



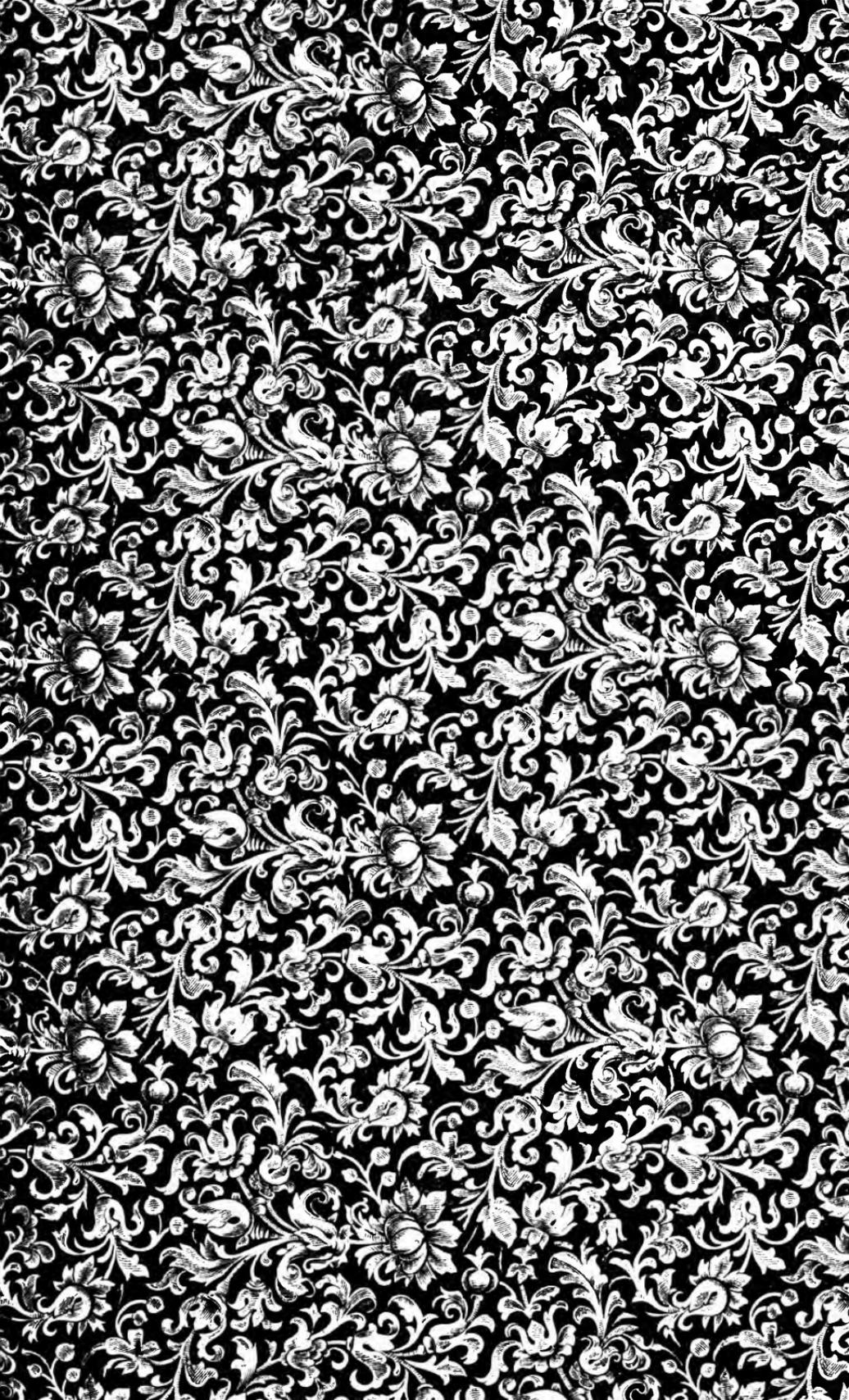
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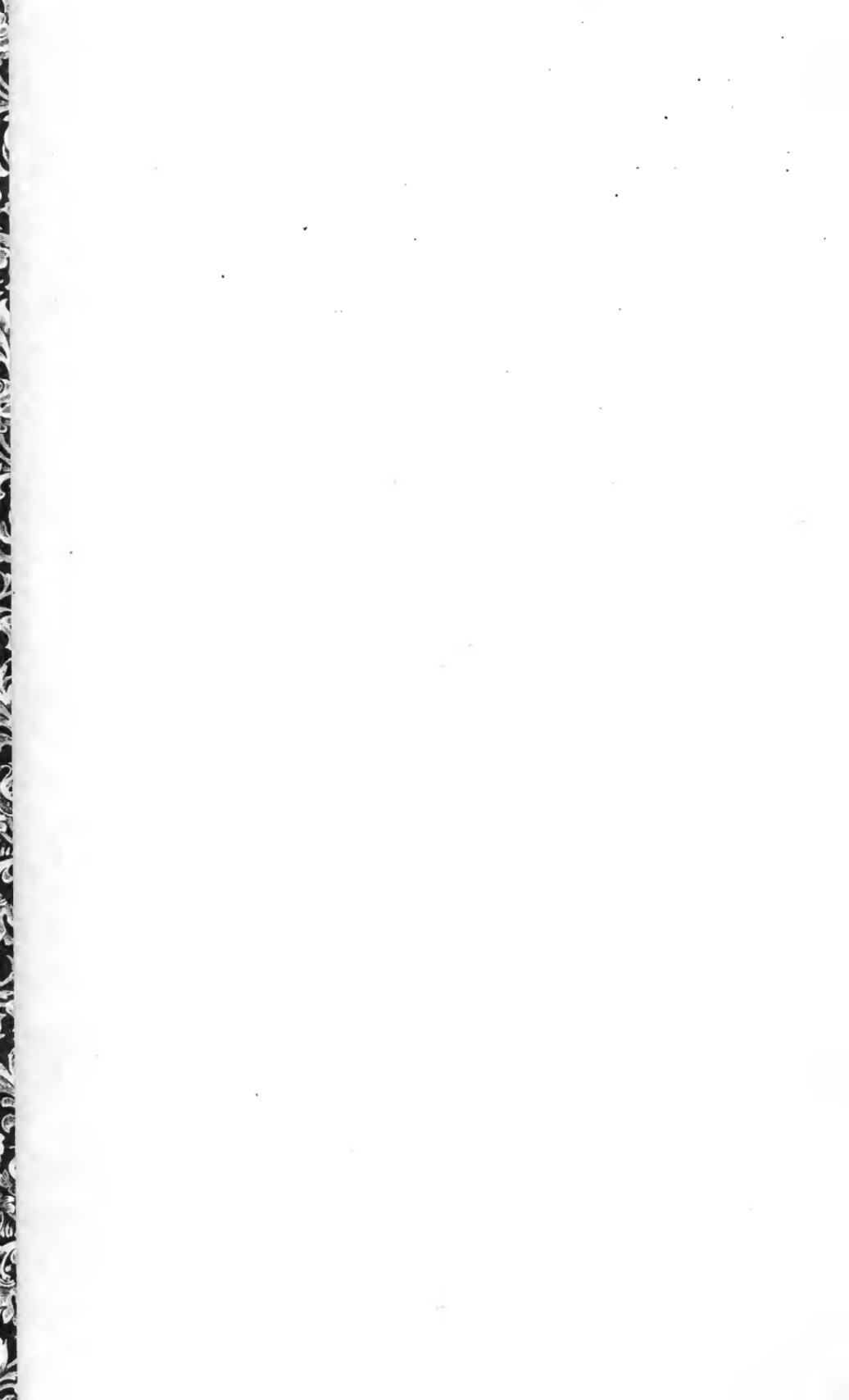
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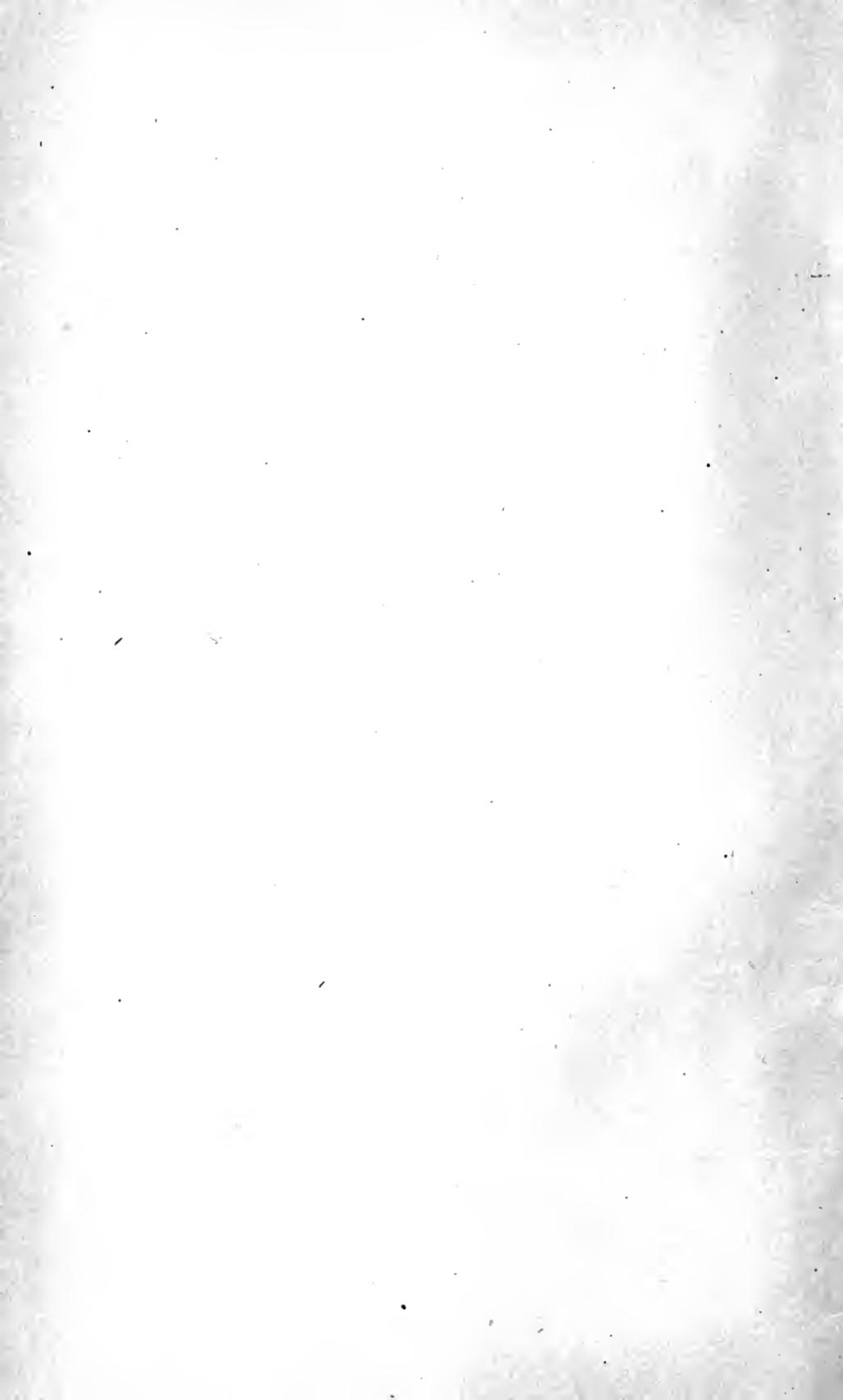
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# SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

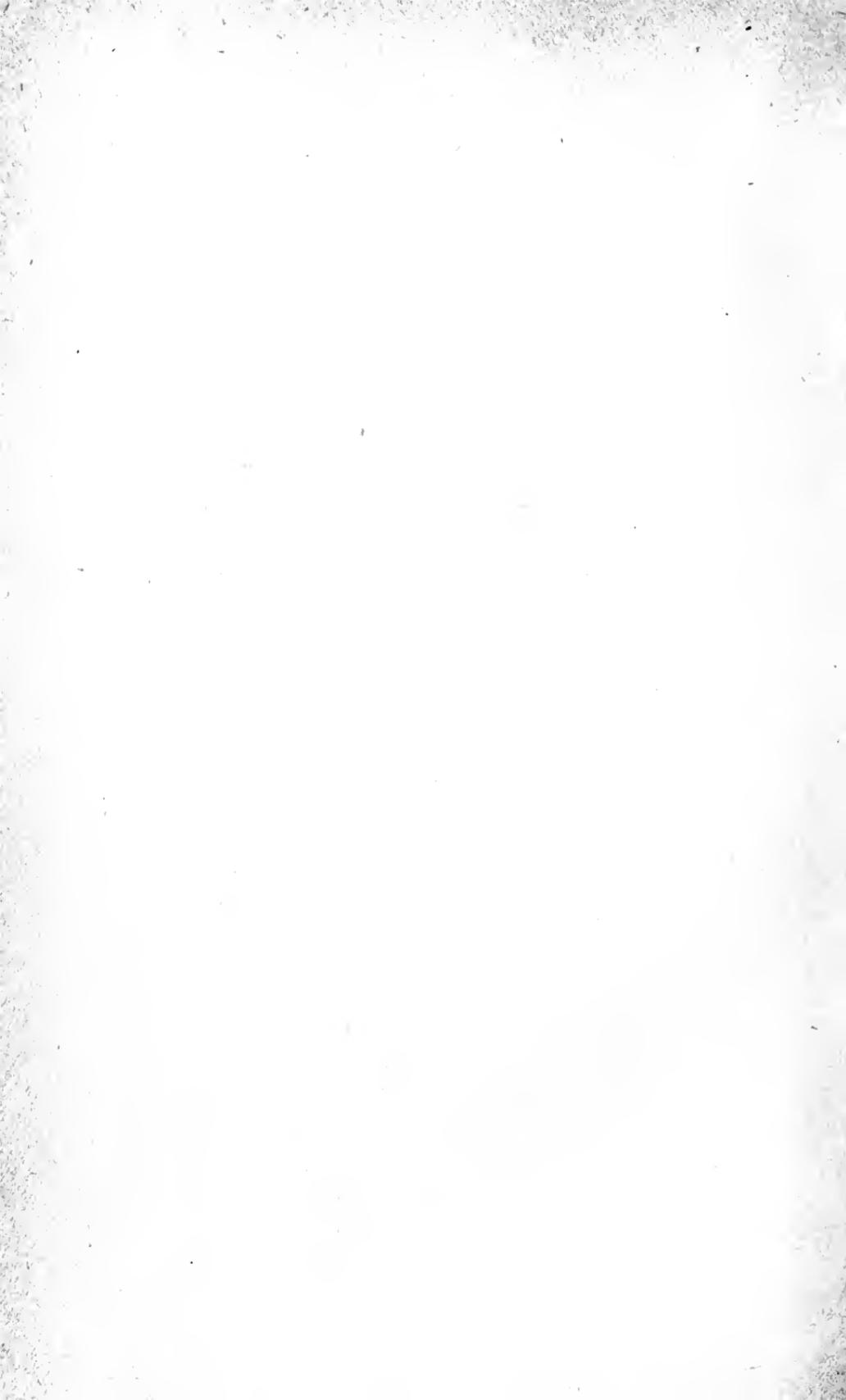
BY

FRANK ROLLINS, A. B.

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
IN THE  
FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY



NEW YORK  
JUNE, 1902



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## PREFACE

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WHILE various phases of school administration in cities have engaged the attention of educators and of writers on municipal government, no one seems to have undertaken a study of the entire subject. Educators have laid stress mainly upon the pedagogic side of administration, and students of municipal problems have treated education as merely incidental to their main theme.

The following paper is the result of a study of school administration in its immediate relation to municipal government. No attempt has been made to treat the subject from an historical point of view, except in so far as was necessary to explain present conditions, and reference has been made to foreign school systems only when such reference served to suggest possible improvements in our own.

In the pursuit of this investigation, I have made use of such materials as were at hand in the proceedings of educational congresses or associations, in reports of state or national departments of education, in the school laws of colonies or states, and in various publications on municipal government. Full acknowledgment for the help of all publications consulted is made in the frequent references in the body of the paper and in the bibliography at its end. I am particularly indebted to the many superintendents and other school officers throughout the United States who have given me, through personal correspondence, the facts tabulated in Chapters II and IV and the suggestions, fresh from the field, collected in the Appendix. As these suggestions were made

in confidence, it is a matter of regret that the well-known names of the writers cannot be attached to them.

In the treatment of each chapter, the general method of this study has been to obtain and record a body of facts; to collect and compare expert opinions relating to the facts and their results, and to draw such general conclusions as seemed warranted.

F. R.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,  
*New York, April, 1902.*

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## CHAPTER I

### THE INTEREST OF THE STATE IN THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION OF CITIES.

To understand the present conditions of school administration in cities, it is necessary to trace briefly the development of such administration from its sources in early rural and village communities. As in the development of living organisms, parts and organs persist which are no longer useful and are sometimes inconvenient and even harmful to the individual, so in educational systems customs and forms of organization prevail which were well adapted to primitive conditions, but are inconvenient and injurious in more highly developed systems.

The early colonial schools came into being in response to an earnest desire on the part of the first settlers that their children should be instructed in learning and in piety.<sup>1</sup> The schools were managed directly by the local authorities of each settlement for nearly a century and a half, till the increasing size of the towns rendered it impossible for every citizen to take a personal interest in every school of his colony.

The school, however, had been a social and political center of the community, and colonists were loath to give up their connection with such an institution. Hence arose the district system, recognized by law in 1789.<sup>2</sup> In rapid suc-

<sup>1</sup> *The General Laws of the Massachusetts Colony, 1642*, reprinted by the order of Boston Common Council, 1889, p. 136. See Law of 1647, *Ibid.*, p. 190.

<sup>2</sup> *Laws of Mass., 1789*, chapter xix, sec. 2.

cession the rights of local taxation,<sup>3</sup> corporate organization,<sup>4</sup> and local election and legislation<sup>5</sup> were given to these districts. All this, as Superintendent Martin observes,<sup>6</sup> "marks the utmost limit to the subdivision of American sovereignty, the high water mark of modern democracy, and the low water mark of the Massachusetts school system."

The location and building of the school house, the election of district officers, the selection of the teacher, the furnishing of the fuel and other supplies became subjects of neighborhood politics; and these matters were most thoroughly discussed, if not always well provided for. The school thus became a means of social and political education to the adults as well as of scholastic education to the children. Part of the educative influence usually ascribed to the New England town meeting no doubt belongs to the district school meeting. The writer as a child had the privilege of attending some of these district meetings, and remembers that deliberations involving a total annual expenditure of one hundred and fifty or two hundred dollars were conducted with an evident devotion to the public good and a decorum which he has never seen equaled in city councils or state legislatures.

Although the district system led to the most shameful abuse and neglect of the children's welfare,<sup>7</sup> it is not hard to see why that system was adhered to so tenaciously by Americans jealous of the slightest invasion of the right of self government. Mixed with narrow and selfish motives

<sup>3</sup> *Laws of Mass.*, Feb. 28, 1800.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, June 13, 1817.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, Mar. 10, 1827.

<sup>6</sup> *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System*, D. Appleton & Co., 1894, p. 92.

<sup>7</sup> See Report of Samuel Young, Superintendent of Common Schools, State of N. Y., 1844, p. 5.

was something of the spirit which wrested independence from England in 1776 and defended it in 1812, the spirit which has caused the great difference between national political parties, and has safeguarded by constitutional enactment<sup>8</sup> the right of self government of the states. This same jealous regard for local political rights has maintained the district and ward system of school administration even to the hurt of the schools. So long as towns and villages were small, the publicity and common knowledge of all local affairs prevented corruption in branches of administration and insured a fair degree of economy; but as methods of administration provided for villages were continued after villages grew to be cities, inevitable corruption, inefficiency, and waste ensued. Nor was there commonly to be found within the city itself the force of public opinion to accomplish necessary reforms. Resort was then had to the state legislature for charter provisions to check abuses and to provide for efficiency and economy of administration. Such appeal to the authority of the state has been made necessary both by the greed of invested capital seeking to escape local taxation, and by the ignorance and indifference of the unambitious masses. Thus it has happened that more and more the state has assumed and exercised the right to establish the great and essential features of city school systems.

