often prove necessary before the time of the lesson has expired. It not unfrequently becomes essential for the teacher to bring to his aid some temporary expedient in order to create interest and check idleness. To measure every moment the effect of his teaching on the class, is a duty that devolves upon him who successfully conducts a recitation.

Objectionable Methods.—Almost any method of conducting a recitation is objectionable that is not adapted to the nature of the lesson, or to the age, attainments, or mental condition of the pupils. Many antiquated methods have not yet disappeared from some schools. The constant marking of the record of each pupil during the lesson is a relic of the past. In a few places children are still "turned down" for making a mistake. It is still no uncommon thing to hear of young children deprived of sleep on account of the heavy lessons they have to prepare for the next day.

The parrot method and the cramming process linger in some localities. Some teachers have no system in teaching. They drift from one plan to another, and only "keep" school. They have no fixed purpose, no mastery of the subject, no regard for the previous knowledge of the class, and no definiteness in the questions put to the pupils.

Many teachers attempt too much in a recitation. The lesson is too wide in scope. Introductions are too long. The important facts are not emphasized. With others, there is too much drill and too little educative work, or the language is "above the heads" of the pupils, and unreasonable digressions are frequent. Children are often bewildered by the discursive way in which their teachers give instruction. The presentation is clumsy. The lesson is not stimulating. Mere talk—wordiness—amusement—is not teaching.

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CHAPTER XIV.

PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING.

Concentration.—We have seen (Chapter III.) that the power of fixing the attention may be cultivated. Ability to hold the attention is one of the first requisites of a teacher. Self-effort on the part of the pupils is essential. Compulsory attention does not educate. Inattention must be promptly checked. It is a blunder to go on with a lesson when any member of the class is idle. Carelessness, lassitude and indifference will arise if concentration of thought is not insisted on.

The lesson should be treated in such a way as to awaken curiosity, arouse a love of activity, and create sympathy. Concentration cannot be secured unless the teaching is pleasing and suggestive. It must also be within the comprehension of the pupil. A lesson ceases to engage attention if it is too easy, too monotonous, or too difficult. Pupils of feeble intellect, those of sluggish nature, and those of lively manner, must receive instruction suited to their conditions.

Power to fix attention requires the teacher to have the lesson well prepared. He must have information not found in the text-book. The physical wants of the pupils must not be overlooked. Watchfulness, promptitude and knowledge of methods and devices are essential. Recapitulation or a review may be needed. Routine and stereotyped plans should be avoided. A teacher should strive

to understand what is going on in the minds of his pupils. Many a teacher fails to secure the concentration of thought of his pupils because he is thinking of the subject to the exclusion of his class.

Interest.—Learning depends mainly upon interest. Interest is one of the most powerful agents which the teacher can employ to stimulate mental activity and to train the attention. Interest in study is therefore an element that he should constantly aim to excite in his pupils.

Generally speaking, children are more readily attracted by the power of the teacher than by the subject of instruction. They soon estimate his character, and are moved by the stimulus of his knowledge, his ability, his manner, and his sympathy. The efficient teacher awakens and sustains interest, and thus gains the attention of his pupils. They become happy, and are controlled by his will. It is obvious the teacher must himself become thoroughly interested if he is to interest his scholars.

In order that pupils may be interested the matter of the lesson must be suitable and presented by proper methods. If they are to co-operate in the recitation they must not be impelled by fear. The exercise must be within reasonable limits, as the brain cannot sustain lengthened exertion on the same topic. Physical comfort must be preserved. The mind is readily influenced by the conditions of the body. Timid pupils must be encouraged, slow ones stimulated, and weak ones gently handled. The desire to master the subject should be excited, and for this purpose the proper incentives are to be used. Variety in the methods of teaching is important. A change from the lecture or the conversational method to the question method, or from the inductive to the deductive method,

may be needed. The teacher must be able to detect any lack of interest, and to bring to his aid such devices as will restore attention and create interest.

Definiteness.—A definite purpose should mark every lesson. The object to be gained will determine the character of the teaching. There should be no working in the dark. The teacher who does not take aim in his efforts will not meet with success. Random shots are out of place in the recitation. The information imparted should have in view the ends of education. The subject must be presented with distinctness, and principles must determine the methods of instruction. Looseness has no place in good teaching. A lack of logical coherence and clearness of plan is generally the result of want of thoughtful preparation.

“The teacher must be perfectly clear as to what his lesson is intended to do—what benefit it will confer upon the children. He must settle with himself whether its object is to convey entirely new information, or to sum up and formulate what they already know in a scattered and uncertain way ; and he will decide how best to carry out the work so that it may sharpen their intelligence, strengthen their moral tone, and promote a love of reading and study. In any case a distinct purpose must run through his work, and he must treat his subject in such a manner that the children may get a definite meaning and value out of it.”—*Landon*.

Arrangement.—The arrangement of information in a text-book is not necessarily the arrangement to be followed by the teacher in giving instruction. The orderly development and connection of ideas, the steps in the process of teaching, and the lucid manner of presentation, are not always found in a book. Instead of what may be difficult and complex, a good lesson requires such a statement of knowledge to be substituted as will be simple, orderly and easily grasped. The facts have often to be transformed,

separated, rearranged and fully illustrated. No mass of facts crowded together promiscuously will have value to the student. Logical arrangement is not only essential to the successful teaching of individual lessons, but it is valuable on account of its influence on the pupils' intellectual habits. It prevents confusion in the instruction, and fosters orderly mental development. The parts of the lesson should be well proportioned and their connection fully shown. What is subordinate should not be placed by its treatment on a level with what is more important.

"What is complex and difficult should be divided and subdivided to suit the pupil's capacity. To take in detail what we cannot accomplish by one effort, and to thoroughly master the several parts in succession as we proceed, is the principle of all successful labor, mental or mechanical. It is only by subdivision, which presents to the pupil one point for consideration at a time, and that a sufficiently limited one, that progress in study is possible; but by the aid of subdivision there is no limit to what he can accomplish. The teacher accordingly shows his skill in presenting in each lesson a practicable succession of steps. At the same time he must not simplify over much; this is incompatible with any vigorous, mental exercise. His business is not entirely to remove difficulties from the path; but to present only such as the pupil can by fair exertion overcome. His requirement should therefore always be abreast, and sometimes slightly ahead, of the pupil's capabilities."—*Currie*.

Unity.—All teaching should be marked by unity. A central thought forms a distinctive feature of every well-conducted recitation. Each lesson in literature, history, grammar, etc., should have some leading idea. Instruction fails in its object if pupils fasten their minds upon some subordinate statement. No details should be given that would tend to lessen the effect of the main facts which are to be presented. All the minor facts that are introduced should be grouped around the main ones in proper relationship of interdependence

and relative importance. The beginning, the middle and the end of the recitation must have in view the one definite purpose to be gained. Every method or device employed must have a distinct place in the scheme of the lesson. The form of a well-constructed lesson will be as evident as that of a demonstration in Euclid or the parts of a building. Not only should the entire lesson have its meaning, but every fact or illustration brought in should have a meaning in itself, and a value in the purpose to be gained. A well-conducted recitation is marked by no purposeless digression into irrelevant topics, no unnecessary repetition of facts, no over-development of one portion of the lesson, and no scampering over important matters. The central line of thought gives room for variety in detail, versatility in the manner of presentation, and originality in teaching devices.

Self-activity.—It is a well-understood maxim in teaching that children should be trained to acquire knowledge for themselves. The successful teacher wakes up the mind, sets pupils to think, gets them to work, and arouses in them the spirit of enquiry. In the greater part of our acquisitions we are all self-taught. All knowledge, at the outset, must be learned by its discoverer without an instructor. True teaching is not that which gives knowledge, but that which stimulates pupils to gain it. In a sense it may be said he is the best teacher who instructs least. The mind must do its own thinking, and it is a mistake for the teacher to suppose he can make his pupils intelligent by his own hard work.

A pupil should be allowed time to realize whatever is presented to him by way of explanation. The teacher should be able to estimate exactly how much information is necessary to awaken curiosity. Only that amount of

help should be given which is required. Self-effort is checked when too much is suggested. To direct the thought of the child, to encourage him, and to prepare him for the central point of difficulty, will be constantly required of the teacher. It is a common blunder on the part of teachers well acquainted with their subject to introduce matters which, while interesting in themselves, are not necessary for developing self-activity.

"When a thing is clear, let the teacher never try to make it clearer; when a thing is understood, not a word more of explanation should be added. To mark precisely the moment when the pupil understands what is said, the moment when he is master of the necessary ideas, is perhaps the most difficult thing in the art of teaching."—*Edgeworth*.

Study.—Teaching should stimulate study. Everyone should be a student. The person who loves study, and who knows what to study, how to study, and when to study, has a good education. A pupil should be trained to get clear ideas of his lessons, to read carefully and systematically, to master the leading features of the subject taken up, to understand principles, definitions and facts, and to analyze, to generalize, to deduce and to illustrate. It is the duty of the teacher to train his pupils to consult dictionaries, reference books and maps, and to induce them by habits of observation and reflection to find out facts not set forth in what they read. Hard study is beneficial. Children that are "spoon-fed" remain children. For one pupil who is injured by hard study, one hundred would be benefited by increased mental activity. Hard study develops manhood and forms the royal road to success.

Pupils should be wisely directed in their studies. Whatever is necessary or useful as a preparation for life, and

whatever will best serve as a foundation for future work, should receive first attention. The vagueness and uncertainty of the smatterer should be avoided. Hurried study is faulty. Organic growth follows the proper acquisition of knowledge. The mode of study must be suited to the subject. To master the subject rather than to master the book should be the object. The relative importance of facts should be understood, and what is first in value should receive most attention. The correlation of facts, the relation of cause and effect, and the logical sequence of ideas should be carefully observed. Pupils should be trained to work systematically, and to have set times for study at home. Desultory reading in matters requiring study, or spasmodic efforts, should be avoided. It is important that pupils should cultivate the power of concentrating their attention on what they take up. Interest in a subject may be created and fostered. A love of good books is an impelling force to a student. Ability to select the best reading matter comes only by careful application. To know where to look for knowledge is constantly in demand. Recreative reading, and reading which supplies general information, should not be ignored. General reading or recreative reading need not be aimless. Life is too short and too serious to allow any time to be wasted.

Thoroughness.—Every subject should be taught thoroughly. This does not mean that all the details of a lesson should be mastered. Junior classes cannot be expected to have a complete grasp of the subject. Pupils should not, however, learn what they may have afterwards to unlearn. It becomes a source of bewilderment, rather than a help, to require at first more than the broad principles and general outline of any particular subject. To overlook fundamental facts and spend time on details,

is the reverse of thoroughness. The mind is limited in its capacity, and any attempt to master secondary matters is very apt to crowd out more important ones.

"Perfect knowledge is only a relative term, for, absolutely considered, we can never know anything perfectly; however, we may aim at perfection, although we may not hope to reach it. By teaching a subject thoroughly, therefore, we simply mean that the information which we communicate to our pupils should be complete and exact as far as it extends, and that we should not rest satisfied until it is fixed in their minds; at the same time, we should not attempt to push our instruction beyond their capabilities, nor deceive ourselves with the idea that we have taught anything thoroughly which has been merely learnt by rote. The most imperfect and fruitless kind of teaching is that when the master attempts to convey a perfect knowledge of all the parts of a subject before the faculties of the pupils are prepared for grasping such an amount of knowledge. A little knowledge, fully understood and thoroughly digested, creates intellectual power. The amount of knowledge fixed in the mind is not of so much account as the ideas which are evolved by the intellectual process of elaboration."—*Tate*.

Stimulus.—The power of stimulating pupils is natural to some teachers. Sympathy, quickness of resource, a lively and attractive manner, insight into character, and personal interest in students, are powerful aids in arousing a spirit of activity. Many points of detail and method are capable of being acquired by care and effort. Power to arrest attention, to create interest, to inspire ambition, and to develop energy, may be cultivated by every faithful teacher.

The lesson should be made entertaining as well as profitable. A change in the method of instruction, or a variation in the routine, may often wake up a dull class. If pupils are inattentive, it is probable the teaching is dull. Nagging, or using satire, is a false method of

creating interest. Enthusiasm for the subject on the part of the teacher will do much to stimulate the pupils. Pupils are very imitative, and they are led to care for what interests the teacher. A teacher who is not a student fails to interest. The best methods of conducting recitations should be made a study. Each subject calls for special methods of treatment. Clearness is a stimulus to mental growth, but there is a danger of explaining too much and too soon. The pupils should be encouraged to share in original research. In science, history, and other subjects, there is great opportunity for using this stimulus. The various school incentives (Chapter IX.) may be effectively used by the judicious teacher to stimulate pupils in their work.

Instruction.—To give information is an important object in teaching a class. Knowledge should be given in an intelligent manner, and the elements of training should not be forgotten. How children learn is often of more importance than what they learn. Information should be made real, and what pupils learn should have value in after life. (Chapter III.).

Instruction may be *direct*, when the truths communicated by the teacher are clearly and readily grasped by the learner. It may be *indirect*, when the learner is skilfully brought to discover truth for himself. Very frequently the instruction given is of an *objective* nature. This is the case when by presenting objects to the mind of the pupils their curiosity is excited, their observation and thought guided, and their attention fixed. Objective and indirect teaching have the highest value as methods of training, but direct teaching is not to be set aside, notwithstanding the frequency with which it is abused. "Teach pupils to find out for themselves" is a safe maxim.

Drill.—To fix a series of facts in the mind of a child requires much *reiteration*. The truth which a pupil reaches under the guidance of a teacher he should be taught to reach again with greater readiness and certainty. Increased power and facility are cultivated by repeating the same acts. A large amount of practice in the shape of drill exercises is essential in elementary classes. Some time of nearly every lesson may be devoted to this process. A word of caution is needed to prevent drill from taking the place of intelligent teaching. To keep "pegging away," without giving proper attention to mental activity, leads to wearisome, unnecessary and mechanical labor. Bright pupils in graded schools are often neglected by the use of too much drill.

Reproduction.—In order that we may learn clearly what pupils know they must express themselves in words. Knowledge which cannot be put in language is indefinite and uncertain. To test the attainments of the pupils becomes necessary in order to give right instruction. In all teaching the acquired mental power of the pupils should be constantly tested. The ability of the child to observe, to reason, and to use language, is measured when he is called upon to state what he has acquired. Power to recall, to imagine, to compare, to analyze, to generalize and to discriminate, may be cultivated by practice in reproducing what has been taught. When pupils are required to mention what they have gained from the study of a lesson, or from observation, the accuracy of their knowledge and the soundness of their views are tested. Practice in this process of teaching may, as in the case of drill, be carried too far. It should be recollected that tests of the attainments of pupils are only a means to an end. Oral and written examinations are an essential feature of every

well-devised system of teaching, (Chapter XVI.). Too many examinations should, however, be avoided.

Reviews.—Lessons of a *recapitulatory* or examinatory nature are essential to good teaching. These should be given at certain times to review and sum up the teaching of a previous series of lessons. Skilfully employed, such recitations are of great value in keeping information fresh and ready for use, in giving a wider grasp of a topic, and in enabling the pupils to observe relationships and to apply general principles. With judiciously arranged review lessons the memory is strengthened, a broader view of the entire subject is possible, and there is prevented that cramping and narrowing effect which results when the details of each recitation are considered apart from the other lessons.

In a sense every lesson should include, if necessary, review questions. To "finish" the course in two-thirds of the academic year, with the object of spending the rest of the time in reviews, shows a misconception of good teaching. If a subject is taught properly, reviews each day, week or month, have recognition in the regular work. For junior classes a review each Friday has its advantages. The better plan—especially for advanced pupils—is to review the subject when a chapter or topic has been finished by the class. Review questions, or review lessons, should show the same definiteness of purpose and logical arrangement that mark every other well-conducted recitation.

Progression.—The learner must proceed step by step. The teacher guides, but the pupils ascend, round by round, by their own efforts. The learner's present attainments should be made the basis of the teacher's work. If there is unity in the aim of the teacher, and if the proper end is kept in view, a rule of selection and adaptation must be followed. The progress of the pupil should be a growth

in the mind with each part rising naturally out of the preceding, and forming itself into the mind. A number of well-known maxims have value in the various methods of instruction: Some of them should be received with caution. They include, in some cases, half-truths, or sound principles that may be misapplied.

1. *Nature's Method.* It is a popular statement to say that education should follow Nature. The teacher does not really develop the minds of the pupils, nor does he determine the order of their development. He must look to Nature as his guide. He only assists Nature. By observation and study he becomes acquainted with Nature's laws and learns how mental growth takes place. In this way he is guided in choosing objects of knowledge, and in presenting facts to his pupils. If the teacher adopts methods that run counter to mental processes, he is not following Nature's method. It should be understood, however, that there is no force called Nature which will carry on education. Mental and moral growth, as well as physical growth, demands intelligent guidance.

2. *From the Known to the Unknown.* The first thing in teaching is to find out what the pupil knows that is most nearly allied to what is to be presented. There must be a starting point; there must be something upon which to build. The irksomeness felt in the early stages of some subjects is due to the want of a foundation. To stimulate the activity of the pupil, and to secure a ready reception for new material, it is necessary to take hold of something already in the mind. It is evident no fixed plan will suit all cases, and the skill of the teacher is exhibited in the tact with which he makes himself acquainted with the existing conditions. In almost all cases the pupil has some previous knowledge of the subject acquired in some

way, and his attainments will determine the mode of procedure. The most elementary facts may at first require attention.

The teacher must make the most of the pupil's knowledge. Every lesson should be connected with former lessons. Progress should be in the right direction. The steps should be proportioned to the age and power of the pupil. Each additional fact, reason, proof, and inference should be adapted to the end in view. New truths should be made familiar before further steps are attempted. It is a great mistake to take up a series of lessons without necessary recapitulations and reviews. Pupils should be taught to make discoveries for themselves, and thus "proceed from the known to the unknown."

3. *Simple to Complex.* The young child has difficulty in discerning relations. What is complex may have to be broken up into its elements so that it may be presented in small portions. It may be necessary to lead the pupil along the steps of a subject consecutively, and not by great strides over several intermediate ones at once. If what is simple is presented first, what is complex may be subsequently grasped.

"Although this principle of education is generally known and acknowledged, yet comparatively few teachers understand it rightly, or practise it completely. It is by no means uncommon to find teachers practising a dogmatic and technical system of instruction; while, at the same time, they believe that they are teaching from the simple to the complex; our dogmatic modes of instruction are simple enough as regards the work of the master, whilst they are anything but simple when considered in relation to the mental efforts required of the pupil. As this species of self-delusion is so fatal in its consequences, it is important that we should exactly understand what is meant by teaching from the simple to the complex. We teach from the simple to the complex when we explain the various particular forms of a general or abstract principle,

before we attempt to explain the general principle itself ; or when we explain the simpler elements or parts of a subject, before we attempt to teach the subject as a whole."—*Tate*.