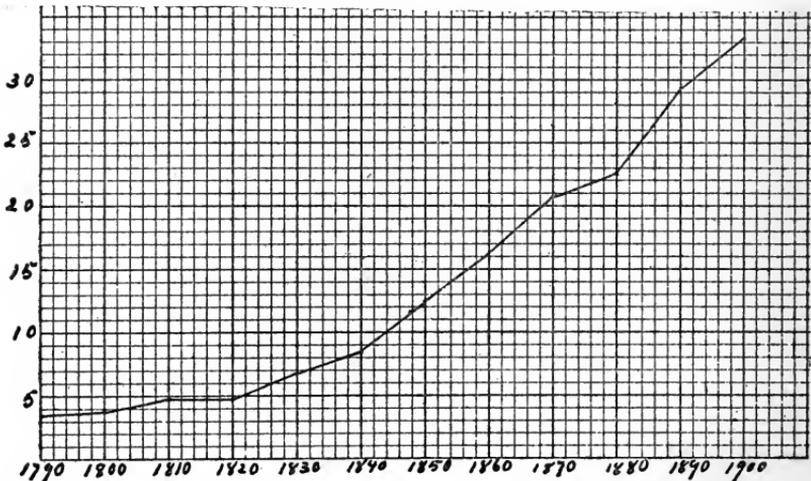
It is not uncommon in American cities to hear objection to state interference in school matters and in other municipal affairs, as if the city had some inherent right to self government such as belongs to the state itself.<sup>9</sup> It should be remembered, however, that the state was the original unit of government in this country, and that states, not cities, combined to establish the Federal Union. What, then, are some

<sup>8</sup> Amendments to the Constitution, Article X.

<sup>9</sup> Bryce, *The American Commonwealth*, Macmillan & Co., N. Y., 1888, p. 303.

of the reasons why the state should concern itself with municipal school administration?

The rapid increase of urban population in the United States has made municipal government a subject of vital national interest. The census of 1790 showed that only 3.35 per cent. of our people lived in cities of eight thousand or more inhabitants; but from the census of 1900 it appears that 33.1 per cent. of the population of the United States live in such cities. The tendency toward city dwelling during eleven decades, may easily be seen from the accom-



Vertical spaces represent percentage of population in cities of 8,000 or more inhabitants.

panying curve<sup>10</sup> representing the percentage of the whole population inhabiting cities, from the first to the latest census. This method of representation has the advantage of showing approximately the per cent. of urban population for any given year, and incidentally what modification may be expected in that percentage in the near future. From the

<sup>10</sup> Plotted from data in the reports of the U. S. census since 1790.

plotted curve it will be seen that during every decade, except one, there has been an actual increase in the per cent. of city dwellers. From 1810 to 1820, the War of 1812 diverted both capital and labor from centers of population, hence there was no relative increase of urban population during that time. The great financial panic of 1873 ruined employers, paralyzed trade, and drove wage-earners from cities to less remunerative employment and less expensive homes in rural communities. Meanwhile the reinforcements, which urban labor usually receives from the country, were excluded from the cities by lack of profitable employment there; hence there appears a somewhat diminished rate of increase of city dwellers for that decade. The percentage of city population for the last decade, 1890 to 1900, shows a somewhat smaller rate of increase than for the preceding decade. This may be due in part to the financial difficulties of 1893, that followed the financial legislation of that year; but in large measure this apparently diminished tendency toward city life was probably due to the large increase of suburban population made possible by improved local train service,<sup>11</sup> by the rapid development of trolley lines, by the construction of good roads, and by the general use of the bicycle among working-men and other people of moderate means. Now this large and rapidly increasing suburban population is practically an organic part of the city population, and the two combined would probably include nearly half the people of the United States.<sup>12</sup> From the foregoing considerations it is evident that municipal administration is

<sup>11</sup> By *Social Statistics of Cities*, Eleventh census, p. 50, 1135 suburban trains run to and from N. Y. City daily. For Boston, the number is 854; for Philadelphia, 790; and for Chicago, 733.

<sup>12</sup> For similar tendency in Great Britain, see Shaw's *Municipal Government in G. B.*, p. 12 *et seq.*

For the continent, see Shaw's *Mun. Gov. in Continental Europe*, pp. 293 to 296.

a matter of highest importance to the nation and the state; and since intelligence and morality constitute the very foundations of nation and state among free people, municipal administration of educational affairs must also be a matter of supreme importance.

Mere accumulation of numbers, however, does not constitute the chief claim of municipal administration to the interest of the entire state. Large cities are made up of heterogeneous populations, often so mixed with recently acquired foreign elements that the city population by itself is quite un-American. Nevertheless, even in cities so largely foreign in population, American customs and institutions must be preserved for the sake of national unity; and American residents, especially of the poorer and middle classes, must be assured of conditions among which they may give their children respectable homes and a suitable education. Moreover, voters and even members of the city government are often not tax-payers. An investigation made in Boston in 1892, showed that less than two-fifths of the voters were tax-payers, and that sixty-two out of eighty-seven members of the city legislative bodies "had no visible property";<sup>13</sup> and this, it will be noted, was the condition of affairs in one of the most conservative of American cities. It can hardly be expected that voters and legislators without property interests will feel the greatest weight of responsibility; hence states have found it necessary to limit both tax-rates and debts of cities<sup>14</sup> lest the rights of property should be too far invaded by municipal legislators. On the other hand, large concentration of wealth, often accompanied by dominant political influence, may become a source of danger to the welfare of the many. Hence a larger geographical

<sup>13</sup> Morrison, *Municipal Government a Corporate, not a Political Problem*, Forum XIII, 791.

<sup>14</sup> *Laws of Mass.*, 1885, Chapter 312, Secs. 2 and 3.

unit than the city should be the final authority for certain large and general provisions of municipal government. The undoubted right of nations to self government, even bad self government, is not an inherent right of cities which are but corporate parts of the state. So universal is the acceptance of this principle as applied to education, that all the states have included in their constitutions<sup>15</sup> provisions relating to education.

But the state at large has a deeper cause for interest in the affairs of its municipalities than may be found either in numbers or in wealth. The rural state pays to the cities an annual tribute far more precious than was ever exacted by ancient monarch or feudal liege. Every year large numbers of the brightest and most enterprising boys and girls from farm and village homes seek higher education or their life work in the city. Few of these ever return permanently to the neighborhoods from which they came. They find in the city the influences that make or mar their future welfare, and there must their children be reared. The fathers and mothers who have given their sons and daughters to swell the city's multitude of toilers and learners, can best understand the interest of the state at large in the city's education and morality. Local option in education or in the exploiting of vice or its accessories will find but few advocates among those rural people whose children and children's children must share the city's good or ill. The rural state is still further interested in the city, because the country draws its new ideas of manners, morals, and religion from the city. Everybody knows how quickly the latest popular song, the latest fashion, the newest slang, or the latest social fad, as well as the latest variation of religious endeavor or worship, is caught up by the country,

<sup>15</sup> A. S. Draper, *Education in the U. S.*, I, 19, J. B. Lyon Co., Albany, N. Y., 1900.

when once the city has approved it. The state owes to itself the duty of keeping pure the fountains of its social, intellectual, and religious life.

Most states contribute large amounts annually to the support of city schools.<sup>16</sup> Some states, as Washington, Texas, Tennessee, New Jersey, and Virginia, contribute from one-third to one-half of all the money spent for schools in their cities.

The support thus given by the states and received by the municipality clearly establishes the right as well as the duty of the state to require an adequate return for money thus invested and to provide for a wise and economical use of school funds. By economical use is intended, not so much the restriction of expenditure, as the enlargement of profitable returns.

While the state must accomplish its work for education largely through municipal agents, it must also prevent, so far as possible, any mixing of local politics with educational interests. To this end the development of education must be made as independent as possible of other departments of municipal government.<sup>17</sup> It seems to be rather easier to separate school affairs from other municipal interests than to make such separation of other departments; for the people are anxious that their children shall not be deprived of the advantages of comfortable school houses and good teaching by any form of jobbery or robbery which might be tolerated in a department where some rods of pavement, or a few policemen more or less might be the chief issue.

The great and influential middle class of the city has a double interest in the honest and efficient administration of school affairs; first in securing the best schools possible in return for taxes paid, and second in maintaining public

<sup>16</sup> Report U. S. Commissioner of Ed., 1898-9, ii, 1536 to 1547.

<sup>17</sup> See *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circular of Information*, 1885, no. 5.

schools that are good enough for their own children; thus avoiding the double burden of paying taxes to the city and tuition to private schools. In regard to most departments of municipal government, the ordinary citizen has only a very general interest in preventing the misappropriation of public funds, unless he finds his own immediate comfort or rights interfered with. But in matters of public education, misappropriation or mal-administration is in itself an invasion of the comfort and personal rights of every citizen.

If the disastrous effects of politics can be eliminated from one department of municipal government, it may be hoped that still other departments may be saved eventually from place-hunters and plunderers.

As a further safeguard for the municipal school system the state possesses, and may exercise, the right to separate the officers of the department of education into legislative and administrative bodies; and may even further sub-divide these. For example, the administrative body may well be separated into administrators of business affairs and administrators of pedagogical affairs. Such division is commonly made in the largest cities;<sup>18</sup> and wherever such division is possible more expert service may be devoted to each branch of the work, and departments may serve as checks and balances against each other. In some of the largest cities it is found necessary to divide the business administration still further into a department of buildings, and a department of school supplies.<sup>19</sup>

The state, by special charter provisions, or by general statute, may very properly provide against revolutionary changes in the constitution of a municipal department of education. Such provision is very commonly made<sup>20</sup> by

<sup>18</sup> *School Law of Indiana*. F. L. Jones, Indianapolis, 1901, p. 180.

<sup>19</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, chapter 466, section 1067.

<sup>20</sup> See tabulation, p. —.

causing some definite part of the board to be selected at stated periods. By this means, even if a bi-partisan board is not secured, the political changes within the board must lag somewhat behind the corresponding changes in municipal politics and the disasters of sudden revolutions of policy are averted. A considerable part of the board would always be possessed of a fair amount of experience and of the caution which naturally results from continued responsibility.

Moreover, the political composition of the board would often be opposed to that of the general municipal government, and this would compel a conservative and defensible policy on the part of the board.

Since local parsimony may seriously restrict the proper development of school systems, the state may assume the right to prescribe a minimum tax rate,<sup>21</sup> the proceeds of which shall be devoted to education or to the support of some particular part of the educational system. Local taxes may be raised to supplement the amount raised by the state; but such local taxes will be reduced by state aid and will be the more patiently borne because the state seems to carry so much of the burden of public education.

The special agencies by which the state administers the school systems of cities will be considered in the next four chapters.

<sup>21</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, chapter 466, section 1064. *Revised Statutes of Indiana*, 1897, sec. 6167.

## CHAPTER II

### THE SCHOOL BOARD OR BOARD OF EDUCATION

IN all the larger cities of the United States, except Buffalo, N. Y., the authority of the state in educational affairs is conferred by charter upon a body of citizens variously known as the board of education, the school board, the school committee, the board of school directors, the board of school trustees, the board of public education, the board of public schools, and the board of school controllers.

This body of citizens, which we shall hereafter designate as the board of education, stands in peculiar relation to the municipal government. While within the city government, it is not of that government, but by charter provisions is usually made more independent than most boards, commissions, or departments. According to former Commissioner of Education, John Eaton: "The separation of school administration from other municipal affairs has resulted in excellent city schools in spite of great defects in municipal government."<sup>1</sup> The reasons for such separation have been stated in the preceding chapter.

Large powers are delegated to this board and a large burden of responsibility is laid upon it. So important are the functions of this body that one of the most prominent writers on this subject has declared: "As is your school board, so are your schools."<sup>2</sup> Another writer<sup>3</sup> considers the

<sup>1</sup> *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circular of Information*, 1885, p. 5.

<sup>2</sup> John D. Philbrick, *U. S. Bureau of Education, Circulars of information*, 1885, p. 14.

<sup>3</sup> A. P. Marble, in *Educational Review*, Sept., 1894, p. 159.

board of education of so great importance that he would have qualifications for membership in such boards prescribed by state law, as qualifications of president and vice-president of the United States, and of senators and representatives in congress are prescribed by the Constitution. No doubt this plan would aid in securing for school administration the services of men of liberal education, broad experience, and proved ability; and at the same time might be achieved the no less valuable result of excluding from the board immature aspirants for political or professional advancement, and the ignorant and incompetent of every age and condition. In view of the manifest advantages of statutory qualifications for members of the board, it is worthy of note that this suggestion has already been incorporated in the school laws of one state.<sup>4</sup>

Among the various methods of choosing a board of education, by far the most common is by popular vote, candidates being nominated from the city at large or from wards or sub-districts. From the tabulation pp. 24-31, it will be seen that 55 cities choose their boards in this way, 28 electing from wards or sub-districts, 24 from the city at large, and 3 by a combination of these plans. It may be said in favor of popular election that the people are thus made to participate directly in the control of school affairs and that their interest and sense of responsibility are thus fostered. This plan is also consistent with the democratic idea of leaving as much power as may be directly in the hands of the people. Necessary reforms might be made with despatch by representatives in close touch with the local needs and desires. All these considerations have been urged not only for popular election, but for nominations by wards; and such arguments would be unanswerable if members of the boards were

<sup>4</sup> *School Law of Indiana*, F. L. Jones, p. 181.

always statesmanlike and unselfish, and if electors were always unselfish and intelligent. Public plunder, however, is too attractive and desire for public office too strong to permit electors or representatives to reach and sustain themselves at the highest level of public service. This is notably true in large cities, where neighborhood acquaintance is impossible, and where the feeling of personal responsibility is not general. The temptation to legislate for local advantage and to reward political support with patronage is too strong for the ordinary political aspirant who seeks election to the board of education. By popular election the choice of members for the board must be made in the heart of a local political campaign, when many interests are at stake besides the welfare of the schools. Places on the board are likely to be given to small politicians not otherwise provided for, or to be traded off for help in securing more prominent places. The position thus becomes degraded and does not attract men of superior ability.

A large body of facts concerning school boards in representative cities may be found in the accompanying tabulations. These facts were obtained through correspondence with school authorities in the several cities in February, 1902:

City.	Population—Censuses of 1900.	What Authority Determines Amount to be Raised for School Purposes?	No. Members of School Board.	How is Gradual Change of Board Provided For?	How is School Board Chosen?	Term of Office in Years.	Chosen from Entire City, Ward, or Sub-district?	How is the Superintendent of Schools Chosen?	Superintendent's Term of Office in Years.
New York City, N. Y.	3,437,202	State law (4 mills, and Board of Estimate and Apportionment.	46	About $\frac{1}{3}$ appointed annually.	Appointed by mayor.	5	Boroughs.	Board.	6
Chicago, Ill.	1,698,575	City council.	21	Seven appointed annually.	Appointed by mayor.	3	City.	Board.	5
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,203,697	City council.	42*		By judges of Court of Common Pleas.	3	Ward.	Board.	1
St. Louis, Mo.	575,238	Four mills by State law.	12	Four elected every two years.	Popular election.	6	City.	Board.	4
Boston, Mass.	560,892	State legislature.	24	Eight elected annually.	Popular election.	3	City.	Board.	2
Baltimore, Md.	508,957	City council.	9	Three appointed bi-ennially.	Appointed by mayor, approved by city council.	6	City.	Board.	No fixed term.
Cleveland, Ohio.	381,768	City tax commission.	7	Three and four elected alternately.	Popular vote.	2	City.	Appointed by director, confirmed by board.	During good behavior.
Buffalo, N. Y.	352,387	Supt. of education.						Elected by the people.	4
San Francisco, Cal.	342,782	Board of supervisors.	4	One appointed each year.	Appointed by mayor.	4	City.	Elected by the people.	4
Cincinnati, Ohio.	325,902	Board.	31	No provision.	Popular vote.	3	Ward.	Board.	2
Pittsburg, Pa.	321,616	Board.	39		Elected by sub-district boards.	3	Sub-district.	Sub-district directors.	3
New Orleans, La.	287,104	City council under State laws and constitution of 1898.	20	Five chosen annually.	Twelve by city council, eight by governor of State.	4	Twelve by districts; eight at large.	Board.	4
Detroit, Mich.	285,704	Council.	17	Eight or nine elected each two years.	Popular vote.	4	Ward.	Board.	3
Milwaukee, Wis.	285,315	Board with approval of common council.	23	$\frac{1}{2}$ elected annually.	Appointed by school board commissioners.†	3	Ward.	Board.	3
Washington, D. C.	278,718	Board.	7	One appointed annually.	Commissioners of D. C.	7	Entire district (D. C.).	Board.	No limit.
Newark, N. J.	246,070	Common council.	30	Fifteen elected annually.	Elected by wards.	2	Wards.	Board.	Indefinite.
Jersey City, N. J.	206,433	City board of finance.	13	Ten appointed one year, 3 the next.	Appointed by mayor.	2	One at large, others by wards.	Board.	3
Louisville, Ky.	204,731	City council.	14	Seven elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	Legislative districts.	Board.	2
Minneapolis, Minn.	202,718	Board of tax levy.	7	Two elected every two years.	Popular vote.	6	City.	Board.	3

\* Since February 11, 1902.

† School board commissioners of Milwaukee are appointed by the mayor.

Do Principals Supervise Methods?	Do Principals Teach?	How Are Teachers Nominated?	How Are Teachers Appointed?	How Are Teachers Certificated?	When Does a Teacher's Tenure of Office Become Practically Permanent?	To What Extent Do Civil Service Rules Govern the Appointment, Promotion, and Tenure of Office of Teachers?	Who Authorizes Construction and Repairs of School Buildings?	Who Appoints Janitors?	Are Janitors Directly Responsible to Principals for Faithful Performance of Duty?
Yes.	In smallest schools.	Supts.	Board.	Board of examiners.	After three years.	Largely.	Board.	Board.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	After examination.	After three years.		Com. on buildings and grounds.	Board.	No.
Yes.	No.	Local boards.	Board.	Board.	Upon election.		Board, through committee on property.	Local board.	Partly.
Yes.	In small schools only.	Supt.	Board.	By graduation from normal school.	During good service.	Merit only.	Commissioner of school buildings.	Com. on school buildings.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Supt. and board.	Board of supervisors.	After five years.	No formal rules.	School-house commission of city government.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	No.	Supt. from eligible list.	Board.	Examination board.	After one year.	Largely.	Board, through supervisor of school buildings.	Board.	No.
Partially.	One hour per day.	Supt.	Supt.	Board of examiners.	During successful work.	Practically, entirely; technically, not at all.	School director.	School director.	Yes.
Yes.	Some do.	Supt.	Supt.	Board of examiners.	After six months.	Entirely.	Bureau of buildings.	Mayor.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, part time.	By board members.	Board.	Supts. and board.	After six months.	Not at all.	Board of public works.	Board.	Yes.
No.	In a few schools.	Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	After seven years.		Committee on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	No.	Sub-district boards.	Sub-district boards.				Sub-district board.	Sub-district board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	By board, in order, from eligible list.	Board.	Board.	After three months.	Entirely.	Committee on school-houses.	Board.	Yes.
Partly.	Some.	Supt.	Board.	Examining Committee.	Upon appointment, if satisfactory.	Wholly.	Committee on real estate.	Com. on janitors.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools.	By Committee on Appointments.	Board.	By graduation from normal school or college.	During efficiency.	In practice, entirely.	Joint committee of board, common council, & board of public works.	Board.	Yes.
No.	Yes.	Members of board.	Board.	Upon examination.	Upon appointment.	Not at all.	Inspector of buildings, D. C.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	One year, if satisfactory.	Entirely.	Supt. of erection and repairs.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, part time.	By standing on eligible list.	Board.	Board of examiners.	Upon appointment.	Entirely.	Board, through supervising architect.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, in smaller schools.	District trustees.	Board.	As normal graduates.	Never.	Not at all.	Board.	Principal.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools.	Supt.	Board.	Board, through superintendent.	After five years.	Practically, but without formal rules.	Committee on buildings.	Board.	Yes.

City.	Population—Census of 1900.	What Authority Determines Amount to Be Raised for School Purposes?	No. Members of School Board.	How is Gradual Change of Board Provided For?	How is School Board Chosen?	Term of Office in Years.	Chosen from Entire City, Ward, or Sub-district?	How is the Superintendent of Schools Chosen?	Superintendent's Term of Office in Years.
Providence, R. I.	175,597	City council.	33	10 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Wards.	Board.	1
Indianapolis, Ind.	169,164	Board.	5	3 and 2 elected bi-ennially.	Popular vote.	4	City.	Board.	4
Kansas City, Mo.	163,752	Board, up to 4 mill limit.	6	2 elected every two years.	Popular vote.	6	City.	Board.	1
Saint Paul, Minn.	163,065	City council, on request of Board.	7	3, 2, and 2, on successive years.	Appointed by mayor.	3	City.	Board.	2
Rochester, N. Y.	162,608	State law and city council.	5	2 and 3 elected alternately.	Popular vote.	4	City.	Board.	4
Denver, Col.*	133,859	Board under charter limits.	6	2 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	District.	Board.	1
Toledo, Ohio.	131,822	Board.	5	1 elected each year.	Popular vote.	5	City.	Board.	2
Allengheny, Pa.	129,896	Board.	90	30 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Wards.	Board.	3
Columbus, Ohio.	125,560	Board, approved by tax commission.	19	9 and 10 elected on alternate years.	Popular vote.	2	Wards.	Board.	2
Worcester, Mass.	118,421	City council.	24	8 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Wards.	Board.	1
Syracuse, N. Y.	108,374	Board of estimate and apportionment.	7	3 elected one year, 4 two years later.	Popular vote.	4	City.	Board.	3
New Haven, Conn.	108,027	City board of finance.	7	2 or 1 appointed annually.	Appointed by mayor.	4	City.	Board.	5
Paterson, N. J.]	105,171	Board of school estimate. 2 Bd. Ed., 2 aldermen and mayor.	8	4 appointed every two years.	Appointed by mayor.	2	Wards.	Board.	Indefinite.
Fall River, Mass.	104,863	City council.	9	3 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	1
Saint Joseph, Mo.	102,979	Board.	6	2 elected every two years.	District vote.	2	City.	Board.	2
Omaha, Neb.	102,555	Board.	15	5 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	3
Los Angeles, Cal.	102,479	City council.	9	No provision.	Popular vote, by wards.	2	Wards.	Board.	4
Memphis, Tenn.	102,320	State, county, and city.	5	Part elected every two years.	Popular vote.	4	City.	Board.	2
Scranton, Pa.	102,026	City board of control.	21	10 or 11 elected bi-ennially.	Popular vote.	4	Wards.	Board.	3

\* Denver is divided into four districts, each having a superintendent of its own. The facts given above are for District

Do Principals Supervise Methods?	Do Principals Teach?	How are Teachers Nominated?	How are Teachers Appointed?	How are Teachers Certificated?	When Does a Teacher's Tenure of Office Become Practically Permanent?	To What Extent Do Civil Service Rules Govern the Appointment, Promotion, and Tenure of Office of Teachers?	Who Authorizes Construction and Repairs of School Buildings?	Who Appoints Janitors?	Are Janitors Directly Responsible to Principals for Faithful Performance of Duty?
Yes.	Yes.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	State.	Upon appointment.	Not at all.	Com. of city council.	Bd. Com. on school houses.	No.
Yes.	Occasionally.	Supt.	Supt.	State.	During good service.	Practically entirely.	Board through director.	Business directors.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools only.	By board, usually on advice of Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	During satisfactory service.	Generally.	Board.	Board, usually on nomination chief engineer.	Yes.
Yes.	In schools of less than 8 rooms.	Supt.	Board.	Examining Com.	After one year.	Very largely.	Council for construction, board for repairs.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Some.	Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	No specific regulation.		Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Half time in small schools.	Board.	Board.	Board.	After three months.	Largely.	Board.	Board.	Practically, yes.
Yes.	Not regularly in large schools.	Supt.	Supt.	Board of examiners.	During good service.	Supt. not limited.	Business manager.	Business manager.	Yes.
Some.	Not much.	Board.	Board.	Supt.	Never.	Merit secures promotion.	Ward board.	Ward board.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools only.	Supt. and Com. on teachers.	Board.		During good service.	Generally.	Com. on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Some.	Two hours daily.	Com. on teachers.	Com. on teachers.	Com. on teachers.	During success.	Appointed in order from eligible list.	Supt. of pub. buildings.	Supt. of public buildings.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	From eligible list by any member of board.	Board.	State.	One year.	Not at all.	Supt. of buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Board.	After satisfactory service.	Not at all.	Com. on school buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Not required to do so.	Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	After one year.	Formally, not at all.	Com. on buildings and repairs.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt. and board.	Supt. and board.		After three years.	Practically altogether.	Com. of city council.	Com. of city council.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	Supt.	During satisfactory service.	Largely.	Com. on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, in small schools.	Supt. and teachers Com.	Board.	Special Exam. Com.	Five years.	Promotion and tenure.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, in small schools.	Supt.	Board.	Board.	When satisfactory.	As far as practicable.	Com. on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Only occasionally.	Supt. and two members of board.	Board.	Examining Com.	Never.	Very limited.	Board, through committee.	Supt. and board.	Yes.
No.	Yes.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	Supt.	During satisfactory service.	Practically entirely.	Board, through Supt. of construction.	Board.	Yes.

Ctry.	Population—Census of 1900.	What Authority Determines Amount to be Raised for School Purposes?	No. Members of School Board.	How is Gradual Change of Board Provided For?	How is School Board Chosen?	Term of Office in Years.	Chosen from Entire City, Ward, or Sub-district?	How is the Superintendent of Schools Chosen?	Superintendent's Term of Office in Years.
Springfield, Mass.	62,059	City council, general expenses; Sch. committee for teachers' salaries.	10	3 elected each year, mayor ex-officio.	Popular vote.	3	1 from each of 8 wards, 1 at large.	Board.	1
Somerville, Mass.	61,643	Board.	14	Half elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	1
Troy, N. Y.	66,651	Common council.	7	3 appointed each year.	Appointed by mayor.	3	City.	Board.	1
Hoboken, N. J.	59,364	Board of tax commissioners.	8		Appointed by mayor.	2	City.	Board.	3
Evansville, Ind.	59,007	Board.	3	1 appointed each year.	Mayor.	3	City.	Board.	1
Manchester, N. H.	56,987	Com. of common council.	22	Not provided for.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	2
Utica, N. Y.	56,383	Board.	6	2 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	Not limited
Peoria, Ill.	56,100	Board.	16	8 elected each year.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	5
Charleston, S. C.	55,807	Board.	10	4 appointed, 6 elected.	Vote of school districts.	4	District.	Board.	4
Savannah, Ga.	54,244	County commissioners.	12	9 self perpetuating, 3 by mayor.	Every two years.	No limit, 2	City.	Board.	1
Salt Lake City, Utah.	53,531	Board.	10	5 elected biennially.	Popular vote.	4	Ward.	Board.	2
San Antonio, Tex.	53,321	Board.	7	3 and 4 elected alternately.	Popular vote.	2	City.	Board.	1
Duluth, Minn.	52,969	Board.	9	3 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	3
Erie, Pa.	52,733	Board.	18	1 from each ward annually.	Elected.	3	Ward.	Board.	3
Elizabeth, N. J.	52,130	City council and Board of Ed.	12	6 elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	7
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	51,721	Board.	6	2 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	3
Kansas City, Kan.	51,418	Board, under limits of state law.	6	2 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Ward.	Board.	1
Harrisburg, Pa.	50,167	Board of school directors.	27	9 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Ward.	Board.	3
Portland, Me.	50,145	City government.	13	6 and 7 elected biennially.	Popular vote.	2	1 from each ward, 3 at large.	Board.	1

Do Principals Supervise Methods?	Do Principals Teach?	How are Teachers Nominated?	How are Teachers Appointed?	How are Teachers Certificated?	When Does a Teacher's Tenure of Office Become Practically Permanent?	To What Extent do Civil Service Rules Govern the Appointment, Promotion, and Tenure of Office of Teachers?	Who Authorizes Construction and Repairs of School Buildings?	Who Appoints Janitors?	Are Janitors Directly Responsible to Principals for Faithful Performance of Duty?
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Board.	When proved competent.		City government.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	½ time.	Supt.	By board annually.		Never.	Not at all.	Commissioner of Pub. buildings.	Com. of Pub. buildings.	Yes.
Yes.	Not regularly.	Board.	Board.	Under State law.	Never.	Not at all.	City government, through city engineer.	Dept. of public works.	Partly, but more to Dept. of Public Works.
Yes.	Part time.	Teachers' Com.	Board.	Graduation from Tr. School.	Six months.	Not at all.		Board.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools.	Board.	Board.	State.	After 20 years.		Board, through custodian of buildings and grounds.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Supt. and examining committee.	After 1 year, if successful.	No special rule.	Board, through engineer.	Special committee.	Yes.
Some.	Some.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	State.	During satisfactory service.		Com. on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Part time only.	Supt.	Board.	Board.	After 3 years.	Wholly, in practice.	Board, through Supt. of buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	No.	Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	During good service.	Not at all.	Com. on construction and repairs.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Eligible list.	Board.		Never.	Practically in all cases.	Com. on school houses.	Supt.	Yes.
Yes.	In small schools.	Supt. through Com. on teachers.	Board.	Board of examiners.	During success.	To limited extent.	Supt. of buildings and Board.	Board.	To limited extent.
Yes.	Yes.	Com. of Board.	Board.	State Board, City Bd. & Supt.	Never.	Successful service recognized.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Part time.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	Board of examiners.	After 5 years.	Largely.	Building Com. of Board.	Board.	No.
Yes.	Yes, but not regularly.	Supt.	Board.	Supt.	1 year, if satisfactory.	In promotions.	Com. on buildings.	Board, by wards.	Yes.
Yes.	No.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	City and State.	Upon election.	Merit only.	Com. on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
No.	Yes.	Teachers' Com.	Board.	Supt. or State.	During successful service.	Not at all.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes, in small schools.	Supt.	Board.		When satisfactory.	Almost entirely.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Com. on teachers.	Board.	Supt. or State.	During good service.	Almost entirely.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supervisors.	Board.	Board.	When satisfactory.	Not at all.	Com. of city government.	Com. of city government.	No.

CITY.	Population—Census of 1900.	What Authority Determines Amount to be Raised for School Purposes?	No. Members of School Board.	How is Gradual Change of Board Provided For.	How is School Board Chosen?	Term of Office in Years.	Chosen from Entire City, Ward or Sub-district?	How is the Superintendent of Schools Chosen?	Superintendent's Term of Office in Years.
Yonkers, N. Y.	47,931	Board of education and common council.	15	3 appointed annually.	Appointed by mayor.	5	City.	Board.	At pleasure of board.
Norfolk, Va.	46,624	City council.	14	7 elected every two years.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	State board of education.	4
Waterbury, Conn.	45,859	Board of education and aldermen.	7	No provision.	Popular vote.	2	Entire city.	Board.	2
Holyoke, Mass.	45,712	Aldermen.	9	3 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	7 by wards, 2 at large.	Board.	1
Fort Wayne, Ind.	45,115	State and board.	3	1 elected annually.	City council.	3	City.	Board.	Not a fixed number.
Youngstown, O.	44,885	Board.	20	10 elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	2
Houston, Tex.	44,633	City council.	7	3 and 4 elected alternate years.	Popular vote.	2	City.	Board.	1
Covington, Ky.	42,938	City council, on request of board.	12	6 elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	City.	Board.	2
Akron, O.	42,728	Board.	16	8 elected annually.	Popular vote.	2	Wards.	Board.	2
Dallas, Tex.	42,638	City council, to 2½ mill limit.	7	No provision.	Popular vote.	2	City.	Board.	2*
Saginaw, Mich.	42,345	Board of estimate.	18	9 elected each year.	Popular vote.	2	Ward.	Board.	1
Lancaster, Pa.	41,459	Board.	36	12 elected annually.	Nominated by wards: popular election.	3	Ward.	Board.	3
Lincoln, Neb.	40,169	Board.	9	3 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	1
Brockton, Mass.	40,063	Board of aldermen.	10	3 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	1
Binghamton, N. Y.	39,647	Common council.	7	1 appointed each year.	Appointed by mayor.	7	City.	Board.	At pleasure of board.
Augusta, Ga.	39,441	County board of education.	City 15, Co. 22.	12 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	Ward, militia district, and village.	Board.	1
Pawtucket, R. I.	39,231	City council.	9	3 elected annually	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	1
Altoona, Pa.	38,973	Board.	6	2 elected annually.	Popular vote.	3	City.	Board.	3
Wheeling, W. Va.	38,878	Finance committee of board.	21	7 elected bi-ennially.	Popular vote.	6	Ward.	Board.	2

\* Superintendent is elected in the year during which election of board does not occur.

Do Principals Supervise Methods?	Do Principals Teach?	How are Teachers Nominated?	How are Teachers Appointed?	How are Teachers Certificated?	When Does a Teacher's Tenure of Office Become Practically Permanent?	To What Extent do Civil Service Rules Govern the Appointment, Promotion, and Tenure of Teachers?	Who Authorizes Construction and Repairs of School Buildings?	Who Appoints Janitors?	Are Janitors Directly Responsible to Principals for Faithful Performance of Duty?
Yes.	Not in large schools.	Supt.	Com. of board.	State.	After proved success.	Technically, not at all.	Committee on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Committee on teachers.	Board.	Supt.	During good behavior.	Very largely.	Building Com. & Supt.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	$\frac{2}{3}$ time.	Supt.	Supt.	Supt.	2 years.	Only normal & college graduates eligible.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Supt.	3 years.	Not at all.	Board of public works.	Board.	Yes.
No.	No.	Supt.	Board.	Supt.	Never.	Not at all.	Board, through architect.	Board.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	Committee on teachers.	Board.	Examining committee.	Upon appointment, if satisfactory.	Ability always recognized.	Board, through committee.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Examining board.	After one year.	Almost entirely.	Committee on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ time.	Board and Supt.	Board.	Board of examiners.	When successful.	Not at all.	Building committee.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Part time.	Supt. and committee on teachers.	Board.	Examining board.	When proved successful.	No formal rules.	Board, through committees.	Board.	In a measure.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	Upon examination.	After successful service.	So far as practicable.	Com. on Sch. Property.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Part time.	Committee on teachers.	Board.	Supt. and Exam. Com.	After 2 or 3 years.	In practice, entirely.	Committee on buildings.	Board.	Yes.
No.	Yes.	Board.	Board.	Supt.	Practically upon appointment.		Board.	Board.	No.
Yes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ time.	Supt.	Board.	Supt., Prin. H. Sch. & Chm. T. Com.	During satisfactory service.	Not at all.	Committee on buildings.	Committee on care of buildings.	To limited extent.
Yes.	Yes.	Committee on teachers and Supt.	Board.	Board.	Never.	Not at all.	Supt. of public buildings.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Supt.	Board.	State.	During satisfactory service.		Supervisor of buildings.	Board, under civil service.	Yes.
Yes.	$\frac{1}{2}$ time.	Supt.	Board.	Supt.	During good behaviour.	Spirit of rules observed.	Building committee of board.	Principals.	Yes.
Yes.	Yes.	Committee of Board.	Board.	State.	Upon election.	Merit and fitness.	Property Com. of Board.	Board.	No.
Yes.	Yes.	Board.	Board.	Supt.	When satisfactory.	Generally.	Board.	Board.	Yes.
Yes.	Part time.	Ward commissioners.	Board.	By examination.	When satisfactory.	Formally, not at all.	Committee on buildings.	Board, on nomination of ward commissioners.	Yes.

A special election for choosing a board of education is scarcely practicable, since comparatively few would find time to attend to voting at such an election. It is fair to say, though, that in small cities excellent school administration has been accomplished by elective boards. Local pride, general personal acquaintance, and a preponderance of self-respecting middle-class inhabitants, have prevented corruption in school affairs. No doubt the tendency of rapidly growing cities to preserve the institutions which served them while they were villages or small cities has proved most harmful in school administration.

The second method of selecting the board of education is by appointment, and the appointing power is most commonly vested in the mayor of the city. Although this plan seems to remove direct control from the people at large, it has proved so satisfactory that no city, so far as the writer can discover, having adopted it, has returned to popular election. The loss of political power on the part of the people is more apparent than real, for they create the appointing power and may be more safely trusted to see that their appointee does his duty faithfully, than to do such duty for themselves. The mayor, or other appointing officer, is a concrete individual and may be held strictly to account, but "the people" is an irresponsible, general body which can inspect, complain, and instruct with great facility; but can be held accountable for nothing.

If appointment is made by the mayor, he may attend to this duty at a time apart from all political excitement and somewhat after his own election. In case of a mayor about to retire from office, school appointments may be made under most favorable conditions, since the retiring mayor has no political bargains to make, and the conservative influence of the old administration may be carried forward into the new.

Appointment of the board by the judges of the Court of Common Pleas in Philadelphia, and by a special commission created for that purpose in Milwaukee, are methods of selection so unusual as to require no more than a passing comment. In the one case the appointing power is comparatively independent of the people, and in the other absolutely irresponsible after they have performed the function for which they were created. This lack of responsibility is enough to condemn either plan.

By reference to the tabulation, pp. —, it will be seen that cities are pretty evenly divided in the matter of choosing members of their boards from the city at large or from subdivisions of the city. In the case of very large cities made up of recently combined smaller cities, it is easy to see some reason for the evident desire to maintain local representation; and there may be some necessity for such representation while the new city is adjusting its parts to new relations; but in old and compact cities local representation as well as representation of races, religions, or social classes is likely to suggest unnecessary conflicts of interest in the board and to result in inefficient disagreement or in bargains for the accomplishment of factional ends. It is significant that in the author's correspondence with superintendents<sup>5</sup> several recommend the selection of boards from the city at large, rather than from wards, but not one advises a change of representation from the city at large to wards. The argument most frequently used in favor of ward representation in the board is the advantage of the intimate knowledge of local conditions and needs on the part of the ward representative; but the use which a local politician commonly makes of his intimate knowledge of local affairs is too well known to require any apology for his elimination from school administration.

<sup>5</sup> See Appendix.

Of course any intelligent appointing power or electing body will see that due regard is paid to a wise geographical distribution of representatives; but that entails no local obligations upon the persons chosen, as would be the case if they were elected, or at least nominated by a local constituency who might demand and exact special consideration of local interests. No discussion of the composition of a board of education would be complete which omitted to say that the city superintendent of schools, who is the professional adviser of the board, should have a seat and a voice in the deliberations of that body, not merely by courtesy, but by right.

From the tabulation at the first of this chapter, it appears that terms of office for members of boards are generally two or three years. The advantages of short and long terms are readily apparent. A short term makes a member closely responsible for performing his duty according to the desire of the appointing power, and makes the member in fact a representative of the officer, board, or constituency which selects him. It is evident, then, that a short term tends to relieve the member of a sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of the schools of his city, and to take away from him the exercise of independent judgment in the administration of affairs which his office requires him to study. A long term of office, on the other hand, removes a large measure of control from the appointing power and leaves it with the person appointed. While it is possible for the appointed member to make a bad use of the independence bestowed by his long term of office, the care with which he would be selected, in view of the impossibility of getting rid of him, would in some degree offset any practical disadvantage arising from his independence. Moreover, the personal responsibility and the respectability attached to a long tenure of office would make available a set of men greatly superior

to those who would consent to serve for a short time, acting as the mere mouthpiece of others. The increased experience of members serving for long periods would be a distinct advantage to the school system, and it is quite probable the good men would be more easily induced to serve for a second or third time, if long terms of office enabled them to carry out large plans for educational improvement without danger of interference from passing changes of public opinion.