4. *Concrete to Abstract.* Early impressions come by means of the senses. Accordingly it may be necessary to make a child's conception of a subject clearer by an appeal to the senses. Hence object lessons have an important place in the mode of instruction used with young children. The objects themselves may make ideas clear which cannot be explained by verbal description. Diagrams, maps, apparatus, pictorial illustrations, etc., have their well known value in teaching. It is a mistake to suppose that what is concrete is necessarily clear. This maxim may be misunderstood.

"Taken literally it is impossible, for there is no concrete knowledge with which to begin. Nor is it true as implying that definite knowledge is easier to get than general knowledge. It is just as difficult, requires as much preparation, as much mental energy, and as much maturity of mind, to make a clear distinction as to make broad generalization. Both processes, in fact, occur together as different aspects of comparison. To transform knowledge from hazy into definite, and from isolated into connected forms, are both ends of instruction, and the educator cannot safely assume that either process has been already accomplished before his work begins. Undoubtedly many who use the precept have a correct meaning back of it, but this meaning would be better expressed : *Develop representations from presentations.*"—*McLellan*.

5. *Wholes, then Parts.* The whole of an object must be grasped in some way before its parts are understood. All complex objects of study are, in the first place, perceived in a vague and indefinite manner. A child has an idea of a house, a horse, a man, etc., before he has any conception of the parts of any one of them. The more prominent parts are then recognized by very elementary

powers of analysis. The unit must be the basis of instruction, but a part of an object may be the unit as well as the object itself. This maxim is almost similar to the preceding ones, and, like them, it may be misapplied. It may be generally recognized that the child should begin to learn what is nearest to him. He should advance to the remote and the ideal from the actual and the practical.

6. *Knowing and Doing.* Knowing and doing should proceed together. Curiosity and activity are natural characteristics of childhood. The former fosters a spirit of investigation, and the latter fastens knowledge. The self-activity of the child must be appealed to in all kinds of instruction, but this self-activity must be guided by intelligence. If the acts performed by pupils become merely mechanical there is no growth in knowledge. In early youth valuable habits may doubtless be formed without explanations for conduct being given. As children grow older, methods of instruction demand knowledge as the basis of the activities put forth. Pupils should be led to discover things for themselves. The suggestive method of instruction promotes the principle of self-development. In order that this spirit of self-development may be maintained, pupils should not be required to do what is beyond their capacity. They should not, as a rule, receive information which they can find out without the teacher's assistance. Voluntary efforts are most valuable. Too often there is a tendency to check the growth of the inventive faculties, by filling the mind with knowledge instead of cultivating original power.

REFERENCES.

McLellan, Tate, Landon, Raub, Fitch, Rein, De Garmo.

CHAPTER XV.

THE ART OF QUESTIONING.

Importance of this Art.—The most valuable method of conducting a recitation is the question method. The teacher who knows how to question his class has fairly mastered the pedagogic art. The prime object of teaching is to get pupils to think rightly. Judicious questioning is the best means of arousing mental activity. To secure intellectual growth the attention of the child must be arrested, his interest in the subject created or intensified; definiteness of thought promoted, studious habits cultivated, and energy and enthusiasm aroused. In no way has the teacher greater power to secure good results than by the use of the question method of teaching. It affords pupils a valuable training in readiness of thought and speech: It promotes mental development, and secures good discipline.

“Effectively used it should spur the indolent, stimulate the sluggish, challenge the inattentive, restrain the forward, control the rash, expose the careless, encourage the timid, and help the dull; and, at the same time, it should fully employ the more intelligent members of the class in such a way as to make available the knowledge of individuals for the benefit of all.”—*London*.

Objects of Questioning.—It is the object of questioning to give proper direction to the thoughts of the learner, to ascertain what he knows of the subject, to detect and correct any errors into which he may have

fallen, to bring out the important details of the subject, to unfold the principles involved, to foster self-effort in the discovery of truth, and to train to habits of reflection.

Before adding to the information of a pupil, the extent of his knowledge should be ascertained. Unless this course is taken, the instruction given may not be adapted to his mental requirements, and the teaching may become too easy or too difficult, and perhaps wearisome by its monotony and lack of power to stimulate. With suitable questions the attention may be directed to facts already known, and in this way knowledge may be fixed in the mind. Self-activity calls into play the processes of analysis and synthesis, those of induction and deduction, and the exercise of the reasoning powers. The thoroughness of the knowledge will determine the amount of drill that may be desirable before additional instruction is imparted. Vague ideas should be made definite, and mistakes corrected before new ground is entered upon. This may require numerous questions, careful explanations, and clear expositions. At the same time, the power of correct expression is cultivated, and the clear connection between words and ideas becomes a settled feature of mental development.

When the knowledge of the pupil is tested another purpose of questioning is presented. To train the child is more important than to measure the extent of his knowledge. Training is impossible unless interest (Chapter XIV.) is aroused. Suitable questions excite curiosity, remove obscurity, and produce self-activity. Discoveries inspire zeal, create confidence, and lead to habits of self-education. A question will often secure the attention of pupils when they would otherwise remain listless. Habits of inattention among pupils are generally the outcome of

defective questioning. No mode of putting questions to a class and no style of questions can be defended, that will not arouse in the pupils a spirit of enquiry and habits of self-questioning.

"Clearly, the intellectual habit can be formed by logical questioning and by this alone. The pouring out processes, whether by textbooks, that copiously explain the easy and are silent on the difficult, or by teachers who, with a fatal flow of words, explain everything, works against independent investigation and the growth of power. The wordy teacher has been referred to; the wordy annotator deserves a passing notice. He is more to be dreaded than the wordy teacher. The young learner will sometimes venture to question the scientific or literary accuracy of the oral instructor; but he receives with unquestioning reverence the printed statements of the annotator."—*McLellan*.

Abuse of Questioning.—The best methods of instruction may be abused. Questioning is the best means, but not the only good means, of conducting a recitation. The lecture or the conversational method may be occasionally employed. The use of illustration cannot be ignored. The results of the teacher's efforts will often point out the course to adopt. It may be well to tell pupils the facts at times. Excessive questioning confuses and bewilders.

"Many teachers use questioning as though it were an end in itself, and fail to see that it is easy to over-question to such an extent as to retard the teaching, and smother up the point to be learned in a cloud of answers. This purposeless questioning has done much to bring the device into disrepute. Directly the object is gained, the teacher should pass on. Anything beyond what is necessary for clear understanding and firm grasp only bewilders the children, and darkens what it should illuminate. Not unfrequently, too, in teaching, a large amount of time is wasted in endeavoring to question from children ordinary matters of fact, which they can only learn by being told directly. To question again and again in the hope that the point may be gained, or arrived at by a process of exhaustion, is to misunderstand completely the use of questioning, and is not only stupid but blameworthy."—*Landen*.

The Teacher's Prerequisites.—The questioner requires to have the qualifications of the teacher (Chapter VII.) in an eminent degree. A knowledge of the subject of instruction is essential. His attainments should embrace not only an extensive acquaintance with the subject itself, but a knowledge of kindred branches. The primary teacher has great need of wide culture, in view of the great skill required to question young pupils. The preparation of the lesson is essential (Chapter XIII.). Bad preparation leads to feeble teaching and to indifference on the part of pupils.

The teacher needs a thorough training of the analytic faculty. Dull teaching is the product of an untrained mind. A logical method of thinking is essential as a factor in producing a right order in the arrangement of questions. To know how to train children, a knowledge of child nature is indispensable. The teacher who successfully uses the question method must observe the workings of the mind. No amount of scholarship will make up for ignorance of the laws that govern mental action. Unless the teacher has a full appreciation of the pupil's condition of mind, both as to capacity and degree of attainments, the instruction will lack proper direction. The special laws of suggestion and association must be understood. An intelligent grasp of the conditions and peculiarities of the learners is essential. The teacher must be able to frame his own questions. The exact question to put to a class must often be determined at the moment.

The personality of the teacher is the most powerful element in his qualifications as a questioner. Heart-power as well as head-power is requisite. Scholarship will not supply the defects that come from the lack of such elements as energy, sympathy, enthusiasm, decision of character, and

that insight into human nature which marks the man of keen judgment. To arouse the dull is a constant duty of the successful teacher. To help the weak, to develop the intelligence of the indolent, and to implant habits of right thinking in all members of the class will demand teachers who are stout-hearted and strong-brained. Excellence can be attained only by intelligent practice. The beginner will make mistakes, but if he knows his errors there is hope of improvement and possibly of ultimate success. The most eminent teachers are those who recognized their failures and made repeated efforts to triumph over difficulties.

The Subject-Matter of Questions.—A good question is definite, and, as far as possible, it should admit of only one answer. Obscurity in the language of a question may lead to incorrect answers. Questions should be pertinent. Irrelevant questioning is often due to want of proper preparation. Questions should sometimes be asked that cannot be answered from the text-book, but they should have a bearing on the lesson.

Questions should be accompanied with no useless verbiage in the way of introductory phrases. The language should embrace no more words than are necessary. A clumsy or slipshod way of stating a question is unfair to children. It should not be necessary, as a rule, to repeat a question, or to change the form in which it is expressed. A change may, however, be essential if the question has not been clearly stated, or if the ability of the students has been over-estimated. Several short questions are better than one long one.

Questions should be properly graded. They should be sufficiently difficult to necessitate effort. Inattention, carelessness, habits of guessing, and superficiality, result

from the use of questions that may be answered without mental effort. The capacity of different pupils must be recognized. It will not do to discourage either the dull or the bright pupils. It is no uncommon thing to find teachers giving questions that demand answers of greater length or hardness than the attainments of the pupils warrant. Such teaching bewilders children, and causes them to become discouraged and to relax intellectual effort. A series of easy questions may be what is needed to secure the end desired. It is a mistake to ask young pupils questions that demand a long process of reasoning. Easy questions and also more difficult ones may be necessary where pupils in a class differ much in their attainments. Teaching that does not stimulate is worthless. Verbal repetition or constant drill on what is well known is useless and pernicious. Questions that are not suggestive fail to promote mental development. Occasionally questions may be put beyond the power of the majority of the class. They give interest to the bright pupils, and prevent them from growing discouraged or listless. A few hard questions for the class to think over are serviceable. So far as possible, the questions on the lesson should be exhaustive. If confined to a part of the lesson, the value of due proportion is overlooked.

Form of Questions.—Questions should be put in concise form. If expressed in long sentences the pupils lose the idea. To gather the exact meaning the language must be precise. Ambiguous questions fail to train in habits of definite thought.

Questions should be varied in form and in degree of difficulty. Monotony wearies. Undue simplicity does not train. Questions, if too hard, discourage. A lack of variety in framing questions leads to like defects in

answering. The wording of questions should depend upon how far the pupils understand the subject. With young children it may be necessary to ask the same information on different days in a changed form. The mental exercise involved in giving the answer will determine the degree of difficulty which the question should assume. The ability of the child to express his thoughts fluently, his acquaintance with the subject, and his physical condition, must not be overlooked. Categorical questions, or such as call for direct and positive answers, create life and interest in young pupils. In reviews the topical method is very valuable. Problems to be solved, translations to be made, and exercises to be written, are highly important forms of questions for advanced classes.

Questions should be put in grammatical form. A statement or an ellipsis changed into a question is objectionable. The choice of words in asking questions is important. It is a common error with teachers to have no clear idea of what they mean until the question is partly framed. The wording is often altered before the question is finished. Defects of this kind give pupils bad models in oral composition.

Questions should be put in an engaging way as well as in an attractive form. A cheerful, appreciative, lively and sympathetic manner on the part of the teacher has great influence in securing ready responses to his questions. Vivacity and pleasantness, an animated and conversational style of questioning, and the absence of formalism will induce pupils to do their best, will banish drowsiness and indisposition to effort, and will prevent them from flagging or becoming wearied of the lesson. The teacher must be natural in his manner.

"Some teachers make the mistake of being fussy and bustling, which is tiresome and disconcerting; others of being stilted and magisterial, which is chilling and depressing; a few of being too exacting, and correcting mistakes in a harsh, snappish way, which renders the children afraid to answer, and eventually silences them."—*Landon*.

Order of Questions.—Questions should follow one another in systematic order. Each should seem to grow out of the answer which preceded it. A loose, disconnected, random set of enquiries, which have little logical relation, is very objectionable. Rambling questions prevent continuous thinking, lead to confusion, and discourage pupils. Examination questions may, however, be occasionally discursive. To be effective, all that the questions embrace should be coherent and connected. Lawyers study the art of questioning, as is shown by the connected, straightforward story they are able to get from a timid but honest witness. Any irrelevant or needless matter that is introduced does not turn the barrister aside from the purpose he has in view. The sum of the replies given to the questioner, as reported in the press, reads like a consistent narrative.

Short digressions may be unavoidable and essential. Hard words and incidental statements may need explanation. New trains of thought may call for consideration. There may be good reasons for bringing in illustrations, and even an occasional anecdote. Logical consistency does not require the teacher to be the slave of mechanical routine. The concentration of studies is sound in principle, but the correlation of studies should also be recognized. It is possible that a question in grammar, or even in arithmetic, would not be pedagogically out of place in giving a lesson in history. Still, it will not do to lose sight of the main purpose of the recitation. All needless

digression should be carefully avoided. Incidental difficulties and matters that pertain to other recitations should not beguile a teacher into a neglect of the truths which primarily belong to the lesson.

Objectionable Questions.—The method of instruction by means of answers to set questions from a book is antiquated. There are but few subjects that can be properly taught in this way. Questions should be in the teacher's own words. The catechism form of instruction is at variance with sound principles of teaching. The living voice and the spontaneous effort are essential. In training the intellectual faculties, the sequence of facts, thoughts, or ideas is more important than any clear apprehension or expression that comes disconnectedly. Whatever value, by way of suggestion, questions at the end of a chapter may be to teacher or pupil, the plan of depending solely on them is to be condemned. If the teaching is confined to them, the logical arrangement of facts is slighted and the pupils get only a partial knowledge of the truth. The catechetical method of question and answer has disappeared wherever improved systems of teaching are adopted.

Questions that simply require a *yes* or *no* answer should be used only occasionally. They may at times save time and arouse a class to activity. The same objection holds to any questions that encourage guessing. Those of alternate forms, where either of two answers is right, are bad. Elliptical questions, where the pupil is expected to complete a sentence of which the teacher has given a part, have seldom much educative value. For young pupils such questions, if given occasionally, may help to keep up the continuity of the lesson. For advanced classes a method that habituates them to give direct and independent answers is required. All questions that include or suggest

the answer give little benefit. There should be nothing in the voice of the teacher, in any gesture he makes, or in any expression of his face, that will give a clue to the required reply.

Questions that from the extent of information required, or from their vague, pointless, or ambiguous form, simply perplex, serve no good purpose. The interests of the pupils are too important to have any part of the recitation occupied in merely "killing time." All haphazard, silly, pert, or pedantic questions are out of place. The design of good questioning is to train pupils to clear and earnest thinking. Inattention, thoughtlessness and indifference are fostered by objectionable methods of questioning.

Kinds of Questions.—*Testing Questions.* These are used to determine the quantity and quality of the knowledge, skill and power which pupils have acquired. They may be merely preliminary, tentative, or experimental. They enable the instructor to feel his way, to sound the depths of the previous knowledge of the pupils, and to prepare them for the reception of what is to be taught. They may also be used for purposes of examination. What the teacher has to communicate must be joined on to what the pupils already know. Besides clearing the way for the lesson, tentative questions promote effort, create interest, whet the mental appetite, and prepare the pupils for their intellectual meal. Such questions are required at the opening of the recitation to arrange the ground-work of the lesson, to turn the thoughts of the pupils into the right groove, to arouse the curiosity, and to foster the desire for knowledge. Throughout the lesson such questions enable the teacher to preserve attention, to discover how far he has been understood, to see in what direction caution is needed, to know what weak points must be strengthened,

to ascertain what misconceptions must be corrected, and to determine what difficulties must be removed. At the end of a division of the lesson or at the close of the recitation, testing questions are also valuable. They fix in the minds of the pupils the facts that have been taught, point out necessary relations, emphasize leading truths, supply deficiencies and correct errors.

Training Questions. These are used to develop fresh ideas out of what is known. They are instructive, because new information is acquired; illustrative, because they throw light on what is known; and educative, because they bring into active exercise the powers of the pupils. Their main purpose is to get the pupils to discover new facts for themselves, by guiding them through easy processes of thought or reasoning. At first training questions do little more than give such direction to the thoughts as may make relationships clear. They simply appeal, in the early stages of the child's mental growth, to the powers of observation and to the exercise of the memory. Subsequently they present easy steps in the processes of analysis and induction, and encourage children by giving them a knowledge of what they can accomplish by themselves. It is assumed that what pupils find out is more valuable to them than what they are told. Training questions direct attention forward to the unknown, and cultivate connected thinking, rapidity of apprehension, and ready expression. It should be understood that no amount of questioning will furnish pupils all the information they require. A great deal must be gained from books or from the teacher's explanations. Unfortunately too little is frequently left to the pupil to discover. It is too often the custom to look for text-books that have everything presented in a "cut-and-dried form," and to expect the teacher to make

his instruction so lucid that students will be saved the "hardship" of exercising their brains. The evil here referred to will grow less if examiners set questions to test intellectual power and skill, rather than to test knowledge (Chapter XVI.).

The two classes already mentioned show the essential features of the various kinds of questions. It is customary to apply names to different groups of questions, according to their more specific duties. The Socratic method of questioning has already been described (Chapter XIII.). The terms preliminary, tentative, experimental, recapitulatory, categorical, illustrative, examinatory, instructive, educative, etc., sufficiently explain what is meant. In each case the real object is to test the knowledge of the pupil, or to train his intellectual powers. It should also be observed that the purposes of some questions may be both testing and training, and that the specific functions of a question may be of two or more kinds.

Class Questioning.—A person may know how to instruct an individual pupil, and yet fail to give questions that answer the purposes of class instruction. The whole class, and not one pupil, has to be considered in giving questions. The difficulties to be met arise from the varied attainments of the pupils, the large number in the class, the different points of view from which the subject matter is considered, and the necessity of keeping all interested in their work. It becomes essential to preserve the interest of the other members of the class when one pupil is questioned, and to study the utmost economy of time that is consistent with efficient instruction. In some subjects, like reading, individual tests cannot be dispensed with. In all subjects the methods of class questioning should never ignore individual instruction. The interests of all the pupils, and

especially the needs of the most backward, must be kept in mind. Showers of questions and answers in rapid succession do not indicate effective teaching. Generally such methods are not conducive to right thinking. There are some characteristic modes of putting questions to a class that should be noticed:—

The Simultaneous Method. In this method the questions are put to the whole class, and the pupils answer in concert. If insight and caution are exercised it gives life to the recitation. It saves time, stimulates a dull class, and encourages timid children.

It has serious defects—makes a show of work, deludes the teacher and pupils regarding results, smothers individual effort, and fosters the habit of relying on others. It lessens individual responsibility, develops a noisy manner in children, leads to superficial knowledge, affords poor mental discipline, and supplies no reliable means of testing information. If used at all it should be used with constant vigilance. Children are too ready to chime in with a few leaders in the class, and unless the teacher is watchful he may be deceived regarding the value of some answers. Occasionally all the pupils may be expected, when a signal is given, to answer simultaneously, and where a training in smartness is needed, a recourse to this method has some advantages.

The Consecutive Method. In the case of this method questions are addressed in succession to several pupils individually. The questions are put to them one after another in some definite order. There is a saving of time by this plan since each member of the class recites in turn, and it is not necessary to name the pupils. The certainty of being asked causes each to be on the alert when his turn comes. The teacher gives the questions and

receives the answers without being obliged to call upon the pupils to answer. All the pupils have an opportunity of answering, and none are overlooked. When there are few in a class this method may be found satisfactory. In a large class the method to be valuable requires the teacher habitually to direct questions out of the order followed.

The consecutive method has also its defects. It fails to secure close and universal attention. When a pupil gets his question he is inclined to let his mind wander till his turn comes again. There is danger that pupils will prepare only what they expect to be called upon to answer. The custom with pupils in former times of calculating what verse or word would come to them was a result of this method. The consecutive method prevents a thorough testing of the attainments of the class. There is no certainty that each pupil will receive the question best suited for himself and for the entire class. The careless pupil is virtually abandoned.

The Promiscuous Method. Generally the best way of asking a question is to address the whole class. Each pupil should understand that he may be expected to reply. In stating the question no sign should be shown that would indicate who is to answer. It may be necessary to ask some one to repeat the question. The main thing is to secure that every pupil is on the alert. Each question should be given to that pupil who, with due regard to the interests of the class, stands in most need of receiving it. Directly a child begins to gaze about he may receive the question. This method has the great advantage of enabling the teacher to apply a proper distribution of tests. The idle pupil may be asked to recite, the inattentive one called to order, the clever one required to explain for the benefit of the backward, and the questions distributed in such a way as will do most good.

Though the promiscuous method is better than the simultaneous or the consecutive plan, yet it has some defects and certain limitations. It is slow, and in a large class some pupils may be overlooked. There is the danger that the bright pupils may receive too many questions, or that the dull ones may be unduly called upon by a severe teacher.

Combined Methods. The skilful teacher makes a wise combination of different methods. While mainly adopting the promiscuous method, he makes use, to some extent, of the consecutive plan, so that no pupil may be overlooked. Now and then animation is secured by requiring all the pupils to answer simultaneously. If he goes from one pupil to another in a certain order he holds each one in the class responsible, and frequently gives a suitable question to a pupil out of the order. One member of the class may be called upon to give a translation or to solve a problem, and the attention of the rest may be kept up by calling promiscuously for short answers to simple questions on the topic under consideration. At times all who think they can answer may be required to stand; or better still, those unable to answer the question may be asked to rise. The stereotyped method of getting pupils to raise their hands if prepared to answer, and calling upon one of them, is objectionable. It should not be assumed that only some members of the class are prepared to recite. If the classification is satisfactory every pupil should be expected to have mastered the subject. Children should be encouraged to ask questions of the teacher. This plan will serve to banish the idea of drudgery from the minds of the pupils, and will furnish the teacher further opportunities for putting suitable questions to them. Sometimes it is a relief from routine work to allow children to question one

another. An exercise conducted in this way often affords a pleasing relaxation and a useful training in self-confidence and readiness of reply. Sometimes written answers, instead of oral ones, should be given to questions. The written exercises may be considered or compared at the time, or may be examined and discussed the next day the subject is taken up. In short, the needs of a class require the teacher to adopt such devices in class questioning as are best calculated to secure the right kind of thinking from each pupil.

Answers to Questions.—The teacher should give pupils sufficient time to think before calling for the answer. Hurry is a hindrance to learning. Unnecessary delays should not be allowed. Except in small classes, pupils should stand when answering questions. A becoming attitude must be insisted upon. A slovenly or conceited manner should not be allowed. Pupils should not be permitted to shout out their answers, to give them in a monotonous drawl, or to put them in such an indistinct and mumbling way that only a few words can be heard. A natural tone of voice should be required. Promptness should be encouraged, and also aptness in putting ideas in the best form of words.

Exactness of expression is an important quality of good answering. The answers should be to the point, and should not include superfluous information. They should be clear, concise, comprehensive, and free from haziness of conception and vagueness of language. Indefiniteness should be discouraged. The form of answers will vary with the subject and the age of the pupils. Complete answers are desirable, but partial ones must often be accepted. It is not necessary that all oral answers should

be incomplete sentences. No doubt pupils may be helped in accuracy of language, by being required to express their thoughts at times in this way. To insist always upon this mode of answering would make the recitation slow, formal, tedious, and even ridiculous. Simplicity of wording, well-considered replies, originality of thought, and brightness of manner should be aimed at. Pupils should be trained to answer questions in their own language. Written replies may be needed. Oral answers will not always do. Written examinations (Chapter XVI.) are an indispensable element in training. The reproduction of a subject is the only sure test that the subject has been mastered.

Guessing is a common fault in answering questions. A little wholesome ridicule will stop the practice. Some pupils have a reckless way of giving answers. There is no excuse for allowing a child to jump at a conclusion or to blurt out whatever first comes in his head. Vague answers are often the result of vague questions. In oral answers, and even in written answers, there are often shown much indefiniteness and the introduction of matter that has little to do with the subject. Pupils should be trained to keep to the point, to avoid any unnecessary display of knowledge, and to indulge in no speculative answers or foolish forms of expression.

Criticism of Answers.—Correct answers should be accepted and commended. It is not necessary that a teacher should use some stereotyped phrase to express his approval. A pleasant, appreciative way of receiving the answer will generally be enough. Answers that are wholly wrong should be rejected. Sharp and uncalled for criticism is out of place. A snappish, sarcastic or contemptuous

style of condemning wrong answers does no good, but much harm. Criticism should be discriminative. Honest mistakes are better than the absence of effort. Bad answers are not always an evidence of thoughtlessness. When an answer contains a mixture of truth and error, care must be taken to get at the bottom of the difficulty, and to help the pupil to find his own blunders. If answers are slow and full of errors, it should cause the teacher before criticising, to consider, that perhaps his method of teaching is defective. Care should be taken that timid pupils are not discouraged by harsh or unwise criticism. Any criticism offered should be such as will benefit the pupils. Faulty answers may be turned to good account by a skilful teacher. The correction of errors should never lead to unnecessary digressions or lectures on industry, or on any other feature of good conduct. Good answers should not be refused because they are not in the particular form expected by the teacher. Except in rare cases the teacher should not answer his own questions. He should not prompt any pupil to answer, and he should allow no prompting by any member of the class. The habit which some teachers have of repeating mechanically the answer is objectionable. No time should be wasted over answers, and any "splitting of hairs" is foolish. A pupil's self-activity is repressed, rather than promoted, by requiring perfect answers, or by insisting on those that conform to some particular model. If an answer is partly wrong and partly right, it may be that thought has been exercised and that judicious help may guide the pupil into clearer light. Credit, if due, should be given.

REFERENCES.

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CHAPTER XVI.

WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS.

Objects of Written Examinations.—The immediate object of written examinations is to ascertain the knowledge and ability of students. Except in the case of very elementary classes, oral tests, though valuable, are not sufficient. Reproduction in writing of what a pupil has acquired is generally the best test of what he knows and of what he can do.

Written examinations furnish data that may be serviceable to the teacher, the student and the public. The question papers may be set by the teacher, the principal or inspector, or by outside examiners, according to the purposes for which the tests are to be employed. The examinations may be a regular part of the work of the school. They may be used to settle what pupils are to be promoted to higher classes. Very frequently written examinations are made a means of testing the fitness of candidates for certain positions. Training, promotion, and qualifying examinations, thus mentioned, have become a recognized feature of every efficient system of education. It has been found difficult in practice to separate any one of these kinds of examinations from either of the others, and the objections often raised against such written tests are largely due to the results that have followed a combination of the three aims. The attacks on examinations

are mainly directed against tests made by outside examiners for purposes of promotion, or for the purpose of determining to whom certificates that have a commercial or qualifying value should be awarded. Examinations are sometimes competitive, the object being to award prizes, scholarships, or positions to the candidate who is deemed most deserving of such distinctions. These examinations are not an essential feature of the functions of school or college. The objections that may be made to them are valid, and have done much to bring unjust discredit upon the entire system of written examinations.

Advantages.—*To the student* written examinations give information regarding his attainments, showing how far his knowledge is thorough or inaccurate, how far his mode of learning a subject has been right or wrong, and what plans he must adopt for future progress. Written examinations are often revelations to the student of his ability, as well as of his weaknesses and defects. The thorough scholar has no fear of them, but the smatterer dreads them. The certainty that his work will be examined is a powerful, but legitimate, stimulus to effort. Written examinations call for the prompt exercise of intellectual energy which must be self-evolved. They improve the memory, the judgment, and the language of the student. They demand concentration of thought, sustained mental effort, and a ready use of available resources. They serve as an incentive to study and induce attention, interest and industry. They encourage thoroughness and promptitude, cultivate method and self-reliance, strengthen the will, discourage stagnation and forgetfulness, and afford the student a means of estimating his knowledge, his powers and his progress. They give to his school work a measure of dignity, increase his self-

respect, develop a sturdy, honest, independent manhood, and furnish a preparation for the more important conflicts and struggles that are inevitable when school life is over.

To the teacher written examinations reveal the results of his labor, the failure or success of his methods, the soundness or weakness of his pedagogical principles, and show to what extent he may find it necessary to examine his theories and modify his work. They tell how far his efforts to awaken permanent intellectual activity and to impart real knowledge have been successful. They show how much his pupils know, how readily they can apply their knowledge, how far the information they have gained may answer the purpose in view, and how well facts can be retained. A searching written examination often becomes a virtual eye-opener to an inexperienced teacher, who wanders in his instruction, talks to little purpose, explains very much, but seldom makes a halt to test results. They indicate the trend of thought of the pupil, his grasp of mind, his habits of study, and his progress in mental development. They often serve as a review of the work of the month or term, showing how far the pupils can make a logical arrangement of the knowledge acquired, and how well they can generalize or discuss in a topical manner what has been taken up in a series of lessons. They enable the teacher to add to his personal knowledge valuable data, that will assist in the classification of the pupils and in the organization of the school. They relieve him, to some extent, of possible charges of favoritism that arise when the promotions are based exclusively upon his own judgment. When there are several teachers in the school, occasional written examinations directed by the principal are necessary, to enable him to gauge the work of each member of his staff, and thus keep himself informed

regarding matters of organization and discipline, for which he is responsible to the trustees. Right lines of teaching may, in this way, be suggested to those less experienced; defects may be pointed out, and unity of aim and the use of good methods may become a general feature of the school. The examination papers, set by some central Board, may serve to prevent teachers from falling into ruts, and may afford a means of having their work compared with what is done in other places.

To the public written examinations furnish, if fairly held, an estimate of the teacher's ability and the efficiency of the school. To judge a teacher's success wholly by examinations is a great educational blunder, but to ignore them is a greater blunder. The test they supply is a valuable one, but whenever it is used due consideration should be given to all the factors which produce results. Written examinations will often expose defective scholarship on the part of the teacher, bad methods of instruction, and objectionable features of school organization. A lack of power to inspire pupils with a love for their work, an indifference to their progress, and an ignorance of what constitutes a training for the duties of life, are sometimes shown by means of a written examination to be faults of the teacher. Generally good work is done in a school where pupils, year after year, pass good examinations. It should be recollected, however, that good results depend more on the ability of the pupils than on the efficiency of the school. The success of a pupil is largely determined by his natural capacity, his early training, his attainments at the beginning of the term, his home associations, and the interest he takes in his work. It would be unfair to hold the principal responsible for the failure of the school to gain a good record, when the trustees have not furnished satisfactory accommodation,

sufficient apparatus, and works of reference for the library ; and especially when they have refused or neglected to employ a sufficient number of properly qualified assistants.

Written examinations, if wisely held, give parents and the interested public an excellent test of the progress and attainments of children. Parents should not be left in the dark regarding the application to study their children are making at school. The course in life of pupils is often determined by what a written examination reveals. It is in the public interest that the career of each individual should be well chosen. Written examinations materially assist in determining the natural or acquired ability of pupils. An examination furnishes the best available method of preventing persons from entering callings for which they are fitted neither by natural endowments nor by acquired attainments. Doubtless success at examinations does not guarantee success in after life. There are elements besides scholarship that persons must possess in order to get on in the world. It is true, nevertheless, that few intelligent persons would propose to open the doors to the professions of law, medicine, teaching, divinity, etc., by removing the tests of fitness which are furnished by written examinations.

Training Examinations.—Examinations have an educative value. Those conducted by the teacher are especially used for this purpose. The good teacher is constantly making use of oral and written tests, so as to give proper direction to his instruction. For young children oral questions and answers must be the rule. As pupils advance in their studies written work increases. The principles which guide the teacher in the art of questioning will, to a considerable extent, guide him in the matter of written examinations. The exercises should, as in the

case of oral questions, foster right thought. They should furnish a training that will promote insight, intellectual power, facility in acquiring knowledge, and power to express ideas in good language.

Written examinations given by the teacher are the necessary complement of good instruction. If wisely arranged they need occasion no injurious mental strain, no danger to health, and no over-pressure. The examinations held during the term should follow the development of the subject taught, and should prepare the pupils for what, to them, should be the less difficult papers set at the promotion or qualifying examinations. Whenever the teacher is satisfied that it will do good, he should hold a written examination. Written examinations for training purposes are not intended to disturb the regular work of the school. They should not supersede oral tests. The growth of the system of examinations has too often caused a decline in the frequency and thoroughness of oral test exercises in elementary schools as well as in High Schools. No plan of testing or recording results can be defended that would be a perversion of the true function of the school.

Generally speaking, the teacher's examinations should not be periodical. Oral and written test exercises should be used whenever required for good teaching, and at no other time. Not necessarily every week or month, but rather when a chapter has been completed, a class of problems finished, or a piece of literature mastered, should the written examination, if necessary, take place. It is obvious that the hours for true teaching tests, whether incidental or formal, cannot be made to conform to the demands of a time-table or to any other mechanical device. A conformity of this nature would be like testing the sanitary condition of a city at fixed periods, instead of

promptly attending to the health of the citizens whenever sickness exists. The time for the proper diagnosis is the appearance of diseased symptoms, and these cannot be regulated by the most skilfully devised programme.

Proper training examinations demand that the teacher shall not only prepare or prescribe the questions, but read the answer papers of his pupils. A report from outside examiners, giving the "percentages" taken, is of but little value. When all the examinations given to the pupils are left to a committee of examiners, from which the teachers are excluded, the high office of the educator sinks to that of a trade. With proper safeguards, no pupil should be advanced to a higher class or allowed to write at a qualifying examination who has not been recommended by the teacher of the school. In this way industry, obedience, honesty, courtesy, and other moral qualities may receive some recognition.

Promotion Examinations.—The careful estimate of the teacher should practically determine what pupils of his class are prepared for promotion. All his oral and written tests should enable him to determine better than any outside examiners the relative attainments of the pupils recommended for a higher class. His estimate should be based, not so much upon what his pupils have done, as upon what he believes them competent to do. The plan of allowing promotions to depend solely upon a final examination has long since been abandoned in the best schools. The evils of such a system have done much to discredit the work of the teacher, and to raise an unreasonable cry against all written examinations. Such a method is irrational, if the teacher conducts the examinations; and even cruel, if the tests are applied by an outside Board of Examiners.

In some places it is decided to have no promotion examinations. This is allowing the pendulum to swing to the opposite extreme. Teachers have sometimes little experience and need guidance in their work from the principal or the inspector. The questions set for these examinations serve to maintain a proper standard of efficiency. It is also desirable to have promotion examinations so as to relieve the teacher from any unjust charges of partiality, and to protect children from any injustice that might arise if their attainments are not fairly valued. Teachers, it should be remembered, are only human, and, therefore, liable to err. The question papers for promotion examinations should not be too difficult, and they need not be set in every subject. No pupil should be relieved from taking them except in the case of sickness, or some other legitimate cause. No proper written examination should be regarded as a necessary evil, but as a positive good. To look upon any examination of the school as a hardship is to admit that the test is both disadvantageous and unnecessary. If any pupils are to be excluded from the promotion examinations they should be those that are not recommended by the teacher. It is much better, however, to have the examinations regarded as a part of the work of the term.

Qualifying Examinations.—To gain a certificate that will admit the holder to an honorable position is the aim of many a diligent student. The ambition is a worthy one. If the test calls for desirable mental and moral attainments, there cannot be too many young men and women in the community striving to gain the marks of distinction which the certificates indicate. The selection of candidates who are to receive certificates cannot be left to the teachers, though their judgment may, in some respects,

have weight in deciding results. An independent Board of Examiners is necessary for this object.

The appointment of a competent body for this purpose involves great responsibility, when many students are affected. The examination concerns not only those who become candidates, but the other students who are taught in the same class. The members of the Board of Examiners should be persons of broad and deep scholarship, large experience as teachers, and sound judgment. No examiner should be appointed who is behind the times in educational methods, or more anxious to propagate his pet theories than to measure good attainments and to direct scientific teaching. The membership of the Board should be changed, to some extent, from year to year, so as to prevent any possibility of getting into grooves. Every examiner of High School or University students should be an expert, but not a "crank" in his special department.

Qualifying examinations cannot be dispensed with. Certain callings demand, in the public interest, that the persons following them should have qualifications of a special character. It is important that those who enter the professions should have a good High School or University training as an evidence of preliminary fitness. That fitness cannot be determined without some test. No better one has yet been devised than a written examination. To prepare students for these examinations must form part of the teacher's work. It would be practically impossible and on principle undesirable to train pupils who are to pass qualifying examinations in separate classes from those who may never enter a High School or a University. As a consequence the entire work of the teacher is necessarily influenced by the character of the papers set at

qualifying examinations. The style of the questions given in his own written tests to the pupils, the manner he conducts the daily recitations, the knowledge he imparts, and the intellectual power he fosters, are necessarily determined by the kind of questions which it is assumed may be given by the Board. It is evident that the entire educational system of the country may be beneficially or injuriously affected by the character of the questions given at the qualifying examinations. The High School Entrance, and the University Matriculation examinations really determine what subjects engage the attention of all the pupils of the schools, and how those subjects are taught by the teachers. The questions should be such as will not only test knowledge, intellectual skill and mental power, but they should be such as will place a premium on the best methods of teaching, and on the right kind of thought. It is useless to say that teachers should teach well regardless of examinations. It may be answered that one way to teach badly is to ignore examinations. If the examination questions are of the proper kind, the teacher who prepares his pupils to pass qualifying examinations will render service of higher educational value than the one who has the vain impression that he has acquired superior talents for inspiring a love of learning for its own sake.