If long terms of office be continued with provision for gradual change in the composition of the board, the influence of party politics upon school affairs will be reduced to a minimum. For example, by provisions of the charter of New York City,<sup>6</sup> taking effect January 1, 1902, each member of the board is appointed for a term of five years; and approximately one-fifth of the board retires annually on the thirty-first day of December, their successors having been appointed by the Mayor in the month of November preceding. Thus a mayor, who finds his party defeated in a November municipal election, has the opportunity to have his party representation in the board of education strongly fortified by his appointments made just before retiring. If he has served two full terms of two years each, he can leave a strong majority of his party in control of the board, a majority which would persist quite through his successor's first term of two years. During this time, the board, being in political opposition to the rest of the city government, would be compelled to pursue a most conservative and defensible policy of administration, both for the sake of escaping criticism from other departments, and in the hope of winning support for its own party in the next municipal election. The spoilsman from within the board would thus be thwarted by the watchfulness of other departments, and the spoilsman from outside the board would be thwarted by

<sup>6</sup> See chapter 466, Laws of 1901, State of New York.

the board itself. Thus the tendency of political changes in the board to lag behind political changes in the general municipal government would be a most effective safeguard of educational interests. Of course it may be expected, and is to be hoped that mayors of New York City may follow the statesmanlike policy adopted by Mayor Low and appoint strong and serviceable men to the board without regard to their party affiliations. In this manner partisanship would be most effectively eliminated from the board, though there would still remain some tendency to preserve the checks and balances of the board over against the general municipal government. Changes of political representation in the board would still lag behind similar changes in other departments, though not so far behind. If party feeling ran so high as to induce the mayor to choose men of his own party for the board, the changes in the political make-up of the board would be made at wider intervals of time and the mutual restraint of board and city government would reach its maximum when most needed; but if party feeling became more and more subordinated to a desire for municipal welfare, changes in the political character of the board might follow more easily and rapidly as the need for restraints and safeguards became reduced to a minimum. Thus the balance between board and city government would be adjusted automatically. It will be observed that such desirable adjustment results from long terms of office for members of the board and a slow rate of change in the composition of the board.

The size of boards varies from 90 in Allegheny, Pa., 46 in New York City, and 42 in Philadelphia, to 4 in San Francisco, Cal., 3 in Evansville, Ind., and 3 in Fort Wayne, Ind. Buffalo, N. Y., has no board of education, the ordinary functions of a board being divided among the Superintendent of Education, the mayor, and branches of the city gov-

ernment. The number of members in the various boards seems to be determined partly by the size of the city, by the compactness of its territory, and by the history of its development either from villages or small cities consolidated, or from one large town or county site. Probably the last of these factors has had the greatest influence. In 1876, after Boston had absorbed several of its suburbs, the school board for that city numbered 116 members.<sup>7</sup> New York City under its new charter, consolidating school administration, has a board of 46 members, an attempt having been made to preserve to each borough a fair representation. Much of the business of this board, however, is entrusted to an executive committee of 15,<sup>8</sup> the full board retaining the right to confirm, revise, or annul the proceedings of this committee. It has been said:<sup>9</sup> "There is no city in the United States where the work of the board is not done by less than ten men." While this saying may be true, it does not necessarily follow that a larger number may not be of use in giving to the board information concerning local conditions and in sharing the responsibility for final decision with the more active members of the board. Large boards are almost indispensable where cities are in the act of forming by consolidation, but they are always subject to the disadvantage of becoming huge debating societies, and of scattering responsibility among a confusion of numerous committees whose powers are not sharply defined.

Small boards have the advantage of not requiring or encouraging much debate. The board can act as one responsible committee, and must delegate much of its authority to expert employees whose recommendations may be quickly adopted or rejected by the board. A small board has the

<sup>7</sup> *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circulars of Information*, 1885, p. 14.

<sup>8</sup> *Laws of 1901, N. Y.*, Chapter 466, Section 1063.

<sup>9</sup> J. L. Pickard, *Proc. of N. E. A.*, 1883, p. 72.

size of  
board

disadvantage of not representing a very large range of territory or of social conditions, and in this respect there is danger that a board may be too small. The weight of expert opinion seems to be in favor of boards consisting of five to eleven members.<sup>10</sup>

While the power of the board, representing the authority of the state, is absolute and final within the limits of statutory provisions, much of its power must be delegated to responsible agents. Members of the board generally serve without pay, and their service in this capacity is only an incident in their round of duties. Hence at best their judgment represents the common sense of the community in accepting, modifying, or rejecting the recommendations of paid experts. These considerations, far from belittling the services of the board, indicate its indispensable function.

The duties of the board easily divide themselves into legislative, executive and judicial duties. Nominally the board will retain all of its legislative functions, though in reality a wise board will seek counsel from expert advisers even in legislative matters. Nevertheless the responsibility for final action must rest with the board alone. Executive duties seem to be retained or delegated by the board, according to the size of the city. In smaller cities the board, through various standing committees and in conjunction with the superintendent of schools, retains in large measure its executive functions; but in large cities, where the volume of financial business in the hands of executives amounts to millions, the board exercises its power through specially qualified agents. A board may be competent to select an inexpensive open lot for an eight-room building and to prepare simple plans for its construction, but few boards would feel competent to undertake the detailed plans for an eighty-room

<sup>10</sup> See *Report of Com. of Fifteen*, N. Y., 1895, pp. 200 to 226.

building in a densely crowded city block, giving due attention to warming, ventilating, lighting, and sanitation.

Furnishing supplies and books and fuel for the schools of a small city may easily be attended to by a committee of the board acting mainly through the superintendent; but in a large city the selecting, buying, and distribution of such supplies is more than equivalent to the management of a large mercantile house, and demands the entire time and ability of an experienced business man directing a large corps of assistants. So in a small town the committee on teachers with the superintendent may easily test the fitness of candidates for positions as teachers; but in New York City a board of examiners consisting of four members and the City Superintendent devote their entire time to the examination of candidates.

Disputes arising from discipline or promotion may engage the attention of the entire board in a small city, but in a large city the board wisely divests itself of all judicial functions except in case of appeal. Among the powers sometimes entrusted to boards of education is the power to lay and collect taxes for the support of the schools, or at least to determine the amount of the appropriation which shall be devoted to schools. The power to lay and collect school taxes is fraught with danger to the schools as well as to the board. Conferring such power upon local authorities always invites the attack of invested capital upon the assessing body, and the inevitable tendency is toward parsimony rather than toward true economy. Determining the amount of an appropriation from a public fund already raised is not attended with any such danger, and this appears to be a method of raising school money which is gaining in favor. New York City, Kansas City, Mo., and St. Louis, Mo., are allowed by state law four mills on each dollar of taxable property for school purposes. Kansas City, Kan., and Fort Wayne, Ind.,

report allowances made by state law. Of course the board may secure supplementary appropriations for extraordinary purposes, such as acquisition of sites and construction of buildings. In New York,<sup>11</sup> for example, the money raised by the four-mill tax is known as the general school fund and is applied wholly to the payment of the salaries of the supervising, examining, and teaching staff. All other expenses are paid out of the special fund designated in the annual budget by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment upon recommendation of the board of education. Thus the eleven thousand persons who directly administer school affairs are made independent of appropriations by the city government, and the board of education is relieved of the danger of pressure or influence from a body of political office-holders who might, under some circumstances, attempt to trade financial support for political or personal favors. Said John D. Philbrick:<sup>12</sup> "The aim of the most intelligent friends of our schools has been to separate their administration as far as practicable from the influence of party politics. Everywhere there are unscrupulous politicians who do not hesitate to improve every opportunity to sacrifice the interests of the schools to the purposes of the political machine. Here is found the source of the most general, as well as the most serious, evil of our city systems." Now the two most powerful instruments for commanding influence are the control of financial support and of the distribution of patronage. If these two instruments are taken out of the hands of the politicians, the greatest menace to our city schools is removed. From the tabulated information in the early pages of this chapter, it may be seen that the present tendency is toward conferring large powers upon the boards of education and concentrating and defining their responsi-

*Education  
& Board*

<sup>11</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, Chapter 466, Sec. 1060.

<sup>12</sup> *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circ. of Information*, 1885, p. 15.

bility. Frequent suggestions toward these ends have been made in the correspondence which superintendents and other school officers have contributed to this study.<sup>13</sup>

Among the first duties of a board of education is the appointment of standing committees, unless the board is so small as to transact all its business as a committee of the whole. A large board can hardly transact all its business except through committees, since the general debate in a large body would occupy so much time. A small committee can investigate and report upon a proposed action with great thoroughness, making also a recommendation as to final action. In most cases the board can pass upon such recommendations with great rapidity, thereby assuming full responsibility for the final action. New York City is making the latest experiment in the attempt to combine the representative character of a large board with the business facility of a small one. The board of education consisting of 46 members appoints annually from its own number a standing committee of fifteen,<sup>14</sup> who shall, subject to the approval of the board, constitute an executive committee for the care, government, and management of the public school system of the city, subject to the by-laws of the board of education. At any regular meeting the board may remove any or all members of this committee and appoint others in their stead. The by-laws of the board<sup>15</sup> adopted since its organization, February 3, 1902, empower the executive committee to take final action on reports and resolutions relating to the following subjects: proceedings for the acquisition of sites previously selected by the board; awarding of contracts approved by the board; accepting plans for new buildings; executing leases for school accommodations; dis-

<sup>13</sup> See extracts from letters, Appendix.

<sup>14</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, Chapter 466, Section 1063.

<sup>15</sup> *By-Laws, Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education N. Y. City, 1902.*

posal of personal property no longer needed; appointment, promotion and transfer of clerks, attendance officers, and janitors; suspension of any officer or employee pending trial; the determination of a district school board upon charges against a teacher, except where dismissal is recommended; submitting plan for apportionment of general fund. The entire board may review and act upon any proceedings of the executive committee. Thus the board secures the rapid transaction of routine business while retaining full power over all matters within its jurisdiction. The value and success of this experiment in administration remains to be demonstrated. The larger the board, the greater the necessity for many committees, and it has been suggested<sup>16</sup> that the tendency to multiply committees has run to pernicious excess in the attempt to furnish each member with a petty chairmanship. In 1885 the Cincinnati board transacted its business through seventy-four standing committees, including committees on fuel, gymnastics, drawing, reports and excuses, stoves and furnaces, and penmanship.<sup>17</sup> In the same year the standing committees of the Chicago board numbered seventy-nine; but in 1897 the number had been reduced to fifteen.<sup>18</sup> This was the year in which the city council authorized Mayor Harrison to appoint a commission consisting of three members of the city council, two members of the board of education, and six "outside citizens," to revise and improve the plan of school administration for that city.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>16</sup> B. A. Hinsdale, in *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1888, p. 317.

<sup>17</sup> *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circ. of Information*, 1885, p. 17.

<sup>18</sup> *The Public Schools of Chicago*, Hannah B. Clark, p. 85. Chicago University Press 1897.

<sup>19</sup> *Rep. of the Educational Commission of the City of Chicago*, University Press 1900.

Below are given the standing committees of boards in various cities as reported in February, 1902:

*New York City, N. Y.*—Executive committee (see p. —); also committees on finance; buildings; supplies; by-laws and legislation; sites; elementary schools; high schools and training schools; special schools; studies and text-books; lectures and libraries; care of buildings; Normal College; and Nautical School.

*Cincinnati, O.*—Auditing; boundaries, transfers, and hygiene; buildings and repairs; course of study, text-books, and apparatus; discipline; funds and claims; furniture and supplies; German department; heating fixtures and fuel; law; lots; night schools; normal school and teachers' institute; printing; rules and regulations; teachers and salaries; special teachers.

*Providence, R. I.*—Accounts; annual report; apportionment; by-laws; domestic science; drawing and penmanship; education of blind, deaf, and feeble-minded children; evening schools; executive committee (in charge of supplies, truants and truant officers, discipline, and special schools); grammar and primary schools; high schools; hygiene; music; private schools; relations to city council; school-houses; summer schools; text-books.

*Omaha, Neb.*—Boundaries; buildings and property; claims; finance; heat and ventilation; high school; judiciary; kindergarten; rules; salaries; special instruction; supplies; teachers and examinations; text-books.

*Lincoln, Neb.*—Finance and claims; teachers; high school; new buildings and sites; care of buildings and property; text-books; furniture and supplies; judiciary and rules.

*Fall River, Mass.*—Visitation; evening drawing schools; finance and auditing accounts; rules and regulations; courses of study; high schools; training school; teachers; books and supplies.

*Salt Lake City, Utah.*—Rules; school law; buildings and grounds; finance; teachers and school work.

*Augusta, Ga.*—Finance; high schools; rules and regulations; text-books; examination of teachers; school property; sanitary affairs; general welfare; building.

*Youngstown, O.*—Teachers; finance; discipline; libraries; building and supplies; text-books; course of study and apparatus; claims; rules; penmanship and music; German; sanitation, stoves, and ventilation; grounds and sites; Rayen School; also sixteen local committees on school-houses.

The great disadvantage of a large number of standing committees is the tendency of the duties of these committees to overlap and thus work confusion of responsibility. Or there is danger that the assignment of duties may not be complete, thus leaving business unprovided for. The last difficulty is easily obviated by appointing more committees; but this leads to lessening of respect for the importance of committee work and to confusion in the minds of those who must be assigned to various committees of widely different functions. With a small board, of such size as would commonly be chosen to manage the affairs of a financial, commercial, or industrial corporation, the whole difficulty of numerous committees disappears. This is one of the strongest arguments for a small board rather than a large one.

In view of the fact that a school board in a larger city has to direct a volume of business greater than that which is managed by most of the largest corporations in the same city, and in view of the expert service rendered, it may be well to consider the advisability of paying fixed salaries for such service. Most corporations consider it good economy to pay attractive salaries to their directors, thus securing the best men. It would be wasteful for great business organiza-

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tions to accept the services of any but the very shrewdest and most enterprising directors at any price or at no price. It is desirable that school boards should be made up of men of the highest professional and business standing, of men whose time commands a high value. It is inevitable that attention to school affairs should interfere with the usual occupations of members, and it certainly would be no more than fair that a city should pay for the valuable service which it receives. This is all the more reasonable since the high character of the board and its separation from politics forbids its members to receive such political or business advantages as are sometimes thought to result from connection with other departments of the city government. There are already precedents for salaried boards. San Francisco pays each of the four members of its school board a salary of three thousand dollars per year, and they are supposed to devote themselves exclusively to school affairs. Washington, D. C., fixes the compensation of the seven members of its board at ten dollars per session, provision being made that the annual compensation of any member shall not exceed five hundred dollars. Of the two plans, that of Washington seems the better, since it secures for the school board men of affairs with broad experience and in touch with many interests; while the San Francisco plan merely adds four more specialists to the department of education, and a school board is chiefly valuable for its perspective and many-sided common sense.<sup>20</sup> One of its special functions is to balance and regulate a highly specialized department of administration.<sup>21</sup> Moreover, a salary of three thousand dollars per year will not command the entire time of the ablest

<sup>20</sup> Goodnow, F. J., *Municipal Problems*, Macmillan Co., N. Y., 1897, p. 264.

<sup>21</sup> See *The Professional and Non-Professional Bodies in our School System and the Proper Function of Each*, A. Lawrence Lowell, Proc. N. E. A., 1898, p. 999.

men of a large city; and in the general administration of city schools it is quality rather than quantity of service that counts for most. It is not the purpose of this study to advocate salaried school boards. An attempt has been made to show that the payment of moderate fees for actual service, might, under some circumstances, be the wisest economy. Of course the payment of salaries would accompany the appointing of small boards, and would doubtless encourage a permanence of membership and a continuity of policy which would be of great advantage to the schools.

In addition to the central board of education, several cities have local or district boards vested with considerable administrative power. Where such boards are properly subordinated to the central board, they may be of advantage in appealing to local pride and stimulating local interest; but want of such subordination has caused local boards to be condemned.<sup>22</sup>

Dist. board ✓  
criticism ✓  
In Pittsburg, Pa., there are thirty-nine local boards of six members each, two members being elected annually.<sup>23</sup> These local boards have power to levy local taxes; to elect teachers; to purchase grounds; to erect school buildings; to provide school equipments; to employ janitors; and to elect members of the central board of education. It is very evident that these local boards are not properly subordinated to the central board.

✓ In Philadelphia, Pa., are forty-two local boards of school directors of twelve members each, elected by popular vote in the several wards. These local boards determine the grades of the schools, elect the teachers of the elementary schools and assign them their duties, and appoint the janitors, all subject to the approval of the central board. As

<sup>22</sup> John D. Philbrick, *U. S. Bureau of Ed. Circ. of Information*, 1885, p. 16.

<sup>23</sup> W. T. Harris, N. E. A., 1888, p. 321. *Rep. Concerning Public Schools of City of Pittsburg*, 1900, p. 3.

the members of the central board are appointed by the judges of the Court of Common Pleas, and are therefore independent of the local boards, it would appear that the local boards are completely subordinate to the central board. Nevertheless, it is no secret that there is general dissatisfaction in Philadelphia in respect to the local boards.<sup>24</sup> It is said that local boards have interfered with promotions against the judgment of the principal to prevent the dropping of a teacher or to gratify the pride of some patron of influence; that principals have suffered from the meddling of ignorant and domineering directors; that incompetent teachers have been forced upon the schools; and that local boards have arrayed themselves against the central board with consequent friction and some legal contention. Evidently the proper adjustment of the local board to general school administration is not to be found in Philadelphia.

In New York City the local board system of administration has passed through a most interesting process of evolution. It is not within the scope of this study to trace minutely all the changing powers and limitations of such boards. Three characteristic periods will serve to illustrate the parts which these boards have had in the school administration of New York City. By the law of May 7, 1844, each local board, consisting of two commissioners, two inspectors, and five trustees,<sup>25</sup> were authorized to purchase sites, erect and equip school buildings, and furnish supplies for the same; <sup>26</sup> to inspect the schools, to see that the provisions of the law relating to sectarian instruction were obeyed; <sup>27</sup> and to receive, expend and account for money for the support of schools.<sup>28</sup> Commissioners and inspectors were authorized to examine and certificate teachers,<sup>29</sup> and

<sup>24</sup> See *Annual Rep. Supt. of Public Schools, Philadelphia*, 1895, pp. 7 and 8.

<sup>25</sup> Law of May 7, 1844, section 1.

<sup>26</sup> Section 9.

<sup>27</sup> Section 13.

<sup>28</sup> Section 23.

<sup>29</sup> Section 27.

with the approval of the board of education to annul certificates granted by themselves or their predecessors.<sup>30</sup> Inspectors and trustees were to visit and examine schools as to condition of property, progress of scholars, order and management; and to advise and direct teachers as to government and course of study to be pursued.<sup>31</sup> Trustees were especially empowered to have charge of all school property, and to employ and pay teachers.<sup>32</sup> The results of such a ward system of school administration would not need description, even if common report had not made them notorious. A comprehensive statement of the weaknesses and abuses of the system has been made in a memorial<sup>33</sup> which doubtless had great influence in banishing the evils of ward administration. Indeed, by the adoption of a report<sup>34</sup> from a special committee to which the memorial was referred, the board of education admitted many of the evils alleged in the memorial, but endeavored to divert attention away from any connection between these evils and the administration of local boards. Notwithstanding the strong hold of the ward system upon the political influence of New York City, the state legislature by enactment of April 27, 1896, abolished the office of ward trustee (from date of June 20, 1896) and transferred most of the powers of the local boards to the board of education. To maintain local interest in schools and to continue some measure of local supervision over them, the Mayor was authorized to appoint five inspectors of common schools for each of the school inspection districts into which the board of education was required to divide the city.<sup>35</sup> The duties of these district in-

<sup>30</sup> Section 31.

<sup>31</sup> Section 32.

<sup>32</sup> Section 34.

<sup>33</sup> *Memorial of Public Education Society of the City of New York to the Board of Education*, Feb. 6, 1889.

<sup>34</sup> *Journal of the Board of Education, City of New York*, Mar. 6, 1889, p. 262.