Examination Questions. — Examination questions should be unmistakable in their meaning. Any obscurity or ambiguity is unfair. The course of study should be carefully followed. The questions should be judiciously arranged, and should be such as will draw out the knowledge of the pupils, rather than detect their ignorance. Plain, straightforward questions, which can be answered in the time assigned if pupils have prepared their work, are

the kind to be given. Difficult questions, which can be undertaken only by the genius, are out of place. The examination should call for the application of principles rather than an enumeration of memorized facts. Questions that show pretentious knowledge on the part of the examiner should be condemned. Questions should exhibit reasonable variety. Those that puzzle or afford no play for mental grasp are alike objectionable. Scope should be given to diversity of talent. Problems in mathematics, "unseen passages" in literature, and practical work in science, are valuable features to be recognized in setting good examination papers (See Appendix.) It is important to test how knowledge has been acquired, and to defeat the efforts of students and teachers who work for results by unsound methods. One of the most disheartening things is to find a school, in which first-class work is done, come to grief through the blunder of a bad examiner.

It is also necessary that the answer papers of candidates should be fairly valued. Good judgment is needed in estimating the marks that should be given for imperfect answers. The values to be assigned to the different questions will require care. Where questions admit of variety of answers, credit should be given for any answer that is correct. In some subjects, if a mastery of certain principles is shown, it may entitle the answer to almost full value. In such departments as literature and history there is room for much difference of opinion as to what proportion of the marks should be assigned for knowledge, and what proportion for style. The standard for excellence should not be fixed too high for elementary work. It is often desirable to read several papers before deciding upon the scale of marks. Marks should be deducted for certain kinds of mistakes, and for some subjects additional marks may be

added for general merit. Papers which give a choice of questions are recommended by many educators. Their value is held by many others to be over-estimated. Unless for advanced students they confuse, and experience is against putting any questions before candidates which they may not undertake. Easy questions and the exaction of a high percentage are preferable to difficult ones with a low percentage. A fair minimum on each paper and a good percentage on the total will furnish additional means of preserving a high standard.

Various methods have been suggested for enabling the teacher's estimate to count at qualifying examinations. Universities allow, to some extent, the sessional work to be considered with the final results. In case of sickness, the industry of the student during the term comes to his relief. For professional examinations, the work during the session is deservedly made a factor in awarding certificates. In High Schools, an estimate of the attainments of each student, in which relative rank is shown, is found of much service to the Board of Examiners. As regards the High School Entrance examination the recommendation of the teacher may properly have weight, as in the case of other promotion examinations.

Objections Considered.—*Cramming.* The most popular objection raised against written examinations is that they encourage cramming. The nature and evils of this process have already been discussed (Chapter III.). The term itself is used with considerable vagueness, and the charge against examinations, if sustained, decides nothing unless it is clear what cramming means. If it is meant that written examinations lead to hasty, crude, or dishonest preparation of work, they deserve to be condemned. If they call for a statement of information that

is only memorized ; for badly digested knowledge ; for the repetition of an author's words ; or for the reproduction of the teacher's language, they have no claim for recognition in any rational system of education. On the other hand, if they tend to develop the intellectual and moral powers of the student ; if the questions call for the application of knowledge acquired, rather than a display of what the memory has retained ; if they place at a discount information that is not assimilated ; if they detect the superficial and give a high value to what is broad and thorough in the formation of character ; and if they become reliable tests of sound teaching ability, they serve a useful purpose, and furnish in themselves exercises of high educational value.

There are some subjects of study to which the term "cram" is seldom applied. A student is not ordinarily supposed to be capable, without due preparation, to pass an examination in such subjects as reading, writing, mathematics, or the translation of English passages into another language. It is sometimes assumed that in such departments as literature, history, or chemistry, a student may get ready for the examination without proper preparation. It should be recollected, however, that a good examiner is able to defeat the efforts of teachers or students who use the "cramming" method for any subject. Literature or natural science, if properly taught, discourage cramming. If the papers set for a written examination are of the right character, the student whose facility in cramming enables him to gain a certificate, deserves credit, while the one whose inability or reluctance to "cram" brings failure, deserves defeat. These assertions are true, whether the preparation involved a rapid review of a subject already studied, or a rapid study of a subject entirely new.

It should be remembered that the power of getting ready quickly for a week's contest—of promptly summoning one's resources for some great mental effort—is an admirable and necessary preparation for life. The lawyer is obliged to "cram" from statutes and judicial decisions for the trial of a case in court; the statesman crams his mind with facts and figures to support his resolutions, or to refute the arguments of an opponent; the clergyman crams for the preparation of his sermon; the merchant, if he wishes to understand the commercial outlook; the professor or teacher, if he hopes to present fresh illustrations to his class. In fact, no person succeeds in life who is not at times obliged to put forth unusual energy, to use at short notice all his available knowledge and oversight, and to concentrate his thoughts for the accomplishment of some definite object of importance to himself and to others. It is clear that any attempt to secure an education by ignoring the process of legitimate cramming, such as an examination properly conducted may demand, leaves out of view one of the essential aids for attaining its object.

The Mental Strain Injurious. Written examinations, if worth much, demand hard mental work. Intellectual exertion is beneficial, but, like physical exercise, if too severe it may defeat its object. Mental exertion should not, as has been stated, be too severe or be constantly required (Chapter II.). Children with a highly-wrought nervous temperament should be freed from any excessive strain. When pupils are promoted to a class beyond their age or attainments, when the work of a year is crowded into a few months, and when they are expected to keep pace with classmates of superior ability, it is no wonder that even the anxiety of an examination does harm. It is

not, however, the examination that is at fault, but the undue desire to get on, and the bad classification adopted. Less haste for promotion, and a better organization of the school, would have diminished the over-pressure and would have saved the pupils from an unnecessary expenditure of mental force, from much nervous anxiety, harassing worry, and possible bodily collapse. It is no valid argument against written examinations that some pupils have, under the strain, endangered their health and even their lives. The battles of life are every day presenting examples of shattered minds and bodies, but human existence is too serious in its objects to abandon on that account the contests which, in the great majority of cases, improve, rather than injure, the physical, intellectual, and moral strength of those who engage in such conflicts. It must be conceded, at all events, that the examples of excessive mental strain, which are brought to notice in connection with the work of students, call upon teachers and other educationists for such adjustments of school methods as will remove any of the real sources of well-founded complaints.

Independent Teaching Lessened. The charge is made against qualifying examinations that they destroy independence in teaching. Whatever truth there is in the complaint depends on the nature of the questions. If the person who sets the paper is not guided by sound principles of teaching, originality is discouraged and the idiosyncrasies of the examiner are studied. If his questions discount mechanical teaching, the work of the mere imitator is discredited. If the examiner is not a true teacher, his questions may mislead, and do harm to the school. Satisfactory papers will, on the other hand, broaden the horizon of a teacher whose views are narrow on account of inexperience, and they will give greater opportunity to the

teacher of breadth and originality for the display of his genius. To say that a teacher should confine his pupils to his own questions, is to say that he should receive no direction from those more skilful than himself, or that he should evolve his own pedagogical principles without gaining any benefit from standard works on the science of education or the art of teaching. As well might it be claimed that inspectors, and teachers of County Model Schools, Normal Schools and Normal Colleges destroy originality of effort.

Some Qualities not Tested. It may be admitted that written examinations sometimes fail to give a just estimate of a student's attainments. It does not follow that those who succeed at examinations will do well in after life. It is fortunately true that many who strive hard to pass examinations and who fail, have, nevertheless, bright careers in after life. The effort to win was a help. In spite of all that has been said against mere scholarship, those who are successful in life generally manifested at school those qualities which have weight at examinations. Ability to pass an examination helped many persons to get on in the world. A want of the same ability never assisted any one to win fame or to gain wealth. To say that many distinguished men never passed a brilliant examination, proves no more than to say that many persons gained fame who never attended a High School.

It is true that many qualities of mind and heart are not revealed by written examinations. It is true that good intentions receive no recognition when the answer papers are examined. The percentages awarded depend on what has been done. Moral qualities are not shown in the class lists. There is no minimum fixed by regulation in

sympathy, courtesy, reverence, or industry. It should be recollected, however, that the moral element in pupils is cultivated by every teacher who wisely prepares pupils for examinations. The highest intellectual training cannot ignore the moral element (Chapter V.). To win at examinations demands application, self-denial and a laudable ambition. Pupils who strive to gain certificates are on the average better behaved than those who have no wish to secure them.

"It should always be recollected that there are two ways in which the miniature struggle in examinations is preparatory to the real encounter of life. It is not only because it leads men to lay up weapons in the way of acquirements, or to strengthen the sinews of the brain by exercise, but also because it calls out the moral qualities needful for success in life—it requires teachableness, concentration, and above all, the power of 'enduring hardness,' of working when one would rather not work, and setting oneself to master thoroughly what may be distasteful. I believe myself that *one great effort*, in the way of a heavy examination, is a very valuable piece of mental discipline; it calls out the courage and the resources that there are in a man, and merely to have made this effort conscientiously, and have done his best, gives a moral elevation to the character, even if he fail in winning any very marked success."—*Latham*.

Competitive Examinations.—The consideration of the prize system as a school incentive (Chapter IX.) has rendered it unnecessary to discuss at length the evils of competitive examinations. If it is unwise in practice and unsound in principle to grant such rewards as prizes to successful competitors in the Public Schools, scholarships awarded to High School or University students on the results of a competitive examination cannot be well defended. Fortunately, public opinion in this country having generally condemned any expenditure of public

money for purposes of this kind, private generosity has not grown so much as to make the evil of competitive examinations very noticeable.

An English writer, in referring to the evils of competitive examinations, remarks :

"But the effect on schools is much greater and more serious. For the winning of these scholarships has become the great object of many, if not most, schools. Boys go up and try at one college after another under the advice of judicious men, who know the probable standard at each college. Scholarship classes are formed at school, examination papers are studied, regular education is laid aside for special preparation, the boy is cleverly steered, and the cleverest boy and cleverest jockey, jointly, win the prize and divide the applause ; the honor is duly paraded at the speech-day by the smiling headmaster to smiling boys, applause follows, which lasts for several moments, and care is taken to have the success announced in all the papers.

"I do not hesitate to say, after a good many years' experience, that the effect of these scholarships on schools is almost unredeemably bad. They are not necessary as a stimulus ; they are totally inadequate and misleading as a means of comparing school with school, and they do a good deal in some cases to degrade the work of masters and boys alike."

If it were possible to grant every student who gains a certain percentage a scholarship, no serious objection might be raised, if the test should be the ordinary qualifying examinations. To make a written examination a mere struggle for position among rival claimants is to introduce a method of measuring relative attainments that does not, as Latham well shows (see "On the Action of Examinations"), always select the most deserving candidate. Fitness for responsible positions should, doubtless, demand certain minimum attainments of an intellectual nature. Any additional qualifications deemed requisite should be those not determined by a written examination. The struggle

between rival schools has its evils. As regards qualifying examinations, the rivalry among schools is to some extent unavoidable. It is in the interests of education to prevent all unwholesome competition. The prize and scholarship system is at variance with modern views of motives to right action, and the recognized objections to the system have done much to discredit the use of qualifying examinations. It should be recollected, however, that the latter tests differ very much in their purposes and results from competitive examinations.

REFERENCES.

(FOR EXAMINATIONS AND METHODS).

Latham.—On the Action of Examinations.

Fitch.—Lectures on Teaching, Chapters VI.—XIV.

Bowne.—Psychology, Part II., Chapter II.

Cowham.—Oral Teaching.

Bain.—Education as a Science, Chapters VIII.—XI.

White.—Elements of Pedagogy.

Landon.—Teaching and Class Management, Chapters V.—IX.

Laurie.—Lectures on Linguistic Studies.

McLellan and Dewey.—The Psychology of Number.

Howe.—Systematic Science Teaching.

Hinsdale.—How to Study and Teach History.

Parker.—How to Study Geography.

Gouin.—The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages.

Bain.—On Teaching English.

Heath.—Methods of Teaching Modern Languages.

Hall, G. S.—How to Teach History.

Colbeck.—The Teaching of Modern Languages.

Harper and Burgess.—Inductive Latin Lessons.

See also "Report of the Committee of Ten," "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," and several papers read before sections of the Ontario Educational Association; also the valuable suggestions given in several well-known books prepared for the use of students by some of the High School Masters of Ontario.

APPENDIX.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS ACT, AS AMENDED IN 1896.

[Sections of the Statute that have special reference to teachers. High School teachers are subject to provisions which are practically the same.]

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

7.—(1) No person shall require any pupil in any Public School to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of devotion or religion, objected to by his or her parents or guardians.

(2) Pupils shall be allowed to receive such religious instructions as their guardians or parents desire, according to any regulations provided for the organization, government and discipline of Public Schools. 54 V. c. 55, ss. 10, 11.

CONTINUATION CLASSES.

8.—(1) Subject to the regulations of the Education Department the school corporation of any municipality or section in which there is no High School shall have power to establish a continuation class for pupils who have completed the course of study prescribed for Public Schools, and who have passed the Public School leaving examination, and also to provide for such class suitable accommodation, and to impose such fees for tuition, upon the pupils in attendance who have passed the said leaving examinations, whether residents or non-residents of the municipality, as they may deem expedient.

(2) The school corporation may admit to such continuation class pupils who have passed the entrance examination to a High School, but all such pupils who are residents of the municipality or section

shall be exempted from tuition fees. Where non-residents are admitted, such fees may be charged as the trustees may deem expedient.

(3) The course of study for continuation classes shall be the course prescribed for the Primary examination of the Education Department. Teachers of continuation classes shall possess at least the qualifications of an assistant in a High School, subject to the regulations of the Education Department in that behalf.

(4) The Minister of Education may apportion to any school conducting continuation classes, out of any money appropriated by the Legislature for that purpose, a sum equal to the average amount per pupil paid by the Legislature towards the maintenance of High School pupils. The Municipal Council of any county may pay for the maintenance of such classes a sum equal to the legislative grant appropriated by the Minister of Education for such class or such further sums as may seem expedient.

DUTIES OF TEACHERS.

76.—(1) It shall be the duty of every teacher of a Public School, to teach diligently and faithfully all the subjects in the Public School course of study; to maintain proper order and discipline in his school; to encourage his pupils in the pursuit of learning; to inculcate, by precept and example, respect for religion and the principles of Christian morality, and the highest regard for truth, justice, love of country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance, and all other virtues.

(2) To use the English language in the instruction of his school and in all communications with his pupils in regard to discipline and the management of the school, except where impracticable, by reason of the pupil not understanding English. Recitations requiring the use of a text-book may be conducted in the language of the text-book;

(3) To see that the schoolhouse is ready for the reception of pupils at least fifteen minutes before the time of opening in the morning and five minutes before the time of opening in the afternoon; to call the roll every day according to the register prescribed by the Education Department; to enter in the visitors' book visits made to the school; to give the inspector, trustees and visitors access, at all times, to the register and visitors' book; and

to deliver the register, the schoolhouse key and other school property in his possession to the corporation employing him on demand, or when his agreement with such corporation has expired ;

(4) To classify the pupils strictly according to the course of study prescribed by the Education Department ; to conduct the school according to a time-table, accessible to pupils and visitors ; to prevent the use by pupils of unauthorized text-books ; to attend regularly the teachers' institutes in the inspectoral division ; to notify the trustees and inspector of absence from school, through illness or other unavoidable cause ; and to make at the end of each school term, and subject to revision by the inspector, such promotions from one class or form to another as he may deem expedient ;

(5) To hold during each half year a public examination of the school, and to give due notice thereof to the trustees, to any school visitors who reside in the school section, and through the pupils, to their parents or guardians, and to hold such other examinations as may be required by the inspector for the promotion of pupils, or for any other purpose as the inspector may direct ;

(6) To furnish the Minister of Education, or the school inspector with any information which it may be in his power to give respecting the condition of the school premises, the discipline of the school, the progress of the pupils or any other matter affecting the interests of the school, and to prepare such reports of the corporation employing him as are required by the Education Department ;

(7) To give assiduous attention to the health and comfort of the pupils, to the cleanliness, temperature and ventilation of the school-rooms, to the care of all maps, apparatus and other school property, to the preservation of shade trees and the orderly arrangement of the play grounds, and to report promptly to the trustees and municipal health officer the appearance of any infectious or contagious disease in the school, or the unsanitary condition of outhouses and surroundings ;

(8) To refuse admission to the school of any pupil affected with, or exposed to small-pox, scarlatina, diphtheria, whooping-cough, measles, mumps, or other contagious disease until furnished with a certificate of a physician or of a health officer to the effect that all danger from exposure to contact with such pupil has passed away ;

(9) To suspend any pupil guilty of persistent truancy, violent opposition to authority, habitual neglect of duty, the use of profane or improper language or conduct injurious to the moral tone of the school, and to notify the parent or guardian of the pupil, and the Trustees, of such suspension. The parent or guardian of any pupil suspended may appeal against the action of the teacher to the trustees, who shall have power to consider such appeal and remove or confirm such suspension.

AGREEMENTS.

77.—(1) All agreements between trustees and teachers shall be in writing, signed by the parties thereto, and shall be sealed with the seal of the corporation ;

(2) Any teacher who wilfully neglects or refuses to carry out his agreement, shall, on the complaint of the trustees, be liable to the suspension of his certificate by the inspector under whose jurisdiction he may be for the time being ;

(3) No person engaged to teach a public school shall be deemed a qualified teacher who does not at the time of entering into an agreement with the trustees, and during the whole period of such agreement hold a legal certificate of qualification ;

(4) Any teacher who enters into an agreement with a Board of Trustees for one year, and who serves under such agreement for three months or over, shall be entitled to be paid his salary in the proportion which the number of days during which he has taught bears to the whole number of teaching days in the year ;

(5) Every teacher shall be entitled to his salary during sickness, certified by a physician, for a period not exceeding four weeks for the entire year ; this period may be increased at the pleasure of the trustees.

(6) If at the expiration of a teacher's agreement with a Board of Trustees his salary has not been paid in full, such salary shall continue to run at the rate mentioned in such agreement until paid, provided always that an action shall be commenced within three months after the salary is due and payable by the trustees. 54 V. c. 55, ss. 132-137.

(7) All matters of difference between trustees and teachers, in regard to salary or other remuneration under a valid agreement, shall, whatever may be the amount in question, be brought in the

Division Court of the division where the cause of action arose, subject to appeal, as provided by this Act.

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

78.—(1) Any person a subject of Her Majesty, who is not less than eighteen years of age, of good moral character and who passes the examinations prescribed by the Education Department, may be awarded a first, second or third-class certificate according to the standards required by such examination ;

(2) Subject to any regulations of the Education Department with regard to experience in actual teaching, certificates of the first and second class shall be valid during good conduct ; certificates of the third class shall be valid for a period of three years. Every third-class certificate shall have the signature of at least one Public School inspector.

(3) The inspectors of the territorial districts, or any County Board of examiners, may issue certificates valid only within the district of such inspector, or the jurisdiction of the County Board, for a term not exceeding one year, subject to the regulations of the Education Department.

(4) Certificates granted before the fifteenth day of February, in the year 1871, shall remain in force on the terms of the Act under which they were granted ;

(5) First-class certificates issued under any Act of this Province before the fifteenth day of February, 1871, and valid on the 24th day of March, 1874, shall be valid in the Province during the good conduct of the holder thereof ;

(6) Second-class certificates issued and valid as aforesaid, shall, when the holders thereof, have taught for ten years in Ontario, be valid during good conduct within the territory in which granted.