<sup>35</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1896*, chapter 387, section 6.

spectors, as defined by the law <sup>36</sup> of 1896, were continued under the law <sup>37</sup> of 1897, and were as follows: to examine at least once in every quarter all the schools in their several districts as to regular and punctual attendance of teachers and pupils; the number, fidelity, and competency of teachers; the studies, progress, order and discipline of pupils; the cleanliness, safety, warming, ventilation, and comfort of the school premises; and as to violation of school laws in respect to sectarian instruction or books in schools. Boards of district inspectors were required to make quarterly reports to the board of education in respect to the condition of the schools, the efficiency of the teachers, and the wants of their districts, especially in regard to schools and school premises. It will be noted that these inspectors had only the duty of observing and reporting. They had no authority to suggest or recommend any course of procedure to any principal, teacher, janitor or pupil, or even to protest directly against any wrong or abuse which they might discover. The contemptuous name of "smelling committee" attached itself to their office, and it hardly needs to be added that large numbers of the best citizens did not offer themselves for this service, though some accepted it and did faithful work, with scant encouragement.<sup>38</sup>

By the legislative enactment of April 22, 1901, the charter of the greater City of New York was revised. Borough school boards, which to a large extent had continued the functions of the old city boards of education after the consolidation of 1897, were abolished. A central board

<sup>36</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1896*, chapter 387, section 24.

<sup>37</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1897*, chapter 378, section 1098.

<sup>38</sup> By provisions of its new charter in effect March 1, 1902, Baltimore, Md., has for each school one or more visitors selected from among those living or doing business within half a mile of the school. The duties of these visitors are similar to those of district inspectors in New York from 1897 to 1902. They have no authority over school management.

of education consisting of forty-six members was created, and the entire city was divided into forty-six districts with a local school board for each.<sup>39</sup> Each district school board consists of five members appointed by the president of the borough, a member of the board of education appointed by the president of that board, and a district superintendent of schools assigned to duty in that district by the city superintendent. One of the five appointed members retires each year. In addition to all the duties of observation and reporting entrusted to former inspectors of schools, the local boards are required to report to the board of education any neglect of duty on the part of the city superintendent, the superintendent of school buildings, the superintendent of supplies, or any subordinates of these officers appointed or employed by the board of education. They also have power<sup>40</sup> to excuse absences of teachers, to try cases in discipline, to try charges against teachers, to prefer charges against janitors, to enforce rules for sanitation, to transfer teachers within restricted conditions, and to authorize expenditure of money for clerical assistance and for the proper performance of the duties of the board.

As each local board represents a local constituency of about seventy thousand people, it may be seen that power, responsibility, and opportunity for service combine to attract a superior class of men and women to this branch of school administration. Considerable attention has been given to this study of local boards in New York City, since here has been made the latest and most hopeful attempt to solve the problem of obtaining a helpful local interest in American city schools.

This problem has already been solved in France<sup>41</sup> and in

<sup>39</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, chapter 466, section 1087.

<sup>40</sup> *N. Y. Laws of 1901*, chapter 466, section 1088.

<sup>41</sup> For administrative details, see *Rapport sur l'Organisation de l'Enseignement Primaire*, par. C. Bayet, Paris, 1900, p. 166.

Germany<sup>42</sup> to the immeasurable advantage of the schools and the people.

Says Dr. Albert Shaw,<sup>43</sup> speaking of the local or arrondissement school commissions of Paris: "It is enough to say that the municipal council, the prefectorial administration, and the national ministry of education provide all the necessary oversight; while in the arrondissements and the school districts themselves there are local organizations that bring the citizens and parents into close and active relations with the public schools." Referring to the German Schools,<sup>44</sup> he says: "The fresh and practical character of popular education in German cities owes very much to the fact that in addition to the permanent school officials who supervise the entire educational system of any given municipality there are numerous local school boards upon which a great number of competent citizens are asked to serve. I am sure that, so far as elementary education is concerned, our American cities have more to learn from the methods and results attained by the German cities than we have to teach them. Our progress must be along their paths."

The experiment in local school administration in New York City resembles the French and German systems in assigning the care of external and material conditions to the local boards, while internal and pedagogic affairs are controlled by the more central administration. This division of responsibility may prove worthy of adoption in other American cities.

<sup>42</sup> Seeley, L., *The Common School System of Germany*, Kellogg & Co., N. Y., 1896, p. 62.

<sup>43</sup> *Municipal Government in Continental Europe*, N. Y., 1897, p. 121.

<sup>44</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 375.

## CHAPTER III

### ADMINISTRATION OF EXTERNAL OR BUSINESS AFFAIRS

THERE is a prevailing tendency, especially in small cities, to place the larger business interests of school administration in the hands of the city government.<sup>1</sup> The selection and purchase of building sites, the construction of buildings, the letting of contracts, the appropriation of money for school affairs, the purchase of furniture and larger supplies including fuel, and even the appointment and superintendence of janitors are matters often controlled by the general municipal government. Such diverting of power and responsibility from the school administration is to be deplored. For the sake of honesty, efficiency, and economy, such powers should be conferred upon the board of education.

In small cities and in most cities under one hundred thousand inhabitants the business of the school department is managed by special committees of the board acting alone or in conjunction with the superintendent of schools; but as the business management of the department in larger cities becomes more complex, a due regard to economy compels the employment of an expert business manager or several of them according to the volume of business. The business administration of a school board naturally divides itself into three departments; a department of finance, accounts, and records; a department of construction, repairing, and care of buildings; and a department of school supplies.

The first of these departments must be under the manage-

<sup>1</sup> See tabulation in chapter ii, pp. 24-31.

ment of some one experienced in business affairs, who should also be an expert accountant. It is assumed that the board of education will not have been humiliated by being compelled to beg the city government for money to carry on the work of the department, and that the board has control of its own funds. It is immaterial whether the board is the actual custodian of the money, as recently in New York City, or whether the funds are deposited in a common city treasury. The need of exact accounting will be the same. The board must know at any time the amounts expended for each branch of department work and the amounts of unexpended balances for further undertakings. Even in a small city the clerical details involved in such exact accounting are too numerous for any member of the board or any committee of the board to take care of; and in the larger cities the duties of this department would occupy the working force of a good-sized bank.

Conducting the large correspondence of the board and keeping and publishing the records of proceedings must be provided for by the employment of a competent clerical force.

For the location, designing and construction of a modern city school building the services of an experienced engineer and architect are indispensable. There are two ways in which his services are commonly obtained, either by employing such an engineer and architect permanently, or by securing his services from time to time as need may require. Where a city is large enough to warrant it, the first plan is the most economical, both in cost and in quality of service. So many duties in addition to construction of buildings require professional supervision that generally a moderate-sized city can well afford to employ an engineer and architect to take charge of the department of buildings. To show the variety of undertakings assigned to the superintendent of buildings the following list of his duties has been

compiled from the charters, rules and regulations, and reports of several cities: To prepare drawings and specifications for new buildings; to superintend construction of new buildings; to superintend advertisements for bids and letting of contracts; to inspect and recommend acceptance of work in process of construction; to inspect the sanitary condition of every school; to inspect heating and ventilation; to supervise janitors and firemen; to nominate janitors and firemen; to remove any or all employees of his department, subject to appeal to the board; to see that suitable fuel is provided and economically used; to inspect new furniture and see that it is according to contract; to have charge of all apparatus and furniture and see that it is properly placed in the school buildings; and to be responsible for the cleanliness of all school buildings. Not the least among the duties of the superintendent of buildings is his duty to be a student of the best in the construction and sanitation of school buildings the world over. He will thus become increasingly valuable to the city from year to year. It may be seen from the above enumeration of duties that the superintendent of buildings is an administrative officer carrying heavy responsibilities. His position demands ability and experience combined with a high grade of professional training. Some of his undertakings require years for completion. He should, therefore, be made so secure in his tenure of office that he may be free from anxiety on account of passing changes in the political composition of the board, to the end that he may be judged somewhat by finished specimens of his work. Practically this result may be accomplished by making his term long, after a suitable probationary period, and by requiring a three-fourths vote of the board for his removal.

Janitorial service in school buildings is a matter which deserves the most careful consideration, since the health and

the morals of the children, as well as their opportunities for mental improvement, may be seriously affected by improper care of the buildings or by association with persons unfit to be about the schools. Considerable care is usually exercised in selecting the janitor himself; but unfortunately in some large cities it is considered necessary to permit the janitor to select and employ his own assistants in order that they may be directly responsible to him. The janitor is paid a sum sufficient to cover his own salary and the pay of his help. This inevitably leads to the employment of cheap labor, so that the janitor's profits may be as large as possible, without regard to the moral or physical fitness of the employees to be about the buildings. This *padrone* system of janitorial service is unjust, since the man who receives most of the money does practically none of the work. It is possible for a man, with influence enough to secure a position as janitor, to make a comfortable living by supervising the sweeping, dusting, and shoveling of a pair of simple-minded old people who are glad to accept any place and pittance to be kept off the street. Thus the city is defrauded of the larger part of the money which it expends for the care of the school, by not receiving any valuable service in return. The case is infinitely worse, however, when the janitor's employees prove to be immoral and unfit to be associated with children. In a dozen or more of the cities reported in the tabulation, pp. 24-31, the janitor is said not to be directly responsible to the principal for the faithful performance of his duty. This seems to be an unfortunate condition. In every part of the system there should be present at all times one person representing the authority of the school board and responsible for all conditions under which the children work. In each school there can be but one such responsible head, and that is the principal. While janitors may be protected by regulations of the board from

possible unreasonable requirements, they should be held responsible for co-operating with the principal to the fullest extent for the comfort and welfare of the school; and it seems unfortunate that a board of education should undertake to formulate a list of duties to which the janitor can point and excuse himself for not performing some simple and necessary act because it is not included in the list. It is well enough for the board to prescribe that the janitor shall do certain acts within certain times, as, for example, the sweeping and dusting of rooms every day between the hours three P. M. and eight A. M., but any such prescription of duty should include a comprehensive requirement that he shall devote his entire time during working hours to active service in the school; that he shall be responsible for a proper use of and suitable order in such halls, basements, or other portions of the school premises, as the teachers employed in class rooms cannot control; and that he shall perform such other services as may be required of him by the principal.<sup>2</sup> It would be impossible to enumerate in detail a complete list of the duties of a principal or teacher. Both must do a thousand things never enumerated. Why should such enumeration be attempted in the case of any other employee?

Probably no branch of school administration varies so much as that of text-books and school supplies. In most larger cities both are provided free to the pupil at the expense of the city. In New York City, supplies are purchased and distributed by a superintendent of supplies; in St. Louis, by a commissioner of supplies; in Baltimore, by the secretary of the board; in Providence, by the executive

<sup>2</sup> See *Rules and Regulations of the Board of Education, Lincoln, Nebraska*, 1900, vii, 10.

Also *Rules and Regulations of Board of Education, Cincinnati*, 1898, Section 27.

committee of the board; and in Fall River, by the committee on supplies. These cities may be taken as types illustrating the relations between the volume of business and the kind of agencies through which it is transacted. Evidently there is no uniformity of procedure in the handling of supplies in various cities of the country and no general conclusions can be drawn in regard to the matter. This branch of administration is peculiarly open to abuse from the desire of publishers and manufacturers to secure business at any cost, from the facility with which wrong doing in the matter of prices, quality of goods, and special inducements can be concealed, and from the weakness of human nature in the purchasing agent. The only prevention for corruption at this point seems to be to select for the department of supplies the most trustworthy persons obtainable, and to require the head of the department to give heavy bonds for the faithful performance of his duty.

## CHAPTER IV

### SUPERVISORY ADMINISTRATION

THE office of city superintendent of schools, as it is now known, is but little more than half a century old<sup>1</sup> in this country, and is therefore a very late development in the system of school administration. The superintendent has been compared to the foreman<sup>2</sup> over groups of laborers, the superior workman who is selected for special skill and trustworthiness, and who multiplies his value many times by directing the work of others. In the earlier stages of the development of the superintendent's office this comparison would have been appropriate; but the modern city superintendent is more than an overseer. He is a captain of industry, as writers on economics use the term. He does not merely follow the directions of employers. He makes regulations for himself, and often for his employers, as well as for subordinates. He not only concerns himself with supplying the demand of the educational market; but he is also an important factor in moulding public opinion to create that demand.

The qualifications necessary for such a leader in educational affairs have been enumerated in a most comprehensive fashion and by eminent men.<sup>3</sup> It is sufficient here to mention six qualifications which seem absolutely indispensable,

<sup>1</sup> Gove, A., *Rep. Com. Ed.*, 1899-1900, p. 571.

<sup>2</sup> Pickard, J. L., *School Supervision*, Appleton & Co., N. Y., 1890, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup> *Committee of Fifteen*, pp. 200-226. See also *City School Administration*, A. P. Marble, Ed. Rev., Sept., 1894, p. 154.

namely, a good moral character, a good physique, common sense, administrative ability, experience in school work, and a liberal education, including professional training. Given these qualifications, it may be supposed that others needed will accompany them, or that the possessor of these has capacity for acquiring the rest. By reference to the tabular conspectus of administration in the second chapter of this book, it may be seen that in all the cities except five, the superintendent is appointed by the board of education. In Cleveland, Ohio, he is appointed by the director and confirmed by the board. In Buffalo and San Francisco, he is elected by popular vote. In Norfolk, Va., he is appointed by the state board of education. In Pittsburg, Pa., he is elected by the sub-district directors. The custom of election by the board is so nearly general that only brief mention needs to be made of the faults of the other plans.

The office of superintendent of schools is too important and too representative of popular interests to be left at the disposal of one man, and that man selected for business ability, but not necessarily much acquainted with educational affairs. Choosing a superintendent by popular vote compels him to be a politician as well as an administrator and pedagogical expert. These are qualities rarely blended in the same individual, and the community has much need of the last two with but little need of the first. Appointment by the state board takes away the right of local control, makes the superintendent independent of the approval of the community which he serves, and discourages local interest. It will be remarkable if any of these peculiar forms of appointment can long survive.

The term of office for which a superintendent is chosen is extremely variable among the cities. One city reports seven years; another, six; three report five years; nine report four years; sixteen report three years; sixteen re-

port two years; twenty-one report one year; and nine, no fixed term. It must not be supposed that the tenure of office of superintendents is less secure in cities which do not fix a definite length for his term than in those which do fix such a limit. Indeed, his tenure of office is probably more secure if he is not required to face the ordeal of an annual election.

The question of a limited term of office for the superintendent is by no means a one-sided question. As human nature is constituted, there is a certain spur to the superintendent in the fact that his continuance in office is a matter of consideration for his employers at stated periods. Moreover the board of education charged with deciding upon the continuance of the superintendent feels under greater obligation to know the exact quality of his work. On the other hand, if the superintendent is embarrassed or distressed by his approaching election, as might happen in case of trouble or unfriendliness arising in the board on account of some necessary discharge of an unpleasant official duty, then his administration must suffer also; while if he were secure in his tenure of office he could carry on his work without the annoyance of influence or pressure from the board or the community, since it would be well known that such influence or pressure would be exerted in vain. Moreover, he could command the confidence and respect of his subordinates in such a time of stress, assured that time and a sufficient opportunity to work out his policy consistently would compel the approbation of the board and the community. If an approaching election, however, made his dismissal probable or even possible, timidity, distrust, and any lurking unfriendliness in the teaching staff would augment his difficulties, when he was most in need of cordial support.

It is possible to combine the advantages of fixed terms and indefinite tenure of office by electing a superintendent

for a probationary term of three or four years with the provision that he may be dismissed at any time in that period by a three-fourths vote of the board. The school should be guarded against possible inefficiency by such right of dismissal, and the superintendent should be assured of a reasonably long time to prove himself. At the end of his probationary term, a majority vote of the board might re-elect him; but a two-thirds or three-fourths vote should be required for his dismissal. The duties of the superintendent are judicial as well as executive, and it must be that the conscientious discharge of his duty will sometimes hurt and offend. To secure the free and unbiased action of his best judgment, he should be made as secure in his position as are other judicial officers. As President Draper observes,<sup>4</sup> "The superintendent and his advisers should be as secure in their position as the members of the Supreme Court of the State."

The superintendent is the administrative and pedagogical head of the school system on its purely educational side. As such he must be clothed with great authority and must bear correspondingly great responsibility. He need not, and if wise, will not be an autocrat. He needs the advice of many and will probably seek for it; but the responsibility of decision and of final action is his, nor can he share that responsibility with another.

Among the most important duties of the superintendent is the selection of teachers. Excellent judgment in this part of his work may compensate for a multitude of faults in other respects; for good teachers will make good schools, even under a superintendent who is neither a good clerk, nor a good lecturer at teachers' meetings, nor a model classroom teacher when visiting his schools. It is far more important that the superintendent should know who can do

<sup>4</sup> *N. Y. Education*, Feb., 1898, p. 391.

good class work, and that he should be quick to recognize and appreciate such work, than that he should be able to do it himself. A majority of the cities investigated in this study authorize the superintendent to nominate teachers; and five, Toledo, Cleveland, Buffalo, Indianapolis, and Waterbury, Conn., leave the appointment of teachers in his hands. The plan of nomination by the superintendent and appointment by the board seems wise and safe, since neither can place a teacher independently, and both must agree as to the candidate's fitness. The superintendent's professional knowledge and experience and his wide acquaintance with schools and teachers in other cities make it especially appropriate that he should take the initiative in selecting a teacher. The chances of admitting poor teachers to the schools are very much lessened by leaving the actual appointing power with the board, and the community is likely to be much better satisfied with teachers who have been employed by representatives of local public opinion. Probably most superintendents would prefer to share with the board the responsibility of selecting teachers, and the superintendent who would not desire the approving vote of the board upon his selections would be the very one whose judgment needed supplementing.

The making of the course of study belongs to the superintendent. The board has no special knowledge of such matters, and principals and teachers are burdened with so many matters of detail, and they stand so close to their work that they lose perspective. There is also a certain amount of unity which can come only from a single responsible head. A wise superintendent, however, will take counsel of his board and of principals and teachers in making a course of study. The broad and general experience of the one body and the minute and exact knowledge of the other will be of great use to him who knows how to take advantage

of both. Teachers may be expected to administer a course with better understanding and better courage, if they have had some part in making it, and there are local conditions better known to the teachers than to the superintendent, which should be taken into account.<sup>5</sup> The final adoption of the course of study is safest in the hands of the board. All that has been said in reference to the co-operation of the superintendent and the teaching force in making the course of study applies equally well to the selection of text-books. Competition in the making and selling of text-books is so keen, and the representatives of publishing houses are so aggressive and insistent that there is now and then some danger that, in the battle of the books, the children may be forgotten. The superintendent is likely to know a wider range of books than the teachers; but the teachers have the advantage of knowing the children best. In New York City a plan is followed which works very satisfactorily. Teachers, from time to time, recommend that certain books be added to the list of supplies. No book can be added without the approval of the superintendents; but when a book is once on the list and approved by the board of education, any principal may order it for his school. It may happen that two or more books on a given subject may be ordered for different classes of the same grade in one school, and these books may be exchanged among classes. The advantages of this plan are evident, especially in supplementary reading-matter. As each book must have the approval of the superintendents and the board, and usually that of a considerable number of teachers besides, it would seem almost impossible for a poor book to be admitted to the list. It should be added that teachers are sometimes invited to name books which ought to be stricken from the list, and that the list is under constant revision.

<sup>5</sup> See *Report of Committee on School Work*, N. Y. City Teachers' Association, p. 7, J. J. Little & Co., 1901.

More than in any other way the superintendent wins success for his administration by his personal and official relations to the teaching force. He must serve the schools and the community through the principals and the teachers. Therefore, from the time when he collects and files away for reference information concerning teachers in smaller towns or concerning the most promising students in the local training-school, even to the time when he regretfully assists an efficient teacher to secure promotion to a larger field of service outside his own city, his personal relations to the teacher strongly influence the school. Through him the candidate receives the first impressions of the school system, and in her mind for a long time he represents that system, and stands for its breadth and generosity and fairness. He also represents its discriminating intelligence and justice. To him, alone or with a board of examiners, falls the duty of examining candidates, and of relieving their nervous apprehension by gentle consideration that never degenerates into blind pity or evasion of responsibility. Nomination and assignment to a position in most cities are received at the hands of the superintendent. The teacher knows little or nothing of the board, and perhaps for months or years never meets one of its members, but the visible representation of the authority of the board is the superintendent.