(7) The inspector may suspend the certificate of any teacher under his jurisdiction for inefficiency, misconduct, or a violation of this Act or of the regulations of the Education Department. In every case of suspension, he shall notify in writing the trustees concerned, and the teacher, of the reasons for such suspension ;

(8) The inspector shall forthwith call a meeting of the County Board of his inspectorial division for the consideration of such suspension, of which due notice shall be given to the teacher so suspended, and the decision of the Board shall be final. 54 V. c. 55, ss. 140-144 (1-3.)

HOLIDAYS.

89.—(1) The Public School teaching year shall consist of two terms: in rural schools the first term shall begin on the third Monday of August, and end on the 22nd day of December; the second term shall begin on the 3rd day of January, and end on the 30th day of June;

(2) In urban municipalities the first term shall begin on the first day of September, and end on the 22nd day of December; the second term shall begin on the 3rd day of January, and end on the 30th day of June;

(3) Every Saturday, every public holiday, the week following Easter Sunday, and every day proclaimed a holiday by the authorities of the municipality in which the teacher is engaged, shall be a holiday in Public Schools. 54 V. c. 55, s. 173 (1-3).

(4) In the territorial districts the trustees of any rural school may allot the time herein allowed for holidays at Easter and midsummer to suit the convenience of pupils and teachers, provided always that the same number of holidays be allowed and in periods of the same duration as herein set forth.

AUTHORIZED BOOKS.

90.—(1) Any authorized text-book in actual use in any Public or Model School may be changed by the teacher of such school for any other authorized text-book in the same subject on the written approval of the trustees and the inspector, provided always such change is made at the beginning of a school term, and at least six months after such approval has been given;

(2) In case any teacher shall negligently or wilfully permit any unauthorized text-book to be used by the pupils of his school, he shall for each such offence, on conviction thereof before a Police Magistrate or Justice of the Peace, be liable to a penalty payable to the municipality for Public School purposes, not exceeding \$10, together with costs, as the Police Magistrate or Justice may think fit. 54 V. c. 55, ss. 174-176.

SCHOOL VISITORS.

92.—(1) Judges, members of the Legislature, members of County Councils, and aldermen shall be school visitors in the municipalities

where they respectively reside. All clergymen shall be school visitors in the municipalities where they have pastoral charge.

(2) School visitors may visit Public Schools as in this Act provided. They may also attend the examination of schools, and at the time of any such visit, may examine the progress of the pupils, and the state and management of the school, and give such advice to the teacher and pupils, and any others present, as they deem expedient. 54 V. c. 55, ss. 184-185.

PENALTIES AND PROHIBITIONS.

96. No Public School Trustee shall be eligible to appointment as Public School inspector or teacher, within the section of which he is a trustee; nor shall the teacher of any Public, High, or Separate school hold the office of Public School Trustee, nor shall an inspector be a teacher or trustee of any Public, High or Separate school while he holds the office of inspector. 54 V. c. 55, s. 189.

100. Any person who wilfully disturbs, interrupts, or disquiets the proceedings of any school meeting authorized to be held by this Act, or anyone who wilfully interrupts or disquiets any public school established and conducted under its authority, or other school, by rude or indecent behavior, or by making a noise either within the place or where such school is kept or held, or so near thereto as to disturb the order of exercises of the school, shall, for each offence, on conviction thereof before a Justice of the Peace, on the oath of one credible witness, forfeit and pay for Public School purposes to the school section, city, town, or village within which the offence was committed, a sum not exceeding \$20 together with the costs of the conviction, as the said Justice may think fit. 54 V. c. 55, s. 193.

111.—(1) If any trustee of a Public School knowingly signs a false report, or if any teacher of a Public School keeps a false school register, or makes a false return, with the view of obtaining a larger sum than the just proportion of school moneys coming to such school, or for any other improper purpose, the trustee or teacher shall, for every offence, forfeit to the Public School Fund of the municipality the sum of \$20 for which any person whatever may prosecute him before a Justice of the Peace, and the trustee or teacher may be convicted on the oath of one credible witness other than the prosecutor;

(2) If upon conviction, the penalty is not forthwith paid, the same shall, under the warrant of the Justice, be levied with costs by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the offender, and shall be paid by the Justice to Public School Board. 54 V. c. 55, s. 208, (1-2).

GENERAL PROHIBITIONS.

113.—(1) No teacher, trustee, inspector, or other person officially connected with the Education Department, the Normal, Model, Public, or High schools or Collegiate institutes, shall become or act as agent for any person or persons to sell, or in any way to promote the sale for such person or persons, of any school, library, prize or text-book, map, chart, school apparatus, furniture or stationery, or shall receive compensation or other remuneration or equivalent for such sale, or for the promotion of sale in any way whatsoever ;

(2) Any teacher who refuses to give up possession of any visitors' book, school register, schoolhouse key or any other school property in his possession shall not be deemed a qualified teacher until restitution is made, and shall also forfeit any claim which he may have against the said trustees. 54 V. c. 55, s. 210 (1-2).

REGULATIONS.*

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

SITES AND SCHOOL HOUSES.

1. The site of every Public School shall admit of easy drainage and shall be accessible by the best highways in the Section. Its area shall be not less than half an acre, and if the School population of the section exceeds seventy-five, the area shall be not less than one acre. The grounds shall be levelled and drained, enclosed by a neat and substantial fence and planted with shade trees. The

*Any changes in the Regulations affecting the examinations for Public or High Schools, including the selections in literature and the languages, are announced from year to year, and may be ascertained from the Inspector.

school house shall be placed at least thirty feet from the public highway.

2. There shall be a well or other means for procuring water, so placed and guarded as to be secure against pollution from surface drainage, or in any other way. Every rural school shall be provided with a woodshed.

3. The closets for the sexes shall be under different roofs. They shall be separated by a high, close board fence, their entrances screened from observation, and locked after school hours. They shall be properly cleansed and disinfected when necessary, and approached by proper walks from the school house, so as to be accessible with comfort at all seasons of the year.

4. Where the average attendance of any Section for three years exceeds fifty pupils, a school house with two rooms shall be provided. An additional room and teacher shall be required for each additional fifty pupils in average attendance. Every school house shall afford separate entrances with covered porches and suitable cloak rooms for boys and girls.

5. Every school room shall contain a superficial area of at least twelve square feet, and a cubic content of at least 250 feet for each pupil in average attendance. A uniform temperature throughout the room of at least sixty-seven degrees shall be maintained and provision made for a complete change of atmosphere three times every hour. The windows—both sashes—shall be adjusted by weights and pulleys and provided with suitable blinds. Light, where possible, shall be admitted from the left of the pupil.

FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT.*

6. Every school house shall be seated with either double or single desks—single desks being preferred. The desks shall be fastened to the floor in rows facing the teacher's platform, with suitable aisles between the rows and with passages at least three feet wide between the outside rows and the wall of the school room. Desks according to the following scale shall be considered as meeting all legal requirements :

* See pages 21-24.

AGE OF PUPILS.	SEATS.			DESKS.			
	Height.		Slope of Back.	Length.		Width.	Height next pupil.
	Front.	Rear.		Double.	Single.		
Five to eight years	11 in.	10½ in.	2 in.	36 in.	18 in.	12 in.	22 in.
Eight to ten years	12 "	11½ "	2 "	36 "	18 "	12 "	23 "
Ten to thirteen years	13 "	12½ "	2½ "	36 "	20 "	13 "	24 "
Thirteen to sixteen years	14 "	14½ "	3 "	40 "	22 "	13 "	26 "

7. There shall be one blackboard at least four feet wide, extending across the whole room in rear of the teacher's desk, with its lower edge not more than two and a half feet above the floor or platform; and, when possible, there should be an additional blackboard on each side of the room. At the lower edge of each blackboard there should be a trough five inches wide for holding crayons and brushes.

Note.—The following directions for making a blackboard may be found useful:—

(a) Where a brick wall is built solid, and also in case of frame buildings, the part to be used for a blackboard should be lined with boards, and the laths for holding the plaster nailed firmly on the boards.

(b) The plaster for the blackboard should be composed largely of plaster of Paris.

(c) Before and after having received the first coat of color it should be thoroughly polished with fine sand paper.

(d) The coloring matter should be laid on with a wide, flat varnish brush.

(e) The liquid coloring should be made as follows:—Dissolve gum shellac in alcohol, four ounces to the quart; the alcohol should be ninety-five per cent. strong; the dissolving process will require at least twelve hours. Fine emery flour with enough chrome green or lampblack to give color, should then be added until the mixture has the consistency of thin paint. It may then be applied, in long, even strokes, up and down, the liquid being kept constantly stirred.

8. Every school shall have at least one globe not less than nine inches in diameter, properly mounted; a map of Canada; a map of Ontario; a map of the World and of the Continents; one or more sets of Tablet lessons of Part I. of the First Reader; a standard Dictionary; a Gazetteer; a numeral frame; a suitable supply of crayons and blackboard brushes; an eight-day clock; shelving for baskets; hooks for caps and cloaks; and two chairs in addition to the teacher's chair.

9. The Trustees shall appoint one of their number or some suitable person to keep the school house and premises and all fences, outhouses, walks, windows, desks, maps, blackboards and stoves in proper repair. They shall also provide for whitewashing walls and ceilings if finished in plaster (or for washing if finished in wood), every year during the summer holidays, and shall employ a caretaker whose duty it shall be to sweep the floors daily, and wash them at least quarterly, and to make fires one hour before the opening of school, from the first of November until the first of May in each year.

10. No public school house or school grounds, unless otherwise provided for in the conveyance to the trustees, shall be used for any other than Public School purposes, without the consent of the trustees, and no advertisements shall be posted in any school room or distributed to the pupils unless approved of in the same way.

11. The first Friday in May each year shall in rural school sections and in incorporated villages be devoted to the planting of shade trees, the making of flower beds and otherwise beautifying and improving the school grounds. Songs and recitations designed to cultivate greater interest in trees and flowers and in the study of nature shall form part of the exercises of the day.

DUTIES OF PUPILS.*

12. Every pupil registered in a Public School shall attend punctually and regularly every day of the School year in which his name is so registered. He shall be neat and cleanly in his person and habits, diligent in his studies, kind and courteous to his fellow-pupils, obedient and respectful to his teacher, and shall submit to such discipline as would be exercised by a kind, firm and judicious parent.

13. Every pupil on returning to school after absence from any cause, shall give orally or in writing to the teacher, a proper reason for his absence. A pupil may retire from school at any hour during the day at the request, either oral or written, of his parent or guardian. A pupil may be suspended who fails or neglects to provide himself with the text-books or other supplies required in the course of study, or to pay the fees imposed for such purpose by the Trustees.

*For Duties of Teachers, see page 257.

14. Every pupil shall be responsible to the teacher for his conduct on the school premises or on the way to or from school, except when accompanied by his parents or guardians or by some person appointed by them on their behalf. Any pupil who injures or destroys school property or furniture may be suspended until the property or furniture destroyed or injured is made good by the parent or guardian of such pupil.

SCHOOL TERMS AND ORGANIZATION.*

15. Unless otherwise directed by the Trustees, the pupils attending every Public School shall assemble for study at nine o'clock in the forenoon, and shall be dismissed not later than four o'clock in the afternoon. One hour at least shall be allowed for recreation at mid-day, and ten minutes during the forenoon and afternoon terms, but in no case shall the hours of study be less than five hours per day, including the recess in the forenoon and afternoon, provided always the Trustees may reduce the hours of study for pupils in the First and Second Forms.

16. Pupils not registered in a Day School may attend a Night School from the 1st of October until the 31st of March. The hours of study in the Night School shall not exceed two and one-half hours per Session. Pupils shall not be admitted to a Night School who are under fourteen years of age, or who attend school during the day. Night Schools shall be subject to the same regulations as Public Schools with respect to the discipline of pupils, the duties and qualifications of teachers and the use of text-books.

17. The course of study for Public Schools shall be taken up in five forms as hereinafter set forth, and pupils shall be classified by the teacher with respect to their attainments in all the subjects of the form to which they are assigned or from which they are to be promoted. Pupils who have passed the High School Entrance examination and such other pupils as are considered qualified by the teacher and Inspector shall be entitled in both rural and urban schools to receive instruction in the subjects of the Fifth Form, provided that, in a municipality having a High School if resident pupils of the First Form are not charged fees it will not be deemed obligatory for the Public School Board to have a Fifth class. The

*For Principles of Organization, consult Chapter XI.

amount of time to be given to any class is to be determined by the teacher, who shall be guided in this matter by the Inspector. Subjects of the course of study marked with an asterisk are optional.

18. An optional subject shall be taken only with the consent of the Trustees and the Inspector, and where the teacher is the holder of a First or Second class Certificate and has passed an examination in the option which he undertakes to teach. The Trustees of any rural school may, by resolution passed at a regular meeting of the Board, require Agriculture to be taught in the Fourth and Fifth Forms of the school, and in such cases the Inspector shall report to the Trustees at least annually, the extent of the course taken by the pupils and their standing. Not more than three periods of thirty minutes each shall be given per week to the study of all the optional subjects. In urban schools such instruction may be given in domestic economy as the Trustees deem expedient.

19. In school sections where the French or German language prevails, the Trustees may, in addition to the course of study prescribed for Public Schools, require instruction to be given in Reading, Grammar and Composition to such pupils as are directed by their parents or guardians to study either of these languages, and in all such cases the authorized text-books in French or German shall be used. But nothing herein contained shall be construed to mean that any of the text-books prescribed for Public Schools shall be set aside because of the use of the authorized text-books in French and German.

CONTINUATION CLASSES.

20. In schools where instruction for the Primary examinations has been given under former regulations similar to what may be given by the establishment of a Continuation Class in connection with any Public School under the provisions of section 8* of the Public Schools Act, 1896, the Principal of the school shall be deemed qualified so long as he remains Principal of such school. In the case of any subsequent appointment as Principal, the qualifications shall be a First Class Certificate for schools in class (a) hereinafter mentioned.

21. Any grant made by the Legislature for Public School

* See page 256.

Leaving examinations and Continuation Classes shall be distributed by the Minister of Education among the schools of the three grades hereafter mentioned, viz. :—(a) Schools in which the Principal holds a First Class certificate (unless occupying the position in 1896), and gives regular instruction only to pupils who have passed the High School Entrance examination (one or more of whom have also passed the Public School Leaving examination) and who are taking the full course required for Primary standing. (b) Schools in which there are two or more teachers and a class in regular attendance of at least ten pupils who have passed the High School Entrance examination (one or more of whom have also passed the Public School Leaving examination) and who are taking the full work required for Primary standing. (c) Schools in which there is a class in regular attendance of at least five pupils who have passed the High School Entrance examination (one or more of whom have also passed the Public School Leaving examination) and who are taking the full course prescribed for Primary standing. Any person holding a Second Class Certificate shall be deemed qualified to conduct the classes in schools under divisions (b) and (c). Before a grant is paid to any school for a Continuation Class the Inspector shall certify to its efficiency, and to the competency of the teachers employed to give the instruction required by the Regulations of the Education Department. Any school receiving a grant under this regulation shall not receive any additional allowance on account of pupils who may pass the Public School Leaving examination.

PUBLIC SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY.

22. Subject to any instructions issued by the Minister of Education from time to time, the limitations and examination requirements of each Form in the Public School shall be as set forth in Schedule A—Public School Courses of Study.

HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS.

23. At every High School and Collegiate Institute and such other places as may be recommended by the County Council, examinations to be known as High School Entrance examinations to be conducted on the subjects prescribed for the Fourth Form of Public Schools, shall be held annually. The County Council may

impose a fee not exceeding one dollar upon each county pupil writing at the Entrance examination. Boards of Trustees may impose similar fees upon resident and non-resident pupils writing for the Entrance examination at High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

24. Any person intending to write at this examination shall notify the Inspector in whose district he proposes to write, on or before the 1st day of May. Where more examinations than one are held in the same inspectoral division, he shall notify the Inspector of the place at which he desires to be examined. The answer papers of the candidates shall be read by the Board of Examiners constituted under section 38 of the High Schools Act, 1896.

25. The answers of candidates at the Entrance examination shall be appraised according to the following scale, viz; In Reading, Spelling, Drawing, Writing, 50 each; in Physiology and Temperance, Composition, History, Geography, 100 each; in Grammar and Literature, 150 each; in Arithmetic, 200. Two marks shall be deducted for each misspelled word on the dictation paper, and one mark for every misspelled word in any other paper. Reasonable deductions may also be made for want of neatness.

26. Any candidate who obtains one-third of the marks in each subject and one-half of the aggregate marks shall be considered as having passed the examination. The examiners may also award pass standing to candidates who have not made a bad failure in any subject but who have made a high aggregate above the half required, or whose case on account of age or other circumstances demands special consideration. The decision of the Board of Examiners shall be final with regard to the admission or rejection of any candidate, but the Inspector may submit to the Board for reconsideration the complaint of any candidate or any other person with regard to the examination.

27. In the interval between the annual examinations, pupils may be admitted to a High School by the Minister of Education on the joint report of the Principal of a High School and the Public School Inspector showing the attainments of such pupil, his age, and the reasons for his non-attendance at the Entrance examination prescribed by the Department. No pupil shall be admitted until his case is disposed of by the Minister. The names of such

pupils shall be included in the report of the Board of Examiners at the next annual examination.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATIONS.

28. Public School Leaving examinations will be held annually at every High School and Collegiate Institute, and at such other places as may be recommended by the Inspector. A person who wishes to write at the Public School Leaving examination must, before the 24th of May, give the necessary notice to the Inspector on a form to be obtained from him. The answer papers will be examined at the Education Department immediately after the examination is held, and a report of the results will be forwarded to the Inspector, or to the High School Principal, if the examination was held at a High School centre. The Board of Trustees where such examination is held shall pay all the cost of the examination, but will receive from the Inspector half the fees paid by candidates.

29. Candidates at the Public School Leaving examination shall take the following subjects, to be valued as herein mentioned, viz.: Reading, 50; Drawing, Writing with Book-keeping and Commercial Transactions, English Composition, English Literature, History, Geography, Algebra, Geometry, Botany,* each 100; English Grammar and Rhetoric, Arithmetic and Mensuration, each 150. Any candidate who obtains one-third of the marks in each subject and one-half (67 per cent. for honors), of the aggregate marks shall be considered as having passed the Public School Leaving examination; provided, also, that a candidate who fails on one or more subjects may, if he makes considerably more than fifty per cent. on the total, be awarded a Public School Leaving Certificate. The Board of Examiners for High School Entrance examinations may admit to a High School, candidates who have failed at a Public School Leaving examination, provided they have made one-quarter of the marks on each Entrance examination subject.

*Instead of Botany, Physiology and Temperance will be required in 1898.

HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTES.

ACCOMMODATIONS AND EQUIPMENT.

30. The plans of every High School hereafter erected, and the plans and site of every High School hereafter established, shall be subject to the approval of the Minister of Education. In all High Schools established since July, 1891, or to be hereafter established, there shall be a principal and at least two assistants. No new High School shall be entitled to receive any grant that does not provide at least the amount fixed by the instructions of the Minister of Education with regard to accommodation and the equipment required as the maximum in distributing the Legislative grant to schools with two masters.

31. Any High School may be raised to the status of a Collegiate Institute when it is shown to the satisfaction of the Education Department that the trustees have provided : (a) adequate school buildings ; (b) equipment of the value and character required as the maximum in the case of High Schools with three or more masters ; (c) four specialists, viz., one in Classics, one in Mathematics, one in Science, one in Modern Languages including English (one of whom or some other member of the staff being also a commercial specialist) ; and (d) such other Assistants as will secure thorough instruction in all the subjects of the High School course as far as Senior Matriculation into the University of Toronto. A Collegiate Institute may be reduced to the rank of a High School on the joint report of the High School Inspectors, approved by the Education Department.

32. Every High School that complies with the Regulations of the Education Department shall be entitled to the following grants : (a) a fixed grant of \$375 ; (b) in respect of school accommodation, a maximum of \$100 in the case of High Schools with two masters and of \$150 in the case of High Schools with three or more masters ; (c) in respect of equipment, ten per cent. of the total approved expenditure but so as not to exceed \$110 in the case of High Schools with two masters or \$220 in the case of High Schools with three or more masters ; (d) in respect of salaries ten per cent. of the expenditure over \$1,500 but so as not to exceed \$600 in any case ; (e) such amount *pro rata* in respect of average attendance as may remain unexpended of the grant.

33. Every Collegiate Institute that complies with the Regulations of the Education Department shall be entitled: (a) to a fixed grant of \$375; (b) to a grant in respect of equipment of \$275; (c) to a grant in respect of school accommodation of \$200; (d) to 10 per cent. of the expenditure on salaries over \$1,500, but so as not to exceed \$600; and (e) to a grant on the basis of average attendance out of any unexpended balance of the Legislative grant.

34. In appropriating the Legislative grant on equipment, the maximum recognized in the case of High Schools with two masters shall be as follows: Library, \$300; Physical and Chemical Apparatus, \$300; Maps and Globes, \$50, and models for Drawing, \$50; Gymnasium, not including equipment, \$400. In the case of Collegiate Institutes and High Schools with three masters the maximum recognized shall be: Library, \$600; Physical and Chemical Apparatus, \$600; Maps and Globes, \$100, and models for Drawing, \$100; Gymnasium, not including equipment, \$800.

35. When the value of the Library has reached the maximum herein recognized, ten per cent. of the annual expenditure by the High School Board on supplemental reading in English Literature will be allowed. The catalogue of the equipment shall be kept by the Principal of the School, and shall be accessible to any officer of the Education Department. The instructions of the Minister of Education in the matter of grading shall be followed in appropriating the grant for buildings and premises. On the report of a High School Inspector, such reductions may be made in the grants payable upon the salaries of the staff, and the character and equipment of the school buildings and their appendages, as the Minister of Education may deem expedient.

HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

36. In every High School or Collegiate Institute the head teacher shall be called the Principal, and the other teachers Assistants. The authority of the Principal of the High School shall be supreme as to all matters of discipline on the school premises, where the Public and High School occupy the same building. The provisions of the Public Schools Act, 1896, Section 76,* and the regulations of the Education Department with respect to the duties of

*See pages 257 and 266.

pupils attending a Public School shall apply to teachers and pupils of High Schools.

37. The Principal of a High School or Collegiate Institute shall hold a Principal's Certificate and the Assistants shall hold High School Assistants' Certificates. Special teachers of Music, Drawing, Drill, Gymnastics and Calisthenics shall possess qualifications satisfactory to the Minister of Education. If, after due advertisement, a High School Board is unable to obtain a qualified Assistant, a temporary certificate may be granted by the Minister of Education for the current half year to a suitable person, on the application of the Board.

38. The Principal shall determine the number of pupils to be assigned to each Form, and the order in which the subjects in each Form shall be taken up by the pupils. The Principal shall make such promotions from one Form to another as he may deem expedient; he shall also assign the subjects of the course of study among the Assistants.

39. The Course of Study in High Schools shall be taken in four Forms. The subjects marked with an asterisk in Forms I. and II. are optional; all the other subjects are obligatory. No subjects shall be taken in any Form other than the subjects herein prescribed. All pupils shall take the obligatory subjects in Forms I. and II., and such other subjects in any of the Forms as may be required for Departmental or other examinations, or as may be chosen by their parents or guardian and the Principal of the School, provided that pupils taking the course for a Commercial Diploma shall be required to take only the subjects of such course. Typewriters may be furnished by the Board of Trustees for the use of the pupils. At the option of the Board of Trustees and the Principal, the Art School Drawing Course may be taken in Forms II. and III., and Agricultural Chemistry, Physiology and Temperance and Vocal Music may be taken in any Form.

40. Reading shall be taught twice a week during the academic year to all the pupils in each of the subdivisions of Forms I. and II. and to the pupils in the other Forms in connection with the English Literature. Writing shall be taught during the first term at least twice a week in the lowest division of Form I., and provision shall be made for additional practice in school hours. Half-hour periods separate from the other subjects shall be allotted to Reading and

Writing in the Time Table. Where the average number of pupils in a class exceeds twenty-five, the time devoted to Reading and Writing shall be proportionately extended. On the report of a High School Inspector a deduction from the Legislative grant may, at the discretion of the Minister of Education, be made of \$50 in the case of the non-observance in any High School or Collegiate Institute of any part of this Regulation.

41. In High Schools and Collegiate Institutes having a Gymnasium, Drill, Gymnastics, and Calisthenics shall be taught in half-hour periods and in organized classes not less than three times a week in each division of Forms I., II. and III., but shall be optional in Form IV.; additional time shall be allowed for practice by pupils under efficient supervision. No pupil shall be exempted from the course prescribed, except upon a medical certificate or on account of evident physical disability. During the months of May, June, September, October and November, the Principal may substitute for Drill, etc., not more than twice a week, such sports and games as he may approve of. In High Schools having no Gymnasium, Drill and Calisthenics shall be taught as the weather may permit; and Gymnastics may be omitted.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY.

42. The details of the courses of study and examination requirements in each Form in High Schools shall be as set forth in Schedule B—High School Courses of Study.

HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.

43. An examination will be held annually by the Education Department subject to the conditions hereinafter contained on the High School Course of Study at each High School and Collegiate Institute and at such other centres as may be approved. Candidates intending to write should make application to the Public School Inspector before the 24th of May on a form to be obtained from him. One examination paper will be given in each subject except in the case of Biology of Form IV., in which there shall be two papers, and of Latin, Greek, French and German for Forms III. and IV., in which there shall be two examination papers—one in Authors and Grammar and one in Composition. The papers shall be valued as follows:—

Form I.—Reading (oral examination) 50; Drawing. English Composition, History, Geography, Algebra, Geometry, Botany, Writing with Book-keeping and Commercial Transactions, English Literature, each 100; English Grammar and Rhetoric, Arithmetic and Mensuration, each 150.

Form II.—Part I.—English Grammar and Rhetoric, 200; Arithmetic and Mensuration, 200; History of Great Britain and Canada, 150; Physics, 100. Part II.—English Composition, 100; English Literature, 150; Algebra, 150; Geometry, 100. Optional subjects.—Latin, Greek, French, German, each 150.

Form III.—English Composition, 100; English Literature, 150; Algebra, 150; Geometry, 125; Ancient History, Physics, Botany, Chemistry, Latin, Greek, French, German, each paper 75.

Form IV.—Part I.—English Composition, 100; English Literature, 150; Algebra, 150; Geometry, 125; Trigonometry, 125; English and Ancient History, 100. Part II.—Physics, 100; Chemistry and Biology, each 75; Latin, Greek, French and German, each paper 75.

Commercial Course.—The examination for Commercial Diploma will be as hereinafter defined and as set forth in Schedule B.

HIGH SCHOOL CERTIFICATES.

44. Candidates at High School examinations will be awarded a certificate in the Form, or in Part I. or II. of the Form, as the case may be (where part of a Form is prescribed as a separate division of their examination) in which they may have passed. The examination in any form, or in Part I. or II. of any Form (where a Form is divided for examination purposes) may be taken in such order or at such intervals of one or more years as the candidate may desire. Candidates who fail in any subject in a Form, or in the part of a form prescribed for examination, shall, if they present themselves again, take the whole examination in such Form, or part of a Form. No candidate shall be required to pass a second time in the Form, or part of a Form, for which he has received a certificate.

45. To obtain Primary standing candidates shall take the Public School Leaving examination as defined for Public Schools (which shall be that for Form I.), and at the same time or in a different year, both parts of Form II. taken together. To pass the Public School Leaving examination or the examination of Form II., can-

didates must obtain one-third of the marks assigned to each subject, and 50 (67 for honors) per cent. of the aggregate of marks, provided that in the case of the former a candidate who fails on one or more subjects may, if he makes considerably more than fifty per cent. on the total be awarded a certificate. They may also write on the optional subjects of Form II. The marks obtained on the optional subjects shall be added to the aggregate marks, by way of bonus, provided the candidate receives one-third of the marks assigned to the subject.

46. To obtain Junior Leaving standing candidates shall take the Public School Leaving examination and Part I. of the Second Form examination, unless they have already passed these examinations, and the following subjects of the Third Form examination, viz:—English Composition, English Literature, Ancient History, Algebra, Geometry, Latin and one of the following groups, viz:—(a) French and Greek; or (b) German and Greek; or (c) French, German and Chemistry; or (d) French, Physics and Chemistry; or (e) German, Physics and Chemistry; or (f) Botany, Physics and Chemistry. Candidates who obtain one-third of the marks assigned to the subjects in Part I. of the Second Form and 50 per cent. on the aggregate shall be given a certificate to that effect. A separate certificate will also be given to candidates who pass on the same standard in the subjects in the Third Form. Sixty-seven per cent. will give honors in the latter case.

47. To obtain Senior Leaving standing candidates shall take the Public School Leaving examination and Part I. of the Second Form examination, unless they have already passed these examinations; and in addition Part I. of the Fourth Form examination; and of Part II., Form IV. Latin and Physics with one of the following groups, viz:—(a) Greek and French, or (b) Greek and German, or (c) French and Chemistry, or (d) German and Chemistry, or (e) French and German, or (f) Biology and Chemistry. Certificates will be given candidates who pass one or both Parts of Form IV. at this examination, the standard for passing being one-third on each paper, and 50 per cent. on the aggregate. Sixty-seven per cent. will secure honors when Parts I. and II. are taken together. Candidates for Senior Leaving standing who hold Junior Leaving standing are required to take only Part I. of the Fourth Form examination and the subjects of Part II. of the Fourth Form hereinbefore mentioned.

48. A candidate for Junior or Senior Leaving standing who has passed Part I. of the Second Form examination, shall be awarded a certificate on application to the Education Department of having passed in Form II., notwithstanding his failure to obtain Junior or Senior Leaving standing, provided such candidate has obtained one-third of the marks at this examination in the subjects of Part II. of the Second Form examination.

49. The standing of the second, third, and fourth years in Arts after a regular course in any University in the British Dominions, will be accepted in lieu of the Primary, Junior Leaving and Senior Leaving standing respectively.

50. The course for a Commercial Diploma may be taken in two parts. Both parts may be taken in different years or in the same year, at the option of the candidate. Part I. shall consist of Book-keeping and Writing, 200 marks; Commercial transactions, business forms and usages, 200 marks; Stenography (Theory), 100 marks; Stenography (Dictation), 100 marks. Part II. shall consist of the examination papers in Form II. in Arithmetic and Mensuration, History of Great Britain and Canada, English Composition, English Literature and Algebra. The marks in these subjects shall be the same as in Form II. Candidates shall be required to make one-third of the marks in each subject in each part, and one-half of the aggregate of each part to obtain pass standing. Candidates who hold a Certificate of having passed in Form II., or in any Part of a higher Form, shall be required to write only on Part I. of the Commercial Course.

SPECIALISTS' STANDING.

51. Any person who obtains an Honor Degree in the department of English and History, Moderns and History, Classics, Mathematics, or Science as specified in the calendars of any University of Ontario and accepted by the Education Department, shall be entitled to the non-professional qualification of a Specialist in such department. A graduate who has not taken an Honor Degree in one of the above courses shall be entitled to the non-professional standing of a Specialist on submitting to the Department of Education a certificate from the Registrar of the University that he has passed, subsequent to graduation, the examination prescribed for each year of the Honor course of the department for which he seeks to be recognized as a Specialist, and which he has not already

passed in his undergraduate course ; or any examination which is recommended by the University as equivalent thereto and accepted as such by the Education Department.

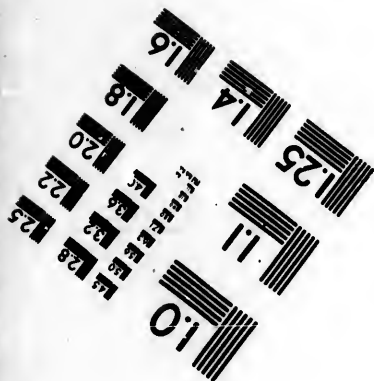
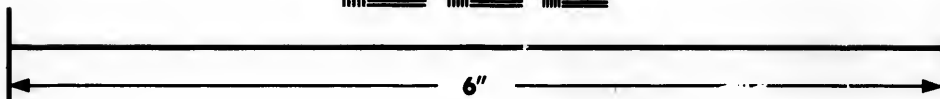
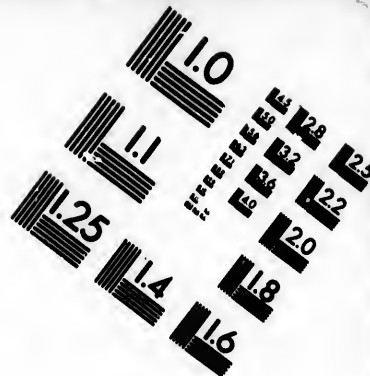
KINDERGARTENS.

54. No person shall be appointed in the charge of a Kindergarten in which assistant teachers or teachers in training are employed, who has not passed the examination prescribed for a Director of Kindergartens ; and no person shall receive a salary or allowance for teaching under a Director who has not passed the examination prescribed for Directors or assistant teachers. No person shall be admitted to the course of training prescribed for assistants who is not seventeen years of age and who has not Primary standing, or who has not spent at least three years in a High School. Any person who has not taken the equivalent of such a course at some other educational institution may, on the recommendation of the Inspector, be admitted to training with the consent of the Minister of Education. No person shall be admitted to the course prescribed for a Director unless such person has obtained an Assistant's certificate.

55. Any person who attends a Kindergarten for one year and passes the examinations prescribed by the Education Department shall be entitled to an Assistant's certificate. The holder of an Assistant's certificate, or the holder of a second-class Provincial certificate shall, on attending a Provincial Kindergarten one year and on passing the prescribed examinations, be entitled to a Director's certificate.

56. The examination for Directors shall include Psychology and the General Principles of Froebel's System ; History of Education ; Theory and Practice of the Gifts and Occupations ; Mutter and Kose-Lieder ; Botany and Natural History ; Miscellaneous Topics, including discipline and methods of morning talks, each 100 ; Practical Teaching, 500 ; Book-work, 400. There shall also be a sessional examination in Music, Drawing and Physical Culture to be reported by the Principal to the Examiners at the final examination. The examination for Assistants shall include the Theory and Practice of the Gifts (two papers) ; Theory and Practice of the Occupations (one paper) ; Miscellaneous Topics, including the General Principles of Froebel's System and their application to songs and games, ele-





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mentary science, morning talks and discipline (one paper) each paper; 100; Book-work, 400. Any Director sending up candidates to the examination for Assistants' certificates shall certify that the Paper-work and Modelling have been satisfactorily completed.

COUNTY AND CITY MODEL SCHOOLS.

57. The Board of Examiners for every County shall, and the trustees of any city may, with the approval of the Minister of Education, set apart at least one Public School for the professional training of third-class teachers. The Principal of such school shall be the holder of a first-class certificate from the Education Department and shall have at least three years' experience as a Public School teacher. In every Model School there shall be at least three assistants on the staff who shall be the holders of first or second-class certificates. The County Board of Examiners shall distribute the teachers in training among the County Model Schools as may be deemed expedient.

58. The Model School term shall begin on the second of September and shall close on the fifteenth day of December. During the term the Principal of the Public School to which the Model School is attached shall be relieved of all Public School duties except the management and supervision of the Public School. The assistants shall give such instruction to the teachers in training as may be required by the Principal or by the regulations of the Education Department. There shall be a room for the exclusive use of the teachers in training either in the Public School buildings or elsewhere equally convenient.

59. Application for admission to a Model School shall be made to the Inspector not later than the twenty-fifth of August. Any person who has Primary or a higher standing, or who is considered eligible by the Board of Examiners for a District certificate and who will be eighteen years of age before the close of the term may be admitted as a teacher in training. The teachers in training shall be subject to the discipline of the Principal with an appeal in case of dispute to the Chairman of the County Board of Examiners. Boards of Trustees may impose a tuition fee, not exceeding \$5, on each teacher in training.

60. The course of study in Model Schools shall consist of instruction in School Management, to be valued for examination purposes

at 100; instruction in the Science of Education, 100; instruction in the best methods of teaching all the subjects on the Public School Course of Study (two papers), 100 each; instruction in the School Law and Regulations so far as they relate to the duties of teachers and pupils,* instruction in School Hygiene, Music and Physical Culture, 50 each; and such practice in teaching as will cultivate correct methods of presenting subjects to a class and develop the art of school government. The final examination of the Education Department will be limited to School Management, the Science of Education, Methods, School Hygiene, and the School Law and Regulations.

61. The Principal of the School shall submit to the Board of Examiners a report with respect to the standing of every teacher in training, having regard to his conduct during the Session, his aptitude as a teacher, his powers of discipline and government in the school room and such other qualities as in the opinion of the Principal are necessary to a successful teacher. The Principal shall also report the standing of each teacher in training in the subjects of Hygiene, Music and Physical Culture as determined by at least one Sessional examination. These reports shall be considered by the Board of Examiners at the final examination in estimating the standing of the candidates for a certificate in all cases of doubt.

62. During the last week of the Session the County Board of Examiners shall require each teacher in training to teach in the presence of such members of the Board as may be appointed for that purpose, two lessons of twenty minutes each, one of which shall be assigned by the presiding examiner one day before, and the other forty minutes before it is to be taught. Each lesson shall be valued at 100, shall be appraised by different examiners and shall not be taught in the same form nor on the same subject. The Board of Examiners shall also submit the candidates to a practical test of their ability to place upon the blackboard with neatness and despatch any exercise for pupils they may deem expedient. The time allowed for such a test shall not exceed ten minutes and the valuation 50.

63. Any teacher in training having Primary standing who

* See pages 257 and 268.

obtains forty per cent. of the marks assigned to each subject (including practical teaching), and sixty per cent. of the aggregate, shall be awarded a third-class certificate valid for three years. At the request of the County Board and with the permission of the Minister of Education, a certificate for a shorter period and valid only within the jurisdiction of the County Board, to be known as a District certificate, may be awarded to teachers in training who obtain a lower percentage or to such other persons whose non-professional standing would entitle them only to District certificates. The Board may reject any candidate whose scholarship appears to be defective. The decision of the Board with respect to the examination shall be final.