From the large percentage of cities reporting that principals supervise methods, it will be seen (pp. 24-31) that superintendents commonly accomplish their work of supervision through the principals. The superintendent fills a place like that of the consulting physician in hospital administration, or the consulting engineer in industrial enterprises. He gives general direction and supervision to the work, but wisely leaves details to those whom he holds responsible for the results. He cannot properly interfere with the interior management of any school, except to correct some gross



and obvious fault; and even in that case he will try to work through the principal, unless the principal compels him to pursue some other course. It is just at this point that human weakness is likely to manifest itself in the superintendent, if at all. He has the undoubted authority to give any proper directions anywhere within the school system, and the temptation to accomplish a desirable result in a simple and direct manner may be very great. Indeed some loss or wrong may be suffered by delay; but a far greater loss may be occasioned by interference, and the superintendent may show himself greater in self-restraint than in action. Whenever he supersedes the authority of a principal or teacher, he discredits and weakens an instrument through which he ought to accomplish his best service.

The superintendent owes to his teachers the benefit of the best results of his education, professional training, and experience, but there may be a great diversity of opinion as to the best manner of conferring that benefit. His wits will be taxed to the utmost to discover means for helping his teachers without obtrusive officiousness or offensive patronizing. It will often happen that an indirect way is the best. Teachers' meetings with dogmatic lectures from the superintendent are wearisome; but if the superintendent is shrewd enough to get teachers to conduct the discussion, there will be interest, and even the superintendent may learn something. The superintendent can place emphasis on almost any phase of school work by praising excellent results in that special work, or by inviting those who excel to explain their manner of procedure to the rest. There are three classes of teachers, with each of which the superintendent has special duties. He must use the excellent to encourage excellence. The good must be sustained and advanced. The poor must be improved or removed from the system. This third class of teachers constitutes the greater part of

the superintendent's burden, for improvement and removal are often equally difficult. Social affiliations, public sympathy, and political influence are the weapons of the inefficient teacher for holding an undeserved position; but the superintendent must disregard all of these, and do his duty in the interest of the children. Sometimes the failure of a teacher is due to unfavorable surroundings which may be remedied by a transfer to some other school. The superintendent is bound to exhaust every means to give a poor teacher a chance to succeed; and then, if failure persists, to exhaust every means for her removal.

The superintendent is related to the board of education as the lawyer is related to his client. Each can assist the other only through complete confidence and frankness. Questions under consideration may be of a delicate nature, and may involve the professional or the personal reputation of persons connected with the school system; but, though superintendent and board alike must feel an obligation to professional secrecy with respect to the world at large, there can be no such secrecy in their official deliberations. The superintendent must be free to point out the weakness of the inefficient teacher, or the unfitness of the mentally or morally deficient teacher, without liability of being called to account for plain speaking in the discharge of his duty. Executive sessions of the board, when persons are under consideration, are not undemocratic. They are considerate of the individual and conserve the general welfare of society.

While the superintendent derives his powers from the board by their election or appointment, he must be to a large extent independent of the board; and his independence must be protected by long and secure tenure of office provided by state law in the city charter, and by statutory definition of acts which he may do under direct authority of the state, without reference to the authority or approval of

*Sup<sup>t</sup>  
autonomy*

the board. Such acts, for example, are the nomination of teachers, the appointment of clerks for his office, the nomination of supervisors of special subjects, the preparation and submitting of courses of study, and the recommendation of text-books to be used. With such independent powers, he can control the pedagogical administration of the schools and the internal affairs of his own office, and can meet his board occasionally upon equal terms of mutual concessions; but without such powers, he is merely an executive clerk of the board.

A superintendent's duties do not end with the board, the teachers, or the schools. His learning and experience, as well as his professional opportunity for social service, impose upon him the duty of a share in the social leadership of his city, and entitle him to the privileges of the highest intellectual and social life. If he accepts anything less than this, he belittles his office, and discredits his calling.

Twenty-six cities of the United States report assistant or associate superintendents with numbers, manner of appointment, and terms of office as indicated in the following table. Only three cities report that assistant superintendents are nominated by the city superintendent. The same reasons which obtain for the nomination of principals and teachers by the superintendent would also apply in this case. The superintendent is better qualified than any member of the board to nominate assistants who can work in harmony with him. The board still would have the right to reject any of his nominees, and could exclude any objectionable candidate from service.

As an assistant superintendent is likely to be a man of fewer years and of less experience than the superintendent, he may well have a longer term of probation and a less safely guarded tenure of office. His responsibility is much less than that of the superintendent, and is more definite.

So long as the superintendent is secure in his position, his associates share his security.

CITY.	Number of Assistant Superintendents.	Chosen by.	Term in Years.	Remarks.
Augusta, Ga. . . . .	1	Board.	1	
Baltimore, Md. . . . .	2	Board.		
Binghamton, N. Y. . . . .	3	Board.	1	
Boston, Mass. . . . .	6	Board.	2	
Brockton, Mass. . . . .	1	Board.	1	
Buffalo, N. Y. . . . .	2	Supt.	During pleasure of Supt.	
Chicago, Ill. . . . .	14	Board.	1	
Cleveland, O. . . . .	2	Supt.	1	
Fort Wayne, Ind. . . . .	1	Board.	Pleasure of Board.	
Indianapolis, Ind. . . . .	2	Supt.	1	
Kansas City, Mo. . . . .	2	Board.	1	
Los Angeles, Cal. . . . .	2	Board.	2	
Milwaukee, Wis. . . . .	3	Board.	3	Appointed by Supt., confirmed by Board.
Minneapolis, Minn. . . . .	5	Board.	1	Supervisors of Subjects.
Newark, N. J. . . . .	2	Board.	Indefinite, pleasure of Board.	Nominated by Supt.
New Orleans, La. . . . .	2	Board.		
New York, N. Y. . . . .	34	Board.	6	8 Associate City Supts., 26 District Supts.
Peoria, Ill. . . . .	3	Supt.	During successful work.	
Philadelphia, Pa. . . . .	8	Board.	1	Nominated by Supt.
Providence, R. I. . . . .	4	Board.	1	Nominated by Committee on Grammar and Primary Schools.
San Francisco, Cal. . . . .	4	Supt.	4	
St. Louis, Mo. . . . .	3	Board.	2	Nominated by Supt.
St. Paul, Minn. . . . .	1	Board.	1	
Troy, N. Y. . . . .	5	Board.	1	
Washington, D. C. . . . .	2	Board.	Indefinite.	
Worcester, Mass. . . . .	1	Board.	1	

In the largest cities, as New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston, where there are considerable numbers of assist-

ant superintendents, the whole territory of the city is divided up into sections or districts, one assistant superintendent being assigned to each. The assistant superintendent, under such circumstances, has the oversight of a body of schools as large as would be found in a good-sized city. He becomes, for all routine details of administration, the superintendent of schools for his section; while the city superintendent exercises general control over the whole system. It is obvious, then, that the assistant or district superintendent ought to have independent original jurisdiction in matters pertaining to his district only; that within his district he should assign principals and teachers to schools; that he should recommend promotions, transfers, or discharges; and should be responsible for the supervision of instruction and discipline. Within these limits his powers should be independent of the city superintendent, who should have only appellate jurisdiction over the affairs of the district. When matters pertaining to the interests of a given district are under consideration, the district superintendent might well be entitled to a seat and a voice in the board. It may be argued that he should be heard through the city superintendent, and that may be the most satisfactory plan; but there is danger of reducing an assistant superintendent to the position of a mere inspector and clerk, thus discrediting him as an official representative of the authority of the board, and at the same time impairing his efficiency. It must be borne in mind that the efficient assistant is the possible successor of his superior, and that any system which imposes upon subordinates servile obedience to authority, without the exercise of individual discretion, is not making provision for its own perpetuity. New leaders would have to be sought outside the system, thus robbing each ambitious assistant of the incentive of possible advancement, and entailing the inevitable loss and waste of sudden and radical changes in plans of administra-

tion, whenever a new city superintendent was to be chosen. The significance of the marshal's baton in the private's knapsack is nowhere greater than in school administration.

To the department of supervision belongs the enforcement of laws relative to compulsory education and truancy. From an excellent summary of these laws<sup>6</sup> it appears that forty-three states have made statutory provisions concerning these subjects. The youngest age at which children are required to attend school is six years. The lower limit of age most common is eight years. With the exception of Wyoming, which requires all unemployed minors above six years of age to attend school, the upward limit is sixteen years; and the most common upward limit is fourteen years. New York stands alone in providing a requirement of attendance which varies with the age of the child. From eight to twelve, attendance throughout the school year is required by the law of New York; from twelve to fourteen at least eighty days per year must be spent in school and the rest of the year as well, if the child is not employed; and from fourteen to sixteen children who are not employed must attend school. The reasonableness and flexibility of this law are worthy of note.

Children who are affected by compulsory education laws may be classified in three groups: Those who voluntarily absent themselves from school; those who are absent by the wish of parents to work at home or for employers; and those who are incorrigible and cannot be permitted to remain in the ordinary schools. The state owes to itself an especial care in the education of these several classes, for from them come the great majority of criminals<sup>7</sup> and paupers. Statistics show that the illiterate classes furnish

<sup>6</sup> Rep. Com. Ed., 1899-1900, II, 2598.

<sup>7</sup> See *School Statistics and Morals*, W. T. Harris, Rep. Com. Ed., 1898-9, II, 1329.

from five to eight times more criminals per thousand than are furnished by the remaining population. When it is remembered that only those who cannot read and write are classed as illiterates, it may easily be imagined that the very ignorant classes contribute a large proportion of the criminals who are not classed as illiterate. From these considerations both the danger and the duty of the state are plain.

The city is peculiarly the home of truancy. The extreme poverty of the poor, the limitations and difficulty of personal acquaintance, the excitement and distraction of city life, the ease of concealment for wrong-doing, and the preternatural sharpness of the city child, all combine to encourage truancy; and no part of the city school administration demands more careful management than this.<sup>8</sup> In general it seems to be recognized that truancy is more in the nature of a defect than of a criminal tendency on the part of the child. Insufficient nutrition, unsuitable clothing, lack of proper accommodations and hours for sleep, and bad home influences are no doubt responsible for a great deal of truancy. Hence in most cities truants are not treated as criminals. Educators do not generally believe that they should be arrested by a policeman<sup>9</sup> or tried in open court as in the case of criminals. Special officers are provided for cases of truancy, and their cases are investigated and heard in private. Upon conviction, children are sent to special schools, in no sense penal institutions, where they have wholesome surroundings and good instruction. It seems to be the policy of the managers to adapt the course of study to the special needs of the delinquent children. For the most part they have failed in the studies of the ordinary school through lack of interest or of regular

<sup>8</sup> See *Detailed Statements Relating to Individual Cities or Schools*, Rep. Com. Ed., 1899-1900, I, 120.

<sup>9</sup> *Rep. Com. Fifteen*, pp. 200 to 226.

attendance, or through lack of capacity to grasp the abstract teachings of books. Manual training and manual labor in various forms are, therefore, given a prominent place in the curriculum.<sup>10</sup>

Military drill is used to inculcate prompt obedience, and athletics are encouraged to give zest to the school life. Early hours of rising and retiring are required; the pupil's time is so fully assigned that he has little opportunity for mischief-making; and the busy but varied tasks of the day have put him in condition for sound sleep at night. In the larger schools, groups of boys are housed in small separate dwellings, according to the so-called "cottage plan," thus providing for classification according to age and previous record for conduct. Terms of commitment usually vary from a few days to six months, and the term in most cities may be shortened by good behavior. In some cities, however, commitment may be for the remainder of compulsory school age.<sup>11</sup> In New York State<sup>12</sup> the extreme limit of commitment is "for the remainder of the current school year." This provision seems to weaken the effect of the law, since the greatest temptation to truancy comes in the warm days just before the closing of the summer term, and the law provides practical immunity from punishment at that time, by limiting the extreme penalty to the very few remaining days of the school year.

In view of the salutary effect of the truant schools upon the children committed to them and the deterrent effect upon others, this branch of school administration seems to be one of the most interesting and beneficent within the jurisdiction of the city superintendent.

<sup>10</sup> *Rep. Board of Ed., Chicago, 1897-8*, p. 69.

<sup>11</sup> See *Laws of Illinois, Enactment of April 13, 1899*, Sec. C; also *General School Laws of Michigan, 1898*, p. 68; also *New Jersey School Law, 1897*, p. 79.

<sup>12</sup> See *Laws of N. Y., 1896*, chapter 606.

## CHAPTER V

### ADMINISTRATION OF INSTRUCTION AND DISCIPLINE

WHATEVER may be the formal rule or regulation of the board of education, the principal is in fact the administrative and pedagogical head of the school. From the principal more than from any other one person the school takes its character and derives its success or failure. A high degree of excellence in character, physique, and temperament is demanded by the principal's responsible position; and to these qualifications must be added liberal scholastic and professional equipment and experience.

While graduation from a college may not be rigorously exacted as a qualification for the principalship of an elementary school, the full equivalent of the culture and discipline implied by a collegiate course may well be required. No amount of academic and professional training can take the place of successful experience in teaching and in subordinate administrative duties. Administrative ability cannot be imparted by lecture or rule, or tested by examination. From the tabulation in Chapter II, it seems that principals are generally nominated by the superintendent; and this is a fortunate arrangement, since the superintendent has full opportunity to see and appreciate the evidences of executive ability that appear in each teacher's work. The highest credential that a candidate for a principalship can possess is a record of success in a smaller school or in class-room or department work. As the final appointment of a principal is usually made by the board, direct responsi-

bility to the board attaches to the position; and it is occasionally recommended that principals and teachers be represented in boards of education by one of their number having the right to a seat and a voice in that body, but with no vote,<sup>1</sup> or that bodies of principals and teachers be selected as advisory councils to represent the needs and interests of the schools before the board.<sup>2</sup> Teachers are thus represented in school boards of cities in France<sup>3</sup> and Germany, much to the general advantage of the schools.

For the good of the schools, and especially for protection against any possible lack of adaptation between the principal and the school to which he has been assigned, a reasonable probation must be served before his appointment becomes permanent; but the probation period once past, the principal will do all the better if he is granted large administrative liberty within the limits of the rules and regulations of the board. It is fair to hold the principal responsible for results rather than for details of management.

The immediate official superior of the principal is the superintendent. In general, the more clearly the duties of these two officers are defined, the better. While the principal is undoubtedly subordinate to the superintendent in all matters properly within the superintendent's sphere of authority, the mutual helpfulness and efficiency of both is promoted by a clear definition of their respective powers and responsibilities. The principal must be loyal to the superintendent and to the administration. He must use his best intelligence to understand and the utmost good-will to execute the instructions given him. While the principal may have a broader education than the superintendent, he

<sup>1</sup> Butler, N. M., *Rep. Com. Fifteen*, p. 204.

<sup>2</sup> Eliot, C. W., *Rep. Com. Fifteen*, p. 209. Errant, J. W., *Public School Journal*, Sept., 1897, p. 3. Lowell, A. L., *Proceedings, N. E. A.*, 1898, p. 1004.

<sup>3</sup> Compayré, G., *Organisation Pédagogique*, Paris, 1890, p. 335.

must bear in mind that the superintendent has a better perspective of the school system as a whole than any other person, and his judgment, in matters of general administration, is therefore to be respected. On the other hand, the considerate and skillful superintendent will avoid interference with the internal administration of any school unless positively compelled by duty to make such interference.

In the immediate care of his school it falls to the principal to assume the care of all school property, including buildings, grounds, books, and supplies. It is no small portion of his official duty to see that these material conditions of a good school are kept in the best condition for service. Clean halls and rooms well warmed and aired will not make a good school, but an excellent school cannot be had without them. In like manner well kept books and generous supplies economically distributed and carefully used go a long way toward making a good school. For all these matters of detail the principal must make timely provision. These matters are as essential to good school management as is careful attention to the commissary department to good generalship.

The next great duty of the principal is the making of the school program and assigning of teachers to departments or grades. To make a program that shall properly intermix the hard and easy tasks of the pupils, assigning the first to the early hours and the latter to times when relaxation and recreation are needed, and the placing of teachers with classes which need the special stimulation or restraint or direction that each teacher is able to give, and the doing of all this well in advance of the opening term, so that the machinery of the school shall run smoothly from the first hour, demands something very like the practising of a fine art. But this well done gives the school a start whose effect is felt through the term and commands the confidence of

teachers and the respect of pupils. But all this is really preliminary and incidental to the real work of the principal, which begins when the school machinery is well prepared, adjusted, and in motion. Then the principal must be in every part of the school with sufficient frequency to know precisely what sort of difficulties are met and what sort of work is done in each class. Without obtrusiveness or interference, he can become so much a part of each class that his presence is no more a source of distraction than is that of the teacher or of the quietest pupil. He may fairly gauge his success as an observer by the extent to which a class ignores his presence, and goes on with its proper work. Without speaking once he may stimulate the interest of the class by a genuine interest in their lesson. The children will quickly discover both his interest and its genuineness. An occasional question from the principal may serve to rouse new interest on the part of the class or to place emphasis on some desirable phase of teaching, provided that such questions are simple and directly in line with the teacher's development of the lesson. If such questions tend to take the lesson out of the teacher's hands, however, the advantage of them is more than doubtful, and silence would be the principal's best service. In this, as in other matters, that principal does most for his school who magnifies the teacher's office most and his own office least. In his case it is particularly true that "he that humbleth himself shall be exalted." Above all, the skillful principal will not permit himself to make the faintest suggestion of criticism of the teacher before the class or in the presence of any pupils, nor will he assume the manner of a critical observer of the teacher before the class. Indeed, his best method of observing the teacher is the indirect method of observing the class and its attitude of attention and interest. Suggestion and even frank and kindly criticism may be necessary, but

courtesy and a desire for effectiveness will compel such criticism to be given absolutely in private. Unless criticism can be offered with perfect freedom from any appearance of impatience or bitterness, it may better not be offered at all. Direct and personal criticism may often be avoided by commending certain characteristics of an excellent teacher, as for example a quiet and distinct manner of speaking, the use of few and simple questions, or refraining from talking too much in class. Often the principal may help a teacher by arranging so that she may visit and observe another teacher whose manner of conducting a lesson is an excellent suggestion of improvements that the first teacher should make.

The principal must be the teacher's adviser and support in discipline. He must not in any sense supplant the teacher's authority or permit a pupil to obey him after having defied the teacher. The principal's authority should be employed to fortify that of the teacher, and any case of discipline having arisen under a teacher should be settled with that teacher and to her complete satisfaction. By virtue of his position, the principal may compel a pupil to make such a satisfactory settlement, but the ultimate surrender should be to the teacher and not to the principal. It is unnecessary to call attention to the fact that too frequent appeals to the principal weaken both his influence and that of the teacher. Sending to the office is an easy way to secure present relief at the expense of future trouble. The principal is in duty bound to defend the teacher in all matters of discipline, unless the teacher is doing a manifest and grievous wrong, and even then he will try to secure a stay of proceedings till he can advise the teacher privately, and secure voluntary right action on the teacher's part; but under all these circumstances he must so manage that the teacher has the utmost confidence in his loyalty to her best interests, and that he will defend her even against herself.

The principal has in keeping the teacher's professional reputation and must defend it against troublesome pupils, dissatisfied parents, and upon occasion against the adverse conclusions of superintendents who have seen her work with little frequency and under unfavorable circumstances. In the hands of the principal also are the teacher's prospects for advancement. His opinion of her work will count for more than that of any other person, since he has had the best opportunity for observing it. His duty, as well as his desire to encourage the highest degree of efficiency in his staff of teachers, will impel him to assist in the advancement of a deserving teacher, even though he lose a valuable helper by her promotion. It also becomes the duty of the principal to assist in the removal of hopelessly poor teachers who have no capacity for improvement. It is quite likely to happen that he must take the initiative in that process. He must call attention to conspicuous failure, since he is likely to be the first to observe it; and if he cannot bring about improvement and reformation, his duty is clear.