DISTRICT MODEL SCHOOLS.

64. The Minister of Education may set apart two Public Schools in the Districts of Thunder Bay, Algoma, Parry Sound and Nipissing as Model Schools for candidates for District certificates. No school shall rank as a District Model School unless the teaching staff consists of at least three teachers, viz.: a Principal holding a first-class certificate and at least one of his assistants holding a second-class certificate. Teachers in training at District Schools shall take the course of study and the final examinations prescribed for Public School Leaving examinations. Candidates for teachers' certificates at the District Model School Examinations shall be at least eighteen years of age, and shall take such a course of professional training in the subjects prescribed for County Model Schools as the Inspector of the District may direct.

65. In cities and counties where the French or German language prevails, the Board of Examiners, with the approval of the Education Department, may establish a Model School for the training of teachers of French or German origin; such schools shall hold one term each year, viz.: From the first of September to the first of July. The course of study shall be the non-professional course required for a Public School Leaving certificate and the professional course required for a County Model School. The examination in English shall be conducted on the papers prescribed for the Public School Leaving certificate. The examination in French or German shall be limited to Reading, Grammar, and Composition, and may be both oral and written. The papers

in French and German shall be prepared by the Board of Examiners. The Board may submit the teachers in training to such an examination on the professional course as it deems expedient.

PROVINCIAL NORMAL AND MODEL SCHOOLS.

66. There shall be two Sessions of the Normal School each year; the first Session shall open on the third Tuesday in January and the second Session on the third Tuesday in August. The Sessions shall close in June and December at such dates as may be determined by the Minister of Education. Any teacher who has at least Junior Leaving standing, and who has taught a Public School successfully for one year, or who, after passing the County Model School examination, has taught under the supervision of the Inspector of a city having a city Model school, six months thereafter, may be admitted as a Normal School student.

67. Before being registered, every student admitted to a Normal School shall be examined, in writing or orally, by the Normal School masters upon the books prescribed for the calendar year as the reading course for teachers. Any teacher may be refused registration whose examination does not show a thorough acquaintance with such reading course. The course of study after admission shall be limited and valued for examination purposes as follows:—Psychology and Science of Education, 200; History of Education and School Management, each 150; Methods of Teaching (four papers), each paper 100; Practice Teaching in the Model School, 400.

68. The Principal of the Normal School shall be responsible for the discipline and management of the teachers in training. He shall prescribe the duties of the staff subject to the approval of the Minister of Education; he shall cause Sessional examinations to be held in Temperance, Agriculture, Reading, Writing, Drawing, Music and Physical Culture, each valued at 50 marks, and shall keep a record of the same. The staff shall carry out the instructions of the Principal with regard to discipline, management, methods of study and all matters affecting the efficiency of the Normal School and the progress of the teachers in training.

69. Teachers in training shall attend regularly and punctually throughout the Session, and shall submit to such discipline and direction as may be prescribed by the Principal. They shall lodge

and board at such houses only as are approved by the Principal. Ladies and gentlemen shall not board at the same house, and shall have no communication with one another except by permission of the Principal or one of the masters.

70. Teachers in training shall take a written examination towards the end of each Session, to be conducted by the staff, covering every subject on the course of study. The standing of candidates at this examination shall be added to the marks prescribed for the final examination. At the close of each Session candidates shall submit to a written examination conducted by the Education Department. The examiners shall have power to reject any candidate who shows deficiency of scholarship.

71. An examination in practical teaching, to be conducted according to the instructions of the Minister of Education, shall be required of every teacher in training. This examination shall be valued at 200 marks. Any candidate who obtains 34 per cent. of the marks in each subject of the written examinations (the Sessional and final written examination being taken jointly), and 34 per cent. of the marks in teaching (the report of the staff and the report of the special examiners being taken jointly), and 50 per cent. of the aggregate marks shall be entitled to pass standing. Candidates making 75 per cent. of the aggregate marks shall be awarded honors.

72. The terms of the Provincial Model School shall correspond with the Public School terms in cities. The hours of study shall be from 9.30 a.m. to 12 a.m., and 1.30 p.m. to 3.30 p.m. The regulations of the Education Department with regard to pupils and teachers in Public Schools shall apply to the teaching staff and to pupils of the Model School, subject to any modifications that may be made by the Minister of Education from time to time.

73. The Head Master and Head Mistress of each Model School and the Director of the Provincial Kindergarten shall act under the direction of the Principal of the Normal School to which their respective departments are attached, and shall be responsible to him for the order, discipline and progress of the pupils, and for the accuracy and usefulness of the lessons conducted by the teachers in training. All members of the teaching staff shall report themselves for duty to the Principal of the Normal School not later than one day before the reopening of the school after the Easter, Midsummer and Christmas vacations.

ONTARIO NORMAL COLLEGE.

74. The Ontario Normal College shall open each year on the 1st of October and close on the 31st of May. Any person who has Senior Leaving standing, or who is a graduate in Arts of any university in the British Dominions, and who will be eighteen years of age before the close of the College year may be admitted as a teacher in training on application to the Minister of Education on or before the 15th of September.

75. The Course of Study shall consist of lectures on Psychology, the History of Educational Systems, the Science of Education, the best methods of teaching each subject on the High School course of study, School Management; instruction in Reading, School Hygiene, Writing, Drawing, Stenography, Physical Culture; practice teaching, and such other subjects as may be prescribed by the Minister of Education. The marks allowed for examination purposes shall be as follows: Psychology and Science of Education, each 200; History of Education, School Management, Methods in English, in Mathematics, in Science, in Classics, and in French and German, each 150.

76. Teachers in training shall lodge in such houses only as are approved by the Principal; ladies and gentlemen shall not board in the same house, nor shall they mingle together in the class-rooms or in the halls of the Normal College. They shall attend regularly and punctually upon lectures, and shall submit to the rules of the College with regard to discipline, or any other matter required by the Principal, and shall undertake such practice teaching as may be prescribed by the Minister of Education.

77. The Principal shall be responsible for the organization and management of the College and for the discipline of the teachers in training. He shall prescribe the duties of his staff, and shall from time to time be present at their instruction and at the practice teaching of the teachers in training. He shall report the sessional examinations to the Education Department on the forms prescribed by the Minister of Education, and shall make in addition such observations with respect to the conduct of each teacher in training and his aptitude as a teacher as he may deem expedient.

78. Each Lecturer shall explain and illustrate the best method of dealing with each branch of his department as it should be taught

in the different Forms of a High or Public School, and shall, as far as possible, explain and justify his methods on scientific principles, giving model lessons for classes in different stages of advancement. He shall keep a record of the practice teaching of each teacher in training, and shall report to the Principal from time to time any breach of discipline or any irregularity on the part of the teachers in training or any other matter that comes to his notice which may affect the work of the College.

79. Teachers in training shall take two written examinations during the Session, viz., one in December and the other in March, and such oral examinations as may be considered necessary for testing their knowledge of methods and their teaching ability. These examinations shall be conducted by the staff of the College; the number of papers at the sessional examinations and the value of the marks in each subject shall be the same as are prescribed for the final written examination. No teacher in training shall be recommended to pass by the Examiners who has made less than 34 per cent. of the marks at the sessional examinations (fifty marks being the maximum for each) in Reading, Writing, Drawing, or Physical Culture. Any candidate who obtains 34 per cent. of the marks in each subject of the examinations (the sessional and final written examinations being taken jointly), and 50 per cent. of the aggregate marks, shall be entitled to pass standing. Candidates making seventy-five per cent. of the aggregate marks shall be awarded honors.

80. At the end of May in each year the teachers in training shall submit to an examination conducted by the Education Department. Any candidate who obtains the required standing in Psychology, the Science of Education, the History of Education, School Management, Methods in Mathematics, Methods in English, Methods in Latin, Methods in Elementary Science (the Primary course in Botany and Physics) and Methods in one of the following groups, viz.: (a) Greek, or (b) French and German, or (c) Chemistry, Physics and Biology, shall be entitled to a Normal College Interim certificate. The holder of a Specialist's non-professional certificate in any of the courses recognized by the Education Department, who passes the final examination (including methods in the subjects of his non-professional certificate) shall be entitled to a Normal College Interim Specialist's certificate in the subjects of his non-professional Specialist's course.

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

85. The Minister of Education may issue certificates on the report of the Educational Council or the Education Department, as follows, viz., any person who attends a Public Kindergarten for one year and passes the prescribed examination shall be entitled to an Assistant's certificate; any person who has obtained an Assistant's certificate and who has attended a Provincial Kindergarten one year, and passes the prescribed examinations shall be entitled to a Director's certificate. Any person who attends a Normal School one term and who passes the prescribed examinations shall be entitled to a Second Class Public School certificate. Any person who has passed the final examinations of the Normal College shall be entitled to a Normal College Interim certificate.

86. A Normal College Interim certificate shall entitle the holder, if under 21 years of age, to teach in a Public School only, and if over 21 years, to teach in a Public or High School. After two years' successful experience as teachers, the holders of such certificates shall, on the report of the Inspector concerned, be entitled to a permanent certificate as a First Class Public School teacher or as a High School assistant, ordinary or specialist, according to the class of school in which the experience was acquired. Normal College Interim certificates may be extended from year to year on the report of a Public or High School Inspector. Any graduate in Arts in any University in the British Dominions, who holds a High School Assistant's certificate, and who, as shown by the report of the High School Inspector, has taught successfully three years (two of which at least were spent in a High School), shall be entitled to a certificate as Principal of a High School or Collegiate Institute.

87. A third class certificate shall be valid for the full period of three years from the date thereof; and may on expiration be renewed by any Board of Examiners for any period not exceeding three years on the following conditions, viz. :—(a) where the applicant has repassed the Form II. examination or holds any other non-professional certificate of a higher grade, (b) where the applicant attempted such examination and obtained a standing acceptable to the Board. (c) Where the applicant has repassed the County Model School examination. The certificate of any teacher who has

not taught the full period of three years for which his certificate was granted may be extended by the County Board for any time lost by sickness or any other cause. In all cases the report of the Inspector with respect to the efficiency of the applicant as a teacher must be satisfactory. All renewals shall be issued with the authority of the Board, and shall be limited to the jurisdiction of the Board of Examiners granting the same.

88. In case it appears that a duly qualified teacher is not available, and that it is in the public interest that a teacher should be temporarily retained in any school, the Minister of Education may on the report of the Inspector extend a third class certificate for one year, such certificate to be valid only under the Board of Trustees applying for the same. With the consent of the Minister of Education, a temporary certificate may be given by the inspector to any person of suitable character and attainments where a qualified teacher is not available.

PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTORS AND DUTIES OF INSPECTORS GENERALLY.

89. Any person with five years' successful experience as a teacher of which at least three years shall have been in a Public School; who holds either Specialist's non-professional standing obtained on a University examination, or a Degree in Arts from any University in Ontario with first-class graduation honors in one or more of the other recognized departments in such University; and who has passed the examinations of the Ontario Normal College for a Specialist's certificate, shall be entitled to a certificate as an Inspector of Public Schools.

90. Every Inspector, of any class of schools conducted under the Education Department, while officially visiting a school, shall have supreme authority in the school, and may direct teachers and pupils in regard to any or all of the exercises of the school-room. He shall, by personal examination or otherwise, as he may be directed by the Minister of Education, ascertain the character of the teaching in the schools which he is authorized to visit; and shall make enquiry and examination, in such manner as he may think proper, into the efficiency of the staff, the accommodation and equipment of the school, and all matters affecting the health and comfort of the

pupils. He shall report to the Minister of Education any violation of the Schools Act or the Regulations of the Education Department in reference to the class of schools for which he is Inspector.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

91. Every Teachers' Institute shall have one meeting each year on a Friday and Saturday to be named by the Management Committee. The County Council may allow Thursday to be taken also if considered expedient. The Institute shall hold two sittings per day, of three hours each, for at least two days, and one evening sitting. All questions and discussions, foreign to the teachers' work, shall be avoided. The officers of the Institute shall be a President, Vice-President and Secretary-Treasurer. There shall be a Management Committee of five persons, to be appointed by the members of the Institute. The officers and the Management Committee shall be elected annually.

92. The Inspector shall furnish the Secretary of the Institute with a list of the teachers in his County or inspectoral division. Every Public School teacher shall attend continuously all the sessions of the Institute of his County or inspectoral division, and shall answer to the calling of the roll at the opening and closing of each session. A report of the sessions attended by each teacher shall be sent by the Secretary to the Board of Trustees employing such teacher.

TEACHERS' READING COURSE.

93. The Minister of Education may prescribe a Course of Reading for the teachers of Public Schools. The Course shall extend over three years and certificates for reading more than three books in one year shall not be granted by the Inspector. For the purposes of the Course the year shall correspond with the calendar year. A teacher may enter on the Course by taking any of the books prescribed for the year. The list of books for each year will be announced by the Education Department.

94. Any teacher who desires a certificate of having taken the Public School Teachers' Reading Course shall make a synopsis of not less than ten or more than fifteen pages of each book read, and shall transmit the same to the Inspector of his district on or before the 30th of June in each year. Such synopsis shall be accompanied

by a fee of twenty-five cents and a declaration that the books prescribed for the year were read and that the synopsis submitted was prepared without assistance by the person signing the same.

95. The Management Committee of each Teachers' Institute shall appoint two persons, who with the Inspector shall form a Committee for determining whether the synopsis made by the teacher desiring a certificate indicates that the books have been read intelligently. The Inspector shall issue a certificate for each book so read, on the form prescribed by the Minister of Education to every teacher whose synopsis has been found satisfactory. If a teacher is unable to read all the books prescribed for the year or if his synopsis of any book has been rejected, he may substitute the books of the next year for those omitted or rejected.

96. Any teacher who submits to the Education Department certificates showing that he has satisfactorily read nine of the books prescribed, shall be entitled to receive from the Minister of Education a Diploma certifying to the completion of one full reading course covering three years. Additional Diplomas shall be awarded to teachers who complete additional courses of three years.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.*

97. Every Public and High School shall be opened with the Lord's Prayer and closed with the reading of the Scriptures and the Lord's Prayer, or the prayer authorized by the Department of Education. When a teacher claims to have conscientious scruples in regard to opening or closing the school as herein prescribed, he shall notify the Trustees to that effect in writing; and it shall be the duty of the Trustees to make such provision in the premises as they may deem expedient.

98. The Scriptures shall be read daily and systematically, without comment or explanation; the portions used may be taken from the book of selections adopted by the Department for that purpose, or from the Bible, as the Trustees, by resolution, may direct. Trustees may also order the reading of the Bible or the authorized Scripture Selections by both pupils and teachers at the opening and closing of the school, and the repeating of the Ten Commandments at least once a week.

* Consult Chapter IV.

99. No pupil shall be required to take part in any religious exercise objected to by his parents or guardians, and in order to the observance of this regulation, the teacher, before commencing a religious exercise, is to allow a short interval to elapse, during which the children of Roman Catholics, and of others who have signified their objection, may retire. If in virtue of the right to be absent from the religious exercises, any pupil does not enter the school-room till the close of the time allowed for religious instruction, such absence shall not be treated as an offence against the rules of the school.

100. The clergy of any denomination, or their authorized representatives, shall have the right to give religious instruction to the pupils of their own church, in each school-house, at least once a week, after the hour of closing the school in the afternoon; and if the clergy of more than one denomination apply to give religious instruction in the same school-house, the Board of Trustees shall decide on what day of the week the school-house shall be at the disposal of the clergymen of each denomination, at the time above stated. But it shall be lawful for the Board of Trustees to allow a clergyman of any denomination, or his authorized representative, to give religious instruction to the pupils of his own church providing it be not during the regular hours of the school. Emblems of a denominational character shall not be exhibited in a Public School during regular school hours.

SCHEDULE A.—PUBLIC SCHOOL COURSES OF STUDY.

FORM I.

Reading.—The use of the Tablets and Parts I. and II. of the First Reader.

Spelling.—Spelling from dictation and orally.

Writing.—Writing from blackboard copies.

Geography.—Conversations respecting the earth; its divisions of land and water; its plants and animals; explanation of any reference to places in the reading lessons.

English Language.—Oral exercises in language; correction of mistakes in conversation.

Arithmetic.—Notation and Numeration to 1,000; addition and subtraction; mental arithmetic.

Drawing.—The exercises in First Reader and blackboard exercises.

Music.—Rote singing.

FORM II.

Reading.—The Second Reader; easy questions on the literature of every lesson.

Spelling.—Oral spelling, and dictation on slates and paper; blackboard exercises.

Writing.—Copy Books Nos. 1 and 2.

Geography.—Local geography and elementary definitions; map of the world; map geography of all places referred to in reading lessons.

English Language.—Oral and written exercises in language and composition; correction of mistakes in conversation.

Arithmetic.—Notation and numeration to 1,000,000; multiplication and division; mental arithmetic.

Physiology and Temperance.—Conversations on temperance, the use of alcoholic stimulants, and the laws of health.

Drawing.—Authorized Drawing Course, Nos. 1 and 2.

Music.—Rote singing, continued; easy notation.

FORM III.

Reading.—The Third Reader; literature of every lesson.

Spelling.—Course in Form II. continued.

Writing.—Copy Books Nos. 3 and 4.

Geography.—Definitions; general geography of the Dominion of Canada; North and South America; Ontario more particularly; map drawing.

Grammar and Composition.—Classes of words and their inflections; simple analysis; descriptive and letter writing.

History.—Conversations on British and Canadian History; local history.

Arithmetic.—Reduction; compound rules; bills and accounts; averages and aggregates; sharing and measurements; mental arithmetic.

Physiology and Temperance.—Conversations on temperance; the physical effects of intoxicating liquors; importance of exercise.

Drawing.—Authorized Drawing Course, Nos. 3 and 4.

Music.—Easy exercises in musical notation; songs.

FORM IV.

Reading.—The Fourth Reader; the literature of every lesson.

Spelling.—Systematic orthography and orthoepy.

Writing.—Copy Books Nos. 5 and 6.

Geography.—Geography of Canada and the British Empire; the continents; map drawing.

Grammar and Composition.—Elements of formal grammar, analysis and composition. Descriptive, narrative and letter writing.

History.—Leading events in Canadian and British History, with special attention to Canadian History since 1841.

Arithmetic.—Measures, multiples, fractions, percentage, interest, mental arithmetic.

Physiology and Temperance.—Digestion, respiration, the circulation of the blood, and the nervous system. The effects of alcohol and narcotics.

Drawing.—Authorized Drawing Course Nos. 5 and 6.

Music.—Course in Form IV., continued.

SCHEDULE B.—HIGH SCHOOL COURSES OF STUDY.

FORM I. (FORM V. OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS).

Reading.—Practice in Oral Reading.

English Grammar and Rhetoric.—Etymology and Syntax, including the inflection, classification, and elementary analysis of words and the logical structure of the sentence; rhetorical structure of the sentence and paragraph; exercises chiefly on passages from authors not prescribed.

English Composition.—Essays on familiar subjects; familiar letters.

English Poetical Literature.—Intelligent and appreciative comprehension of the prescribed texts; memorization of the finest passages; Supplementary Reading from authors provided in the High School library, or supplied by pupils under the authority of the High School Board; oral reading of the texts. The examination will consist of "sight" work as well as of questions on the prescribed texts.

History.—The History of Canada; British History.

Geography.—The building up of the earth ; its land surface ; the ocean ; comparison of continents as to physical features, natural products and inhabitants ; relations of physical conditions to animal and vegetable products, and of natural products and geographical condition to the occupations of the people and national progress. Form, size and motions of the earth ; lines drawn on the map, with reasons for their position ; relation of the positions of the earth with respect to the sun, to light and temperature ; the air ; its movements ; causes affecting climate. Natural and manufactured products of the countries of the world, with their exports and imports ; transcontinental commercial highways and their relation to centres of population ; internal commercial highways of Canada and the chief internal commercial highways of the United States ; commercial relations of Great Britain and her colonies. Forms of governments in the countries of the world and their relation to civilization.

Arithmetic and Mensuration.—Proofs of elementary rules in Arithmetic ; Fractions (theory and proofs) ; Commercial Arithmetic ; Mental Arithmetic ; Mensuration of rectilinear figures.

Algebra.—Elementary rules ; Highest Common Measure ; Lowest Common Multiple ; Fractions begun.

Geometry.—Euclid, Book I., propositions 1-26 ; easy deductions.

Drawing.—Object and Model drawing, High School Drawing Course Books 1 and 2 ; *Perspective Drawing, Book 3.

**Book-keeping.*—Book-keeping by single and double entry ; commercial forms, such as drafts, notes and cheques ; general business transactions. The book-keeping shall be specially suitable for farmers and artisans or for retail merchants and general traders.

**Stenography.*—The elements of Pitman's system.

**Latin and Greek.*—The elementary Latin Book, grammar, composition and sight-reading. The Beginners' Greek Book begun.

**French and German.*—Grammar, composition, conversation, dictation and sight-reading.

**Botany.*—The practical study of representatives of the following natural orders of flowering plants. Ranunculaceæ, Cruciferae, Malvaceæ, Leguminosæ, Rosaceæ, Sapindaceæ, Umbelliferae, Compositæ, Labiatae, Cupuliferae, Araceæ, Liliaceæ, Iridaceæ, Coniferae, and Gramineæ (types contained in text-book). Drawing and description of plants and their classification. Comparison of differ-

ent organs, morphology of root, stem, leaves and hairs, parts of the flowers, germination, reproduction of flowering plants, pollination, fertilization, and the nature of fruits and seeds. At the examination in Botany a plant belonging to one of the prescribed orders, to be selected by the presiding examiner, will be submitted to the candidates for description and classification.

FORM II.

Reading.—The course in Form I. continued.

English Grammar and Rhetoric.—The course in Form I. continued, with the main facts in the development of the language.

English Composition.—The course in Form I. continued. For examination purposes an essay of about three pages of foolscap on one of the themes prescribed by the examiners will be required. The penmanship, spelling, punctuation, construction of sentences, the logical arrangement of the thought, the literary accuracy and aptness of the language and the general plan or scope of the whole essay will be especially considered by the examiners.

English Poetical Literature.—The course in Form I. continued, with the prescribed texts. At the examination every candidate will be tested as to his familiarity with, and intelligent comprehension of the prescribed texts, and as to his knowledge from memory of the finest passages in prose and poetry. His ability to interpret literature for himself and his knowledge of English Literature generally will be tested by questions on a "sight" passage not contained in the text prescribed.

History.—Great Britain and Canada from 1763 to 1871 with the outlines of the preceding periods of British History. The Geography relating to the History prescribed.

Arithmetic and Mensuration.—Course in Arithmetic in Form I. reviewed and completed. Mensuration: right parallelipeds, pyramids and prisms; the circle, sphere, cylinder and cone.

Algebra.—The course in Form I. reviewed and completed, with simple equations of one, two and three unknown quantities; simple problems.

Geometry.—Euclid; Book I.; deductions.

**Latin and Greek.*—The course in Latin in Form I. continued, with the prescribed author. The Beginner's Greek Book, to page 301; sight translation. In Latin and Greek Grammar the examina-

tion questions in this Form shall be based mainly on prose passages. The sentences for translation into Latin and Greek shall be the same in idiom and vocabulary as in the text-books; the sentences for translation into English shall consist of "sight" work and shall be of the same character as the sentences in the text-books.

** French and German.*—The course in Form I. continued, with the Reader. In French and German Grammar the examination in Form II. shall be based mainly on prose passages; the sentences for translation into French or German shall be the same in idiom and vocabulary as in the authorized text-books; the sentences for translation into English shall consist of "sight" work and shall be of the same character as the sentences in the authorized text-books.

** Physics.*—An experimental course defined as follows:—Metric system of weights and measures. Use of the balance. Phenomena of gravitation. Matter attracts matter. Laws of attraction. Cavendish experiment. Attraction independent of condition. Illustration of weight of gases, liquids and solids. Specific gravity. Meaning of the term "a form of matter." All matter may be subjected to transmutation. "Chemistry," application of measurement by weight (mass) to such transmutation leads to the theory of elements. Matter indestructible. Meaning of "Force." Various manifestations of force, with illustrations from the phenomena of electricity, magnetism and heat. Force measured in gravitation units; consequent double meaning of the terms expressing units of weight as mass and units of weight as force. Meaning of "Work." Measurement of work in gravitation units. Meaning of "Energy." Effects of force continuously applied to matter. Laws of matter in motion. Velocity; Acceleration. Statement of Newton's laws of motion. Definition of "Mass." Meaning, value and application of "g." Mass a measure of matter. Conservation of energy. Energy, like matter, indestructible and transmutable. Study of the states of matter. Properties and laws of gases, liquids and solids. Laws of diffusion. Elementary laws of heat. Mechanical equivalent. Latent heat. Specific heat. Caloric.

** Book-keeping.*—Book-keeping by single and double entry; business forms, usages and correspondence. The Principal and the Board of Trustees may arrange any other course in Book-keeping that, in their opinion, is better adapted to the interests of the pupils taking up the subject.

** Stenography.*—Course in Form I. continued.

FORM III.

English Composition.—Essay-writing.

English Poetical Literature.—Course in Form II. continued, with the prescribed texts.

History.—Outlines of Roman History to the death of Augustus, and of Greek History to the Battle of Chaeronea. The geography relating to the history prescribed.

Algebra.—Course in Form II. reviewed; Square Root; Indices; Surds; Quadratics of one and two unknown quantities.

Geometry.—Euclid; Books I., II. and III. Deductions.

Latin and Greek.—Course in Form II. continued; with the prescribed texts. The examination in Latin and Greek shall consist of translation into English of passages from prescribed texts; translation at sight (with the aid of vocabularies) of easy Attic prose and of passages from some easy Latin prose author; translation from English into Greek and Latin of sentences and of easy narrative passages, based on the prescribed prose texts and such grammatical and other questions as arise naturally from the prescribed texts. Practice in the translation of Greek and Latin beyond the prescribed texts shall be expected of candidates.

French and German.—Course in Form II. continued; with the prescribed texts. In Form III. the examination in Grammar shall consist mainly of translations into French or German of short English sentences, as a test of the candidate's knowledge of grammatical forms and structure, and the translation of passages from English into French or German, and "sight" translation. Practice in French and German beyond the prescribed texts shall be expected of candidates.

Chemistry.—An experimental course defined as follows: Properties of Hydrogen, Chlorine, Oxygen, Sulphur, Nitrogen, Carbon, and their more important compounds. Nomenclature. Laws of combination of the elements. The Atomic Theory and Molecular Theory.

Physics.—ELECTRICITY.—Voltaic cells, common kinds; chemical action in the cell; magnetic effects of the current; chemical effects of the current; voltameter; astatic and tangent galvanometers; simple notions of potential; Ohm's law, with units; best arrangement of cells; electric light, arc and incandescent; magnetism; inclination and declination of compass; current induction; induc-

tion coil; dynamo and motor; electric bell; telegraph; telephone; electro-plating. **SOUND.**—Caused by vibrations; illustration of vibrations, pendulums, rods, strings, membranes, plates, columns of air; propagated by waves; its velocity; determination of velocity; pitch; standard forks, acoustical, $C = 512$, musical, $A = 870$; intervals; harmonic scale; diatonic scale; equally tempered scale; vibration of air in open and closed tubes, with wave-lengths; resonators; nodes and loops; vibration of strings and wires; reflection of sound; manometric flames. **LIGHT.**—Rectilinear propagation; image through a pin-hole; beam; pencil; photometry; shadow and grease-spot photometers; reflection and scattering of light; laws of reflection; images in plain mirrors; multiple images in inclined mirrors; concave and convex mirrors; drawing images; refraction; laws and index of refraction; total reflexion; path through a prism; lenses; drawing image produced by a lens; simple microscope; dispersion and color; spectrum; recombination of white light.

Botany.—The practical study of representatives of the flowering plants of the locality and representatives of the chief subdivisions of cryptogams, such, as a fern, a lycopod, a horse-tail, a liverwort, a moss, a lichen, a mushroom and a chara. The drawing and description of parts of plants and classification. Comparison of different organs, morphology of root, stem, leaves and hair, parts of the flower, reproduction of flowering plants, pollination, fertilization, and the nature of fruit and seeds. At the examination two plants to be selected by the presiding examiner will be submitted, one for classification and one for description. In classification, candidates will be allowed to use their floras (the authorized textbook in Botany).

FORM IV.

English Composition.—Course in Form III. continued.

English Poetical Literature.—Course in Form III. continued, with the prescribed texts. The examination questions will test within reasonable limits the power of appreciating literary art.

History.—English History from the discovery of America to 1763. Ancient History, the course in Form III. reviewed. The geography relating to the history prescribed.

Algebra.—Course in Form III. reviewed. Theory of Divisors; Ratio, Proportion and Variation; Progressions; Notation; Permu.

tations and Combinations; Binominal Theorem; Interest Forms; Annuities.

Geometry.—Euclid. The course in FORMS II. and III. reviewed; Books IV. and VI.; Definitions of Book V.; Deductions.

Trigonometry.—Trigonometrical ratios, with their relations to each other; Sines, etc., of the sum and difference of angles with deduced formulas; Use of Logarithms: Solution of Triangles; Expressions for the area of triangles; Radii of circumscribed, inscribed and escribed circles.

Latin and Greek.—Course in FORM III. continued, with the prescribed texts. In FORM IV. the examination in Latin and Greek shall be of an advanced character and shall include the translation into Latin and Greek of ordinary narrative passages of English. The Roman method of pronouncing Latin is recommended.

French and German.—Course in FORM III. continued, with the prescribed texts. The course of study in FORM IV. in Grammar, Composition and Sight Translation shall be the same as in FORM III., but the examination shall be of a more advanced character.

Physics.—An experimental course, defined as follows:—**MECHANICS.**—Uniformly accelerated rectilinear motion, particularly under gravity; composition and resolution of forces; triangle and parallelogram of forces; friction; polygon of forces; with easy examples. **HYDROSTATICS.**—Fluid pressure at a point; pressure on a horizontal plane; pressure on an inclined plane; resultant vertical pressure, and resultant horizontal pressure, when fluid is under air pressure and when not; transmission of pressure; Bramah's press; equilibrium of liquids of unequal density in a bent tube: the barometer; air pump; water pump, common and force; siphon. **ELECTRICITY.**—Voltaic cells, common kinds; chemical action in the cell; magnetic effects of the current voltameter; astatic and tangent galvanometers; simple notions of potential; Ohm's law, with units, best arrangement of cells; electric light, arc and incandescent; magnetism; inclination and declination of compass; current induction; induction coil; dynamo and motor; electric bell; telegraph; telephone; electro-plating. **SOUND.**—Caused by vibrations; illustration of vibrations, pendulums, rods, strings, membranes, plates, columns of air; propagated by waves; its velocity; determination of velocity; pitch; standard forks, acoustical, C=512, musical, A=870; intervals; harmonic scale; diatonic

scale ; equally tempered scale ; vibration of air in open and closed tubes, with wave lengths ; resonators ; nodes and loops ; vibration of strings and wires ; reflection of sound ; manometric flames.—**LIGHT.**—Rectilinear propagation ; image through a pin-hole ; beam ; pencil ; photometry ; shadow and grease-spot photometers ; reflection and scattering of light ; laws of reflection ; images in plain mirrors ; multiple images in inclined mirrors ; concave and convex mirrors ; drawing images ; refraction ; laws and index of refraction ; total reflection ; path through a prism ; lenses ; drawing image produced by a lens ; simple microscope ; dispersion and color ; spectrum ; recombination of white light.

Chemistry.—Chemical theory. The practical study of the following elements, with their most characteristic compounds, in illustration of Mendelejeff's classification of the elements. Hydrogen ; Scandium ; Potassium ; Magnesium, Zinc ; Calcium ; Strontium ; Barium ; Boron, Aluminum ; Carbon, Silicon, Tin, Lead ; Nitrogen ; Phosphorus ; Arsenic ; Antimony, Bismuth ; Oxygen, Sulphur ; Fluorine, Chlorine, Bromine, Iodine ; Manganese, Iron. **Elementary Qualitative Analysis.** At the examination in Practical Chemistry for Form IV. the material for determination shall be sent from the Education Department, and shall consist of one pure simple salt. In the qualitative analysis of this salt the candidates shall not be allowed the use of text-books, analytical, tables, notes, or charts. Places shall be allotted to the candidates so that each one shall be at least ten feet away from any other candidate. Each candidate shall have exclusive use of one set of reagents, apparatus and lamp, while at work. If the number of candidates should exceed the accommodations of the laboratory, the candidates shall be examined in sections.

Biology.—**ELEMENTS OF ZOOLOGY.**—Thorough examination of the external form, the gills and the viscera of some common fish. Study the prepared skeleton of the same. Demonstration of the arrangement of the muscular and nervous systems and the sense organs, as far as these can be studied without the aid of a microscope. Comparison of the structure of the frog with that of the fish. The skeleton of the pectoral and pelvic girdles, and of the appendages of the frog, and the observation of the chief facts in the development of its spawn, till the adult form is attained. Examination of the external form of a turtle and a snake. Examination

of the structure of a pigeon or a fowl. Study of the skeleton and also of the teeth and viscera of a cat or dog. Study of the crayfish as a type of the Arthropods. Comparison of the crayfish with an insect (grasshopper, cricket or cockroach), also with a millipede and a spider. Examination of an earthworm and a leech. Study of a fresh-water mussel and a pond snail. The principles of zoological nomenclature as illustrated by some of the common fresh-water fish, such as the sucker and herring, bass and perch. Study of an amoeba or paramœcium as a type of a unicellular animal. The modifications of the form of the body in vertebrates in connection with different methods of locomotion. **ELEMENTS OF BOTANY.**—The practical study of representatives of the flowering plants of the locality in which the school is situated, and representatives of the chief subdivisions of cryptogams, such as a fern, a lycopod, a horsetail, a liverwort, a moss, a lichen, a mushroom and a phara. An elementary knowledge of the microscopic structure of the Bean and Maize. The drawing and description of parts of plants and classification. Comparison of different organs, morphology of root, stem, leaves and hair, parts of the flower, reproduction of flowering plants, pollination, fertilization and the nature of fruit and seeds. The material for examination will consist of two plants, a microscopic section and an animal. The plant designated "A" is to be identified by means of the flora. Twenty minutes shall be allowed for this operation. The text-books shall then be taken from the candidates and the paper with the plant designated "B," the animal and the microscope section distributed. Each candidate is to be allowed the use of a compound microscope during the second period. The material for this examination will be sent from the Education Department.

COMMERCIAL DIPLOMA COURSE.

The course shall consist of book-keeping, business forms and usages and stenography. Book-keeping shall be taken in six sets as follows:

Set. I. shall show transactions extending over a period of two months; the transactions of the first month being done by Single Entry, and of the second by Double Entry, and showing the change from Single to Double Entry. Books to be used: Day Book (1st

month), Journal Day Book (2nd month), Cash Book, Bill Book, and Ledger.

Set II. The transactions shall be the same as for Set. I.; those of the first month being done by Double Entry, and of the second month by Single Entry, and showing the change from Double Entry to Single Entry. Books to be used: Four Column Journal with special columns for Mdse. Purchases and Sales (1st month), Day Book (2nd month), Cash Book, Bill Book, and Ledger.

Set. III. A Double Entry set with two partners. Books to be used: Journal Day Book with a special column for Mdse. Sales, Cash Book, Invoice Book, Bill Book and Ledger, the first three as books of original entry.

Set IV. A Double Entry set; a continuation of Set. III., the posting being done in the same Ledger. A third partner shall be admitted, and the transactions shall include shipments and consignments. Books to be used: Journal Day Book, Cash Book, Invoice Book, Sales Book, Bill Book and Ledger, the first four as books of original entry.

Set V. A Double Entry Set; a continuation of Set IV., the posting being done in a new ledger. A fourth partner shall be admitted, and the transactions shall include wholesale merchandising, shipment companies, and merchandise companies. Books to be used: the same as for Set IV.

Set VI. A set in Manufacturing. Books to be used: Journal Day Book, with a special column for Mdse. Sales, Cash Book, Time Book, and Ledger.

The Cash Book shall be a book of original entry in all of the Double Entry sets, various special columns being used in the different sets. A monthly Trial Balance shall be made in connection with Sets III., IV., and V., and Statements of Resources and Liabilities, and of Losses and Gains for all of the Sets. The transactions in the different sets shall be different from year to year. The sets may recur triennially, and shall consist of not less than 20 pages of foolscap.

The book-keeping sets of pupils who write at the examination for a Commercial Certificate shall be sent, pre-paid, to the Education Department, with the examination papers and shall be certified by the teacher to be the work of the candidate.

Business Forms and Usages.—Negotiable paper; promissory

notes ; special notes ; bills of exchange ; acceptance ; negotiation of bills, notes ; cheques ; collection of accounts, discharge and dishonor ; special forms of due bills and orders ; accounts, invoices and statements ; interest ; partnerships ; receipts and releases ; banking ; and commercial correspondence.

Stenography.—At the examination in dictation in stenography, the candidate shall be required to have attained the rate of fifty words per minute. He shall also be required to transcribe his work into longhand at the rate of twelve words per minute. The dictated matter shall consist of business letters and legal documents.

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Chapter XIV

Teaching prnc. to be observed with regard to

I to Instruction in general.

- a means to an end

- must follow natural laws

1. may be { direct
 indirect
 obj.

2. Drill

3. Reviews

{ at each lesson
at stated intervals
at conclusion? types

4. Reproduction.

II black lesson

1. Definitions - purpose

2. Arrangement - purpose

3. Goals - misleading idea

4. Thoroughness

5. Examples

III black pupil

1. interest

2. Concentration

3. Self-activity

4. Study

5. Thoroughness

IV Progression