The isolating tendencies of city life have robbed the principal of some opportunities for social service that prevail in village and rural society. Personal interest and neighborly courtesies, highly appreciated in the smaller communities, would be mistaken for intrusive officiousness in the large city unless proffered in the most tactful manner. The highly organized structure of urban society divides and distributes social obligations so completely that the teacher and principal are left nearly alone with only the routine duties of school to perform; and the community expects as little social service of them as of policemen and firemen. No doubt school men and school women are largely to blame for the existence of this state of affairs. They certainly would be much to blame for its permanent continuance. Since the principal of a city school cannot approach

the people of his neighborhood in a semi-pastoral capacity, presuming upon his official position to secure him a welcome to homes or social gatherings, he must find some indirect way to mingle with the families of his pupils. To accomplish this he must become something more than a mere school-master. He must become a part of the political, social, and religious life of his neighborhood. He may well sacrifice something of convenience and comfort for the sake of living among the people whom he serves. Facilities for travel and the separation of city populations into groups according to race, religion, or social condition often relieve the principal from the necessity of living near his school or wholly prevent his doing so. This is a great disadvantage to the school and to the principal, from the standpoint of social service. The administration might well put a premium upon the work of the principal who has the courage and the devotion to live near his school. But under the worst conditions the principal may reach the people of his neighborhood through the children. If the school is of considerable size, he needs no wider field for the doing of all that his philanthropic impulses may suggest. There are the sick, the poor, the distressed, the unfortunate, to whom the simplest service or show of human interest is most grateful, and through these the principal may come to know much of the social life of his neighborhood that is most to his advantage to know. The ability to make a practical study of the sociology of his community is as indispensable to a skillful manager of a city school, as are the arts of surveying and assaying to a mining engineer.

The highly specialized organization of the modern city school has made it necessary to supplement the supervision of the principal by the assistance of supervisors of special subjects, as music, drawing, and physical training. These supervisors are appointed as other teachers are, but are

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assigned to such large groups of schools that their exercises with a given school or class come somewhat less regularly and frequently than most of the so-called regular studies. This fact in itself makes the work of the special supervisor somewhat difficult, and demands for him special consideration. The supervisor is directly responsible to the superintendent and through him to the board. While subordinate to the principal in administration, the supervisor is coördinate with the principal in matters of special instruction, since both derive their authority from the same source. In relation to their work, supervisors divide themselves into two great classes, those who instruct and direct teachers, and those who to a considerable extent take the place of teachers, thus becoming mere special teachers themselves. The first are of course by far the more valuable, since they multiply their own efficiency several hundred fold and add permanent ability to the entire teaching force besides. The second group may be skillful teachers, but as they come but infrequently to any one class, their results are dissipated before the next special lesson, and their work amounts to but little. The most efficient special supervisor is the one who teaches little or not at all; but who can enthuse or inspire a body of teachers to learn the special subject and to take pride in teaching it well.

Last and most important of all the special agents of city school administration are the regular teachers, and whoever would attempt to describe all their qualifications and duties might well hesitate before the undertaking. Fortunately the present task is far more humble and will deal only with the administrative relations of teachers. It may be assumed that any city will demand on the part of its teachers, a high standard of moral character, with sound health, good manners, and habitual good temper. The amount of academic and professional training required of candidates varies from

high standing in and graduation from the local high school, to graduation from high school plus two years in normal or training school, including practice teaching under close supervision and criticism. Generally, however, long and successful experience is accepted in lieu of professional training, and in place of a portion of the maximum requirement in academic training. Candidates receive certificates upon examination either before the superintendent alone or the superintendent and such advisers or assistants as constitute an examining board. From the results of examinations eligible lists are constructed. These lists may be used in two ways, as in the cities of Boston and New York. In Boston eligible lists are drawn from as superintendents may choose, and they have the widest latitude in selection. They are not bound to consider any case. In New York only the three highest on the eligible list can be considered at any time, and each eligible list must be exhausted before another can be taken up. For good reasons, a candidate under consideration may be dropped from the eligible list. The Boston plan makes possible the selection of the best teachers and seems to lay emphasis upon the interests of the schools. The New York plan compels the consideration of each candidate approximately in the order of standing on the eligible list, and seems designed to protect the interest of the candidate, and to relieve the superintendents and the board of education from political influence or social pressure in the interests of any applicants for positions.

After election and assignment to duty, the teacher owes undivided allegiance and loyalty to the administration of which she is a part, and intelligent self-interest alone would insure such loyalty. She will doubtless observe many matters of detail in which she could suggest improvements, and under the most fortunate conditions will feel perfectly free to recommend such improvements at the right time; but

until changes have been authorized, it is her duty cheerfully to accept plans of work as she finds them and to co-operate heartily with the principal and other teachers, leaving responsibility with those to whom it properly belongs. While in a social and personal way it is highly desirable that the teacher should enjoy the acquaintance of the superintendents and members of the board, in official relations all transactions with them should be conducted through the principal. This policy ought to be insisted upon by board members, superintendents, and principals, as well as by teachers. As the principal owes candor and loyal support to the teacher, so does the teacher owe complete frankness and openness of conduct to him. The teacher who will consciously change a single step in the conduct of a recitation or other exercise just because the principal has entered the room, and with a view to making a better impression on him, is not in the way of doing the best work for the class or of receiving the greatest help from the principal. Any attempt at show work is pitifully transparent to an experienced principal; or, if it deceives him, it compels him to work through the hindrance of a body of misrepresentation, before he can be of any real use to the teacher. Continued successful deception would be equally unfortunate for teacher and principal; for the one would come to regard solid work as unnecessary, and the other would sooner or later have to face responsibility for the teacher's failure.

Reference to the tabulation in Chapter II shows that permanent tenure of office for teachers is treated by different cities in a great variety of ways. Some cities report that tenure of office is practically permanent upon election, others report periods of probation of three, five, and seven years. Few conditions that affect the teacher's profession are of greater importance than tenure of office. The teacher whose position must be placed in jeopardy by annual inspec-

tion and election for an unlimited period of years, cannot enjoy the independence and contentment which is conducive to the best service. Personal friendship or personal spite, political influence and social favor, all conspire to rob the teacher's position of security and dignity. On the other hand, it is often so hard to secure the removal of an incompetent teacher that the community is entitled to the protection of a reasonable probationary service before tenure of office becomes permanent. It would be well-nigh impossible to find a teacher so poor that pity or self-interest would not raise for her a host of defenders, if her position were endangered. Hence the safety of the teacher and of the city would seem to be best conserved by requiring a term of probation of from three to five years, under a temporary license, from every teacher entering the system. If at the end of any stated period, during probation, the teacher's service did not appear meritorious, the license might cease to be effective through lack of renewal, and the teacher would be quietly dropped without any opportunity for bringing undue influence to bear upon the case. But the successful teacher, having been admitted to service after passing a searching examination, and having demonstrated capacity for good work through a series of years, is entitled to the dignity and comfort of permanent tenure. Of course provision must be made against the time when the efficiency of an old teacher must cease, and the board must have authority to confer honorable retirement upon teachers worn out in the service of the city, with suitable provision for respectable support.

As suggested in the case of principals, the teacher's duties and privileges of service are not circumscribed by school hours or by the limits of the school premises, and special consideration of the teacher's larger field of service will be had in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER VI

### THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

EDUCATION has long been regarded as something to be accomplished *for* a community rather than *by* it. Teachers have considered themselves hired to educate, and the public has assumed that teachers are paid for educating and that there all mutual interest and obligation end. Teachers and parents alike have come to consider that active parental interest in the management of the schools is unnecessary and even undesirable. It occasionally happens in large city schools that parents who seek information concerning the conditions under which their children work or for an opportunity to observe those conditions, are met with refusal and are compelled to abandon their quest, or appeal to the school superintendent for permission to see the surroundings among which their children spend a full third of their waking hours. Such experiences tend to drive away from the school such parents as can afford to patronize private institutions, and to leave only the children of the poor in the public schools. This is exceedingly unfortunate for rich and poor alike, and worst of all for the public schools that need the moral and social support of the best in the community.

For years and centuries Niagara has plunged over its cliffs, a magnificent spectacle of power run wild. Only within a very few years has it occurred to any one to use this power for the service of mankind. In like manner the power of public sympathy and public interest has been lost

to the cause of public education, because no inventive genius has been found to correlate the two. The teacher stands so close to his own work as to lose the benefit of perspective, and the busy parent stands so far away from the education of his child as to lose everything but perspective. Teacher and parent must supplement each other's efforts for the greatest good of the child. The teacher, bent on intellectual training, has overlooked the moral and esthetic culture of the child and has too often forgotten even reasonable and safe sanitary conditions. The people, ignorant of the needs of the child in his school environment, have grumbled at high taxes for schools and have regarded the conscientious teacher who complains of crowded school rooms as attempting to evade work. Hence too often teacher and parent have established hostile camps over against each other, with the unfortunate children between the lines, exposed to the fire of both; and the school, which should be the center of the moral, intellectual, and esthetic life of the community, has degenerated into a weary, grinding mill for turning out specimens of warped, deformed, one-sided humanity.

Mere sentiment for co-operation of school and community is of no value except as expressed in action under wise direction. People will not become interested in schools just because professional educators see that their interest is desirable, nor will any hastily prepared special programs of showy fads secure an abiding public interest. The needs of the school and its just demands upon the life and power of the community must be constantly held before the people, and they must be persuaded to contribute thought, and labor, and wealth to the enrichment of their children's education. Just here the professional educator will be tempted to do too much and to make himself too conspicuous. He ordinarily must originate plans, but he must leave to others their execution, even at some loss in the quality of the work accom-

plished. The community must not be approached to be instructed, but to participate in organization, discussion, and research. Here will be the pedagogue's most trying situation. It is altogether too much of a habit with him to teach.

Probably no schools of this country have ever commanded a more genuine interest and loyal support than the old New England Academies, supported by tuitions. Every parent who sent a few hard-earned dollars to such a school with his son felt himself a sort of stockholder in that institution and directly interested in its largest success and good reputation.

The modern private school is but a feeble descendant of the old academy in the matter of individual interest on the part of its patrons; and this in large measure, no doubt, is due to the smaller personal sacrifice at which the rich send their children to the private school. Very true it is in educational matters that where one's treasure is there shall his heart be also. By the support of schools from funds raised by general taxation the school has lost much of the helpful sympathy of the community, and the community has lost the blessedness of directly giving its money, time, and thought to one of its most valuable institutions.

In a few scattered cities some wise efforts have been made to bring the school and the community into vital contact again. In 1895, Brookline, Mass., organized an education society composed of parents, teachers, and other citizens interested in education. This society<sup>1</sup> established large standing committees on child study, lectures, art, music, science, physical training, school libraries, and local history. Each committee consisted of a small number of active members and a larger number of associate members, thus insuring responsibility for the work undertaken and a large general interest in it. At different times these committees provided lectures, addresses, musicals, and other entertainments con-

<sup>1</sup> Channing, W., *Beginnings of an Education Society*, Ed. Rev., Nov., 1897.

nected with their various subjects. The very best talent obtainable was thought none too good for these public meetings, and there was no lack of general interest in them. Understanding the needs of the public schools, the people of Brookline have responded to every demand for financial as well as moral support, and the public school system is justly the pride of the town. The children of the wealthy find the public schools good enough for them, and the children of the poor have all the advantages of culture and refinement in the best schools of their state.<sup>2</sup>

The best work in other cities, St. Paul, Minn.,<sup>3</sup> for example, seems to be done in much the same way as in Brookline. Public education societies have been organized in New York and in Philadelphia<sup>4</sup> which seems to undertake rather less in the way of enlisting popular co-operation than the societies in Brookline and St. Paul, but which are still doing much to enrich the child's life in the Public School.

Something of the work attempted by the Philadelphia association may be inferred from a list of its standing committees. They are as follows: On conference with the board of education, on laws, on schools, on kindergartens, and on household economy. Some of the things which the association has done or has helped to do<sup>5</sup> are the establishment of a department of superintendence for Philadelphia schools, the introduction of sewing and cooking and manual training, the reorganization of the schools under supervising principals, and the enactment of a compulsory education law. From the above statements it will be seen that the

<sup>2</sup> See the *Brookline Education Society Year Books*, 1895-96-97.

<sup>3</sup> Curtis, V. G., *The St. Paul Public School Union*, School and Home Education, Bloomington, Ill., Sept., 1898.

<sup>4</sup> Harley, L. R., *A History of the Public Education Association of Philadelphia*, Phila., 1896.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 38.

association has occupied itself with matters of general administration rather than with direct attempts to bring the school and the people into more intimate relations.

The corresponding committees of the New York Public Education Association are those on school visiting, on school affairs, on entertainment, on the Tombs school, on art, and on nature material. From the reports of these committees it is evident that the association<sup>6</sup> is giving the schools of the city a great deal of wholesome supervision, and is operating constructively to better conditions in the schools; but very little seems to have been done to arouse the community to work with the schools for mutual help.

The free lecture system of the department of education in New York City asks no aid or co-operation on the part of the people, and seems, therefore, weak and ineffective as an educational force, when compared with movements that enlist the labor and sympathies of the common people. Free lectures may be doled out to the populace, as games and shows were doled out to the mob in Rome; but mere reception of amusement, even when mingled with instruction, cannot develop the educational strength of a community.

Institutions of little pretense but of great educational effectiveness are the *Caisses des Écoles* or school treasuries of France,<sup>7</sup> authorized by the law of April 10, 1867, and made obligatory in every commune by the law of March 28, 1882.<sup>8</sup> These organizations receive voluntary contributions and funds supplied by the commune, the department, or the state, and disburse such funds for providing free books to

<sup>6</sup> Sixth Annual Report of the Public Education Association, N. Y., 1901.

<sup>7</sup> See Gobron, L., *L'Enseignement Public et Privé en France*, Paris, 1900, p. 879 et seq.

<sup>8</sup> Bayet, C., *Rapport sur L'Organisation et la Situation de L'Enseignement Primaire Public en France*, Paris, 1900, p. 188.

poor pupils, for furnishing at school hot lunches for the children of the poor, for supplying shoes and suitable clothing to those who are too poor to buy them, and to give vacations in the country to the children who could not otherwise afford them. In selecting children for the vacations, the sick are given preference over the strong and well. In 1898 the poor children thus favored numbered 4,277, and the total expense of their vacations was about \$55,000. The average length of each child's visit to the country was about three weeks. The effects of these outings upon the children have been described by M. Bayet, director of primary education,<sup>9</sup> who in summing up his statement says: "These are the benefits and improvements which have marked the period extending from 1889 to 1899. They are due to the city, to the *Caisses des Écoles*, to the schoolmistresses and the schoolmasters, *acting not as officials, but as simple citizens.*" Since 1874 *Caisses d'Épargne Scolaires*, or school savings banks, have increased in number and in volume of business to such an extent that in 1889 there were 21,015 such depositors with 472,229 personal accounts, and accumulated funds amounting to about \$2,600,000. In 1897 the depositors numbered 16,878, with 327,999 accounts, and funds of about \$2,000,000. The decline of this system since 1889 is not an indication of dissatisfaction with the plan, but is rather the natural result of a better form of co-operation for which the school banks prepared the way. In 1880 there was established in Paris, by a philanthropist named Cavé, a co-operative organization known as *La Mutualité Scolaire*, whose title might be translated School Mutual Benefit Association. This association, instead of receiving such chance sums as the child may have, requires the systematic saving of a small sum, say ten centimes, each

<sup>9</sup> Bayet, C., *Rapport sur L'Organisation et la Situation de L'Enseignement Primaire Public en France*, Paris, 1900, p. 603 et seq.

week. Half of this sum is credited to the personal account of the child, to be drawn again with interest, and half of it is added to a common reserve fund from which, in case of the child's sickness, his family receives from twenty-five to fifty centimes per day. By this plan three desirable objects are gained for the child, the habit of systematic economy, the comprehension of fraternal association, and financial relief in case of sickness. So popular has the new association become that in 1899 it had a membership of more than 300,000.

Alumni associations have fostered the interest of former pupils and have given them the opportunity to help the social work of the school. Musical, literary, and gymnastic entertainments, with reading rooms, games, and opportunities for social intercourse have attracted graduates, pupils, and parents to the schools. Day nurseries and maternal schools for the children of the poor who must find their daily work away from home, and extension schools for apprentices who have left school, help to maintain the mutual interest of school and community and to enforce the lesson that each exists for the other. After commenting upon all these forms of social endeavor supplementing the work of the schools, M. Bayet adds:<sup>10</sup>

What France has done in the matter of arousing local interest in public education, America can do; but the schools must take the initiative and must approach and interest and

<sup>10</sup> Bayet, C., *Rapport sur L'Organisation et la Situation de L'Enseignement Primaire Public en France*, Paris, 1900, p. 620.

"Popular education, under all these forms, has for the first time in our country produced the result of permitting private initiative to place itself by the side of the administrative and professional organization; and it is not the least of the services rendered by elementary education, that it arouses the energy of the middle classes of the nation, to whom the 'to-morrow of the school' furnishes a field of action and of experience where they may delve with profound labor and scatter seeds for the harvest of the future."

attract the people. The school must have something to offer in the way of conveniences or privileges or other advantages, something that the people want. Libraries, reading rooms, reception rooms, lecture rooms, and even well regulated smoking rooms for adults might make the school a social center for the neighborhood that would be a powerful rival of the so-called poor man's club, the saloon. If the school is to undertake social service, it will very probably have to do some things that are not congenial to school men and still less congenial to school women; but service is not necessarily associated with esthetic pleasure, though ultimately it may lead to happiness.

From a social point of view evening lectures in school houses may be abject failures, and may even contribute to the deadening social apathy of cities, by showing how human beings may come into the presence of one another under circumstances which ought to arouse recognition and sympathy, and then go away again, each ignoring the existence of the other in a manner that could not be imitated by unreasoning brutes. But if an evening lecture could be followed by a social hour during which a considerable number of people could make it their duty to introduce neighbors who have lived under the same roof for some months or years without knowing each other's names, then a real social service would have been done. Mothers' meetings and meetings of parents and teachers may be conducted in such a way that the parents will go home feeling that they have been lectured and patronized, and they may justly feel offended by such treatment; but if parents are met on an equal footing for purposes of a genuine conference, both they and the teachers are likely to learn something for the advantage of their children, and each party will gain a higher respect for the other. If conferences of this sort could be addressed by parents who had been invited to study the

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schools and make preparation for such meetings, general interest in the conferences would be assured, and there is little doubt that valuable suggestions would be made and misunderstandings cleared away. It is very probable that parents would prefer to be informed and advised, part of the time at least, by one of their own number rather than by the principal or the teachers. Few things interest parents more than the work of their own children; but during the working hours of the day parents cannot take time to visit schools to see this work. Occasional exhibitions of regular work well done, and not mixed with any show productions, would attract parents to the school. The fact that such exhibitions were to be made from time to time would be an incentive to accuracy and neatness on the part of the pupil in his daily tasks. Some kinds of work like manual training, sewing, cooking, and gymnastics are best exhibited by pupils engaged in them rather than by displays of finished products. Exhibitions of this sort of work would have the double advantage of bringing parents and children to the school together, accompanied by interested neighbors and friends. When, in 1888, the schools of Philadelphia made an exhibit of their work, more than eighty thousand visitors attended the exhibition in four days, and the city authorities urged that the exhibition be continued for another week; but this was an exhibition for the whole city. Probably more good would be accomplished by exhibitions conducted in the individual schools several times per year. A single department, as history, manual training, or natural science, would furnish a sufficient exhibit for each evening. Visitors would get a clear and complete view of the work presented, and there would be time for a social hour.

A branch of social service much neglected by city schools is that of home visiting by the teacher. Even sickness and distress or even death in the home obtains no recognition

from the teacher except a formal note of inquiry concerning the pupil's absence. A few excellent schools and teachers lay great stress on home visiting in such cases; but the great majority, like the priest and the Levite, "pass by on the other side," losing the opportunities of lifetimes for themselves and for others. The fact that great numbers of people in the city have no church connections and only a narrow circle of acquaintances, with no pastoral visiting, makes the demand for home visiting on the part of the teacher still more urgent. True it is that so much attention to the social side of a teacher's work would consume a great deal of time; but it is also true that the increased interest and willingness of children would compensate in a considerable degree for the time spent in their homes.

Many pupils are compelled to leave school before graduation to help support the family. The school may do good service by helping them to obtain good situations. A boy or girl who has made a good record at school is entitled to the benefit of that record; and the effect upon the character of the school will be marked, if it is known that no pains will be spared to help the deserving to obtain situations, and that no sort of assistance can be obtained by those who have proved that they are idle and unreliable. Business schools and the best universities interest themselves in advancing their graduates, and it is good business policy for them to do so. In like manner public city schools will secure help and appreciation, if they keep up a personal interest in the boys and girls who have graduated or otherwise left the school. Alumni associations can do good service for the elementary and high schools of the city by keeping the school informed of business openings for those who need them. The graduates are in a position to know of vacancies, and they should be so closely in touch with their schools that they may be ready to assist younger graduates in finding work. When it comes to be understood that a good

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school record has a high value, vigorous efforts to obtain such records will be more common. In this matter we may learn something from Germany, where school and university records determine preferment in after life, and where the school work of boys and girls is regarded as something more serious than with us.

If the school and the home can be well correlated, the advantages of a strong centralization may be enjoyed without any fear of possible evil consequences. As the present tendency in this country seems to be toward centralization of authority in school affairs, it behooves us to put ourselves in harmony with our environment. So many advantages of uniformity and economy, of freedom from local politics, and of facility in making necessary reforms are likely to be found in a strongly centralized and responsible administration that the tendency will probably be more and more in that direction. This tendency will surely have its disadvantages. It is averse to our general policy of government and will therefore meet with opposition. Its tendency is toward the repression of the individual and personal initiative. It lacks general power of quick adaptation to local needs. But most of these disadvantages may be overcome by closer relations between the schools and the people; and in time it may be discovered that a centralized power in school administration is practically the most democratic, in best protecting the interests of the people in the education of their children. Unless this can be demonstrated there must and will be a return to the old decentralized and local control of schools, for the one thing that the schools cannot permanently do without is public confidence and appreciation. Says Superintendent Marble: "There can be no good schools where the citizens are not anxious to have good schools; and interested citizens and parents are almost as essential as pupils to a good city school system."

<sup>11</sup> Marble, A. P., *City School Administration*, Ed. Rev., Sept., 1894, p. 154.

## CHAPTER VII

### SUMMATION AND CONCLUSION

IN the course of this investigation it has appeared that the steady and rapid movement of population in the United States is toward the cities; that the current of morals, religion, and social customs is from the city toward the country; that the politically dominant populations of cities, and especially of large cities, are heterogeneous, largely foreign, without ownership of taxable property, and irresponsible; and that the state contributes largely to the support of city schools. The conclusions, therefore, seem unavoidable that the city is not a safe territorial unit for absolute local self government; and that the state has the right and the duty to control the essentials of city government, and particularly such municipal administration as determines the intelligence and morality of the city population. That is to say, the state violates no valid principle of democratic home rule, when it prescribes and enforces certain essential requirements of public education, and enacts any laws necessary thereto.

The testimony of educators and administrative officers, without one dissenting voice, is in favor of separating school administration from other departments of municipal government, to the end that schools may be wholly removed from the influence of politics. For this purpose the state must provide for the selection of a board of education having independent powers, and of such size as to secure fixed responsibility. To prevent sudden and disastrous changes

of administrative policy, members of the board must have long terms of office, expiring at such times and in such order that sudden changes in the composition of the board will be impossible. The consensus of expert opinion seems to be in favor of small boards (5 to 6) with long terms of office, and with the retirement of a small minority of the board at each season of appointment. Since responsibility for the management of a board can be definitely fixed upon an appointing power, and cannot be fixed upon the general elective body, appointed boards seem to be growing in favor with students of administrative problems, although the prevailing practice, as yet, is to elect boards by popular vote.

The great body of routine work in school administration must be placed in the hands of paid experts. That they may do their duty unbiased by pressure or influence, their powers and duties must be specifically defined; and in matters of detail they must be made independent of the administrative board. Admission to such expert service must be guarded by most exacting requirements and tests combined with a reasonable period of probationary service; but when once these tests are passed and the efficiency of the administrative agent is proved, his position should be made so secure that only the concerted action of a very large majority of the board can remove him from office.

To obtain the highest quality of professional service from the teaching force, the independence and security of the teachers must be established by law and not left to the passing mood of the administrative body. Long and secure tenure of office is not conferred upon judicial officers for the sake of bestowing personal benefits upon those officers, but in the interests of the people who need their impartial decisions. In like manner, a plea for long and secure tenure of office for school officers is not a plea for favor or kindness to them, but for the benefit of the people whom they serve.

The final and perhaps most important conclusion of this study is that the school and the community need a larger measure of mutual interest and reciprocal service. Education cannot be accomplished for a community by any system of school administration or by any body of teachers, however skillful they may be. Not a single individual can have the shortest step toward real education taken for him. What the individual does for himself is a means of education. What the community does for itself contributes to social culture. Therefore every class in the community should have its opportunity to contribute to the social development of education. The rich should have the opportunity to give and the poor to do, each according to his ability, for the common good. Probably no public school is so well equipped that gifts of books, pictures, statuary, scientific apparatus, and special furnishings for social work would not be acceptable; and very few citizens are so poor that they could not at least contribute an occasional hour of assistance to an evening social center. The poorer classes would, no doubt, be attracted and made to feel at home by the very opportunity to render such assistance.

The schools of a great city offer peculiar advantages for social education. Smaller cities and villages have their religious and fraternal organizations, which include almost the whole population; but the great cities leave great masses of people seemingly to live and die by themselves. The schools are in contact with these masses through their children. As the school is supported at public expense, its advances toward the people are not open to any suspicion of mercenary or other selfish motives. As no legal obligation rests upon the schools to attempt other than prescribed duties, efforts for social betterment must be recognized at once as voluntary and unselfish. What use has the city school made of its great opportunity? What use will it make?

On the principle that giving and not receiving service is a means of culture, the persons most to be benefited by the social activities of the school are the teachers themselves; and no class of people is in greater need of such benefit. Confinement to a narrow round of duties, always associated with immature minds, the habit of exercising authority and requiring implicit and instant obedience, the nervous exhaustion consequent upon enthusiastic teaching, gradually but surely tend to unfit the teacher for social enjoyment. The teacher, therefore, for his own sake, needs contact with the people; for breadth of experience and of sympathy are as essential as intellectual attainments to the ideal teacher.

Reformers in education are wont to say that the schools exist for the children, and as they use the saying it is eminently true; but in a larger sense the schools exist for the state and for society, and school administration performs its highest duty when it serves the children with the active co-operation of the community.

## APPENDIX

THE following questions were addressed to superintendents or other school officers in all the cities of the United States numbering more than one hundred thousand inhabitants, and to an equal number of cities having a population nearest to fifty thousand. The answers to the first seventeen questions are tabulated in Chapter II. The eighteenth question was distinctly noted, in an accompanying letter, as confidential, and the suggestions contained in replies are therefore given here without the authors' names.

1. What authority determines the amount to be raised for school purposes?
2. Number of members of school board?
3. How is gradual change in membership of board provided for?
4. How is the school board chosen?
5. Term of members in years?
6. Chosen from entire city, ward, or sub-district?
7. How is the superintendent of schools chosen?
8. Superintendent's term of office in years?
9. Assistant or associate superintendents,
  - (a) Number?
  - (b) How chosen?
  - (c) Term of office?
10. Do principals supervise methods? Do they teach?
11. How are teachers nominated? How appointed?
12. How are teachers certificated?
13. When does a teacher's tenure of office become practically permanent?

14. To what extent do civil service rules govern the appointment, promotion and tenure of office of teachers?

15. What officer or committee immediately authorizes and superintends the construction and repairs of school buildings?

16. By whom are janitors appointed?

17. Are janitors directly responsible to principals for faithful performance of duty?

18. Will you mention any desirable changes from the above plans?

#### REPLIES.

There are several changes that ought to be made in our school system :

1. "The members of the board should be elected from the city at large, instead of from districts. Members elected from districts feel under obligation to the people who elected them and spend too much of their time legislating for their own districts."

2. "The term of office of the school board should be increased from two to four years, and the board should not contain more than eight members, and not more than two members should go out in any one year. As it is with us now, just about the time a member becomes familiar with the duties of his office he is defeated and a new man comes in, and it takes him fully two years to become acquainted with the system."

3. "While I am not an advocate of 'one man power' in the full sense of the term, I believe all principals and teachers ought to be nominated by the superintendent, and that appointments, promotions and tenure of office ought to depend entirely upon merit."

4. "I think that the financial and business affairs of the system ought to be handled by an officer elected for that purpose and that the superintendent ought to have nothing to do with them except in an advisory relation."

5. "In the construction of school buildings the board ought to employ an architect who is thoroughly familiar with school architecture and not rely upon competitive plans and specifications; for as a rule the plans and specifications which are the best are not selected, as there is always more or less political interference and wire-working in connection with this work. If the school board had one man to look after work of that character, who was paid sufficient salary to justify him in paying attention to it, I think it would prove a good investment."

6. "Janitors should be responsible to principals and the Supervisor of Buildings—to the principals when school is in session and to the Supervisor when not in session."

"Amount to be raised for schools should be left entirely with the board of education."

"Board of education too large (14 now).

Should be elected "at large."

Term of board members too short.

Janitors should be appointed by school board."

"One member of board should retire each year."

"All members of board should be nominated and elected at large."

"Permanent tenure for teachers and superintendent.

Superintendent should appoint teachers."

"Tenure of office of competent teachers should be permanent during good behavior; or dismissal should be subject to revision by court of proper jurisdiction."

"Superintendent should have statutory power to nominate teachers."

"Board should have power to divide amount to be raised for support of schools."

"Smaller board, 5 or 7 preferably (now 9).

Less work by committees, more by regular officials such as general manager for the business, and janitors should be more directly responsible to principals and superintendent."

"Smaller board (now 30), elected at large or appointed by Mayor, and longer term."

"Janitors should be chosen by the board after being nominated by Superintendent of Buildings and Repairs."

"Superintendent should have more absolute control over janitors, also appointive power."

"Longer term for members of board."

"A central board of education consisting of about 25 members, appointed from the city at large, with local boards of about 6 members, having some control of the details of the school, but not the power to appoint teachers."

"A board of 7 or 9 elected at large would be better (now 20). Civil service rules should apply to appointment, promotion, and tenure of office of teachers. Superintendent should have power to nominate teachers; and teachers by definite rules should be held responsible for the good conduct of the schools, subject to removal in case work is not meritorious."

"Should be a smaller board (than 22), appointed for a term of years, one member retiring every two years. This and the consequent changes would remedy many existing evils."

"Board should consist of not more than 7 members, and be elected at large.

Board should have full charge of janitors and repairs.

Superintendent should nominate all teachers."

"A minimum appropriation for support of schools should be designated by law, so as to secure said support from adverse action of supervisors."

"There should be a longer tenure of office for the superintendents (now at pleasure of board). The superintendent should have entire control of appointment of teachers. Provision should be made for the permanent employment of teachers. Teachers should be free from repeated examinations."

"A supervisory engineer will probably be appointed for next year."

"Have superintendent elected for three or four years; give him the right to nominate teachers. Have teachers appointed during good behavior after reasonable probation. Give principals half time for supervising."

"Board unnecessarily large (37).

One board of education, one superintendent, and the same rules and regulations to have authority over the entire area of the county, including the city which is the county seat. The same regulations should apply to the teachers in the rural districts as in the city."

"Only part of the board should retire at one time.

Election of the board should be by the people at large instead of by wards. Members should hold office for four years (now two years)."

"Smaller board (27), fewer committees, more consolidation and centralization of power."

"Our board should have authority to levy school tax. Principals of eight-room buildings or larger should not have charge of a grade. Term of superintendent too short, should be unlimited."

"The law provides that no appointment of a teacher can be made effective beyond the 30th day of June following. This feature of the law should be eliminated, I believe, in order that appointment may become practically permanent."

"All repairs to school buildings should be placed under the direction of the school board rather than the Inspector of Public Buildings."

"At present the president of the board is elected by the people. The board should choose its own president."

"Fewer members in board (now 21) and selection from city at large."

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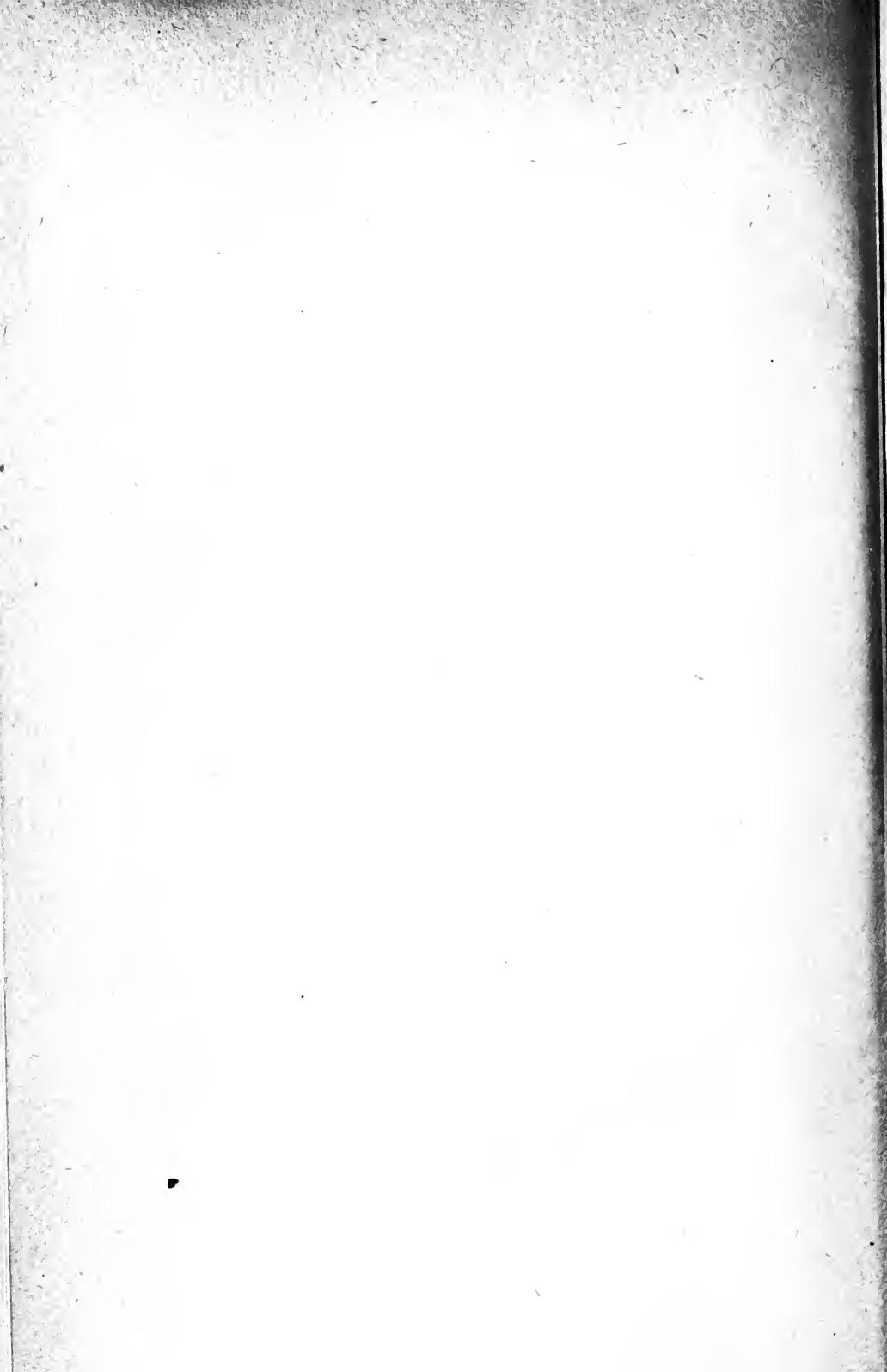
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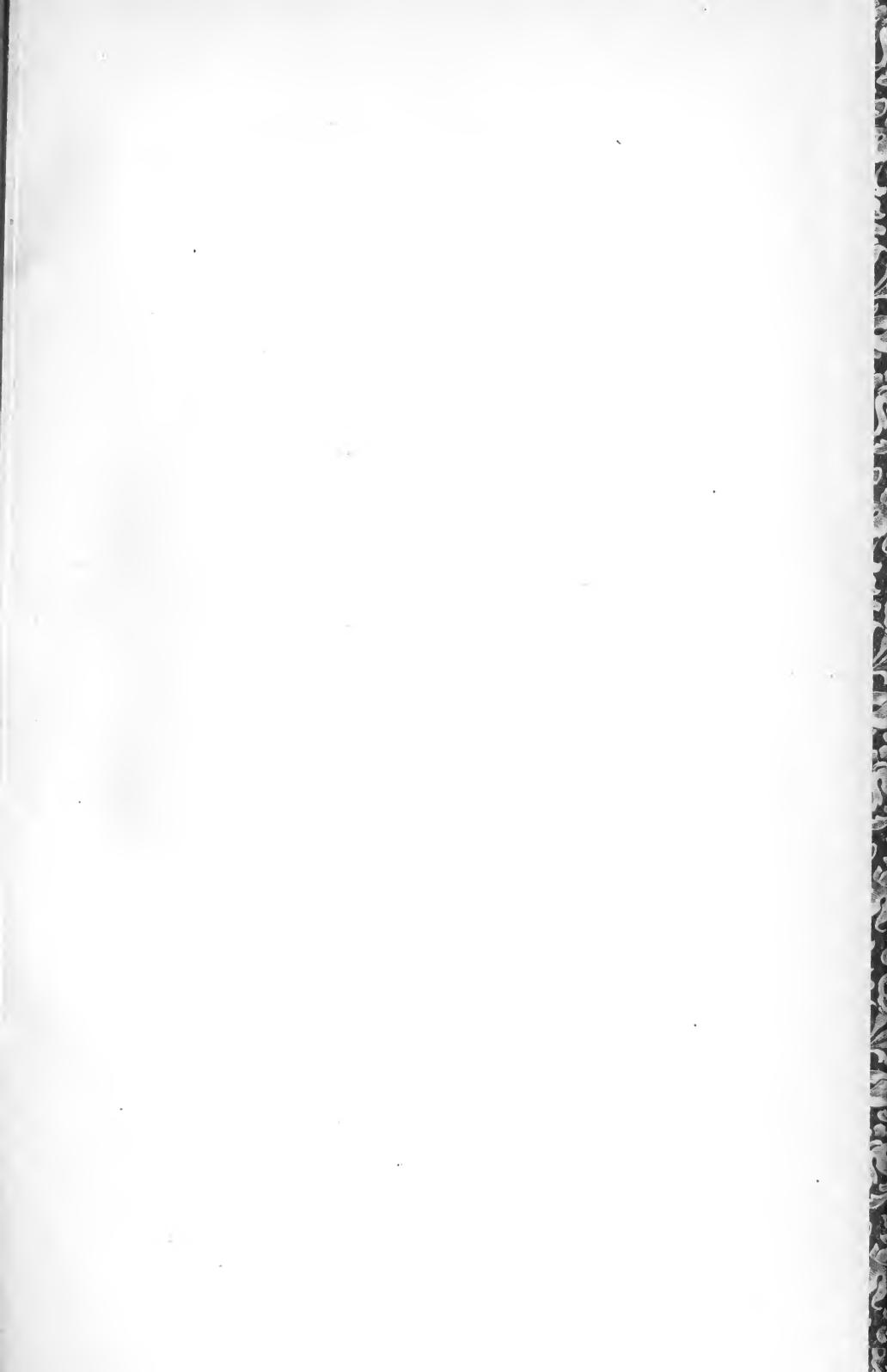
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