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TEXT-BOOK
OF
SCHOOL AND CLASS MANAGEMENT



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TEXT-BOOK
OF
SCHOOL AND CLASS
MANAGEMENT

THEORY AND PRACTICE

BY
FELIX ARNOLD, A.B., Ph.D., Ph.D.

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TO
JAMES MARK BALDWIN
WHO HAS SO EFFECTIVELY INTERPRETED
'THE WAIL OF THE HUMAN BABE'

PREFACE

THE publication of a book on school and class management hardly requires excuses. For education is still in the age of lean kine, and management is one of the leanest. Recent books which have appeared show the inadequacy of the older treatments, and a complete text-book is still lacking.

For the practical aspects of school and class management I have depended upon tested experience of my own and of that of progressive teachers and principals whom I have had the good fortune to know. For the theoretical aspects I have gone to the best authorities and have sought first-hand information at every point. Wherever I have made use of an authority I have noted it. My chief obligation, however, is to the works of James Mark Baldwin, and especially to the two classic volumes, *Mental Development in the Child and the Race*, and *Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development*.

FELIX ARNOLD.

NEW YORK CITY.

INTRODUCTION

MANAGEMENT of a school refers to its control by governing officials. It implies direction and support by school boards. It presupposes cooperation between principal and teachers. It necessitates contact between teacher and pupils, and pupils and principal.

Direction and support are given by school boards when proper buildings are erected, adequate supplies provided, and effective by-laws formulated. Cooperation between principal and teachers includes cooperation in instruction, cooperation in discipline, and effective supervision. Direct contact between principal and pupils is necessitated in organisation, classification, and hygienic precautions.

Contact between teacher and pupils is necessary in instruction and in discipline. As management usually refers to the latter, I have restricted my treatment of class management to the problem of conduct. Instruction I shall discuss in a separate volume. The present volume deals with cooperation between principal and teachers, and class management. The second volume will consider organisation, classification, the health of the child, school hygiene, and the school boards. If my inspiration holds, I shall devote a third volume to general method in instruction. Each volume, however, is complete in itself.¹

¹ Management on the side of cooperation between principal and teachers is a new field still confined to the lecture room and the school. It has been considered by Professor Samuel Dutton, of Columbia University, Dean Thomas M. Balliet, of New York University, and by

Class management should not be treated apart from some aspects of school management. Since the principal must pass judgment upon the efficiency of the teacher's instruction and discipline, the teacher should know something of the criteria by which he is judged. So, too, the principal should have a clear idea of effective class management. I have therefore treated cooperation and class management in one volume.

A word is necessary to explain 'theory' and 'practice.' In popular parlance a theorist is an idle dreamer, one who guesses wildly at truth, one who spins webs which tear at the least breath of reality. Such an interpretation, however, refers rather to false views, biased judgments, or opinion, and not to logical and scientific theory. Theory corresponds to what is sometimes called 'pure science,' while practice corresponds to 'applied science,' though the records of applied science are again a kind of theory. Theory is not inconsistent with truth, can not in fact be considered valid theory unless it corresponds closely with experience, unless it can bear the test of application. Theory is a more or less schematic, representative, abstract, and formal arrangement of experience for the purpose of guiding action. So soon as it becomes inadequate or misleading it must be cast aside. An efficient teacher must have some knowledge of theory, else his work will become pedestrian and mechanical. The deep ruts into which education has fallen, the medieval methods still common in the schools, are due chiefly to a lack of critical investigation, to an ignorance, often a contempt, for true theory.

Superintendents Andrew W. Edson and Edward L. Stevens, of New York City. For a number of specific suggestions I am indebted to Superintendent Edward D. Farrell, of New York City, and Superintendent James H. van Sickle, of Baltimore.

Practice as such does not mean anything, and experience may be simply a hollow shell. Only as practice is effective is it worthy of consideration. The practice which I have suggested is that followed by the most successful and progressive teachers. To record actual practice as it may be found in some classrooms would be to unfold only a tale of barbarity and ignorance. This I have not attempted to do.

I have used the term ' he ' throughout the book in referring to principal, teacher, or pupil. This I have done for the sake of convenience and not through prejudice. In most cases the term ' she ' can be substituted.

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TEXT-BOOK
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PART I

PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER

CHAPTER I

THE TEACHER

§ I. SELF-ACTIVITY OF THE TEACHER¹

1. **Need of a discussion of self-activity.**—In most discussions of educational topics the category 'self-activity' is restricted to certain activities of the child.² Self-activity of the child, however, is conditioned by self-activity of the teacher. So, too, self-activity of the teacher is needed in his relations with the principal. The teacher must not be a plodding tool. He must use his own judgment in much of his classroom work. He can not have the principal at his elbow suggesting and directing. And where unique cases of teaching and discipline arise, it

¹ On 'self-activity,' see: Stout, G. F., *Analytic Psychology*, 1: Bk. II, Ch. I. Aristotle, *The Nicomachean Ethics*, Eng. tr. by J. E. C. Welldon, Bk. III, Ch. II. Ormond, Alexander T., *Basal Concepts in Philosophy*, 109-110. Lipps, Theodor, *Vom Fühlen, Wollen und Denken*. Harris, W. T., *Psychologic Foundations of Education*, Ch. III. Tompkins, Arnold, *The Philosophy of School Management*.

² See, for example: Horne, Herman Harrell, *The Philosophy of Education*, 170-172. Parker, Francis W., *Talks on Pedagogics*, Ch. I. Thorndike, Edward L., *The Principles of Teaching*, 24. O'Shea, M. V., *Dynamic Factors in Education*. Gordy, J. P., *A Broader Elementary Education*, Chs. IX-XIV.

is the self-active teacher who succeeds where the more mechanical one fails.

Properly to understand and interpret suggestions, the maximum and minimum limits of his own efforts, a thorough appreciation of definitive relations, of use and function, of method and application, the teacher must do his own thinking, must apply his own theory, must, in fact, work out his own salvation in fear and trembling.

The characteristics of self-activity need further explanation. Some consideration of misconceptions of self-activity may prepare for the positive treatment of the matter.

2. **Illustrations of mistaken self-activity.**—Spontaneity, freedom, independence, self-activity, are much lauded. Laudation, however, is not understanding, and more intensive analysis is necessary. Some types of mistaken self-activity usually stand out prominently in school work.

The energetic, vigorous, driving lesson which leaves the teacher wilted and weak is not always an indication of self-activity. The teacher who does most of the work may be active, but from a pedagogical point he can not be said to be self-active. Sometimes his self-activity is best realised in the classroom when he seems to be doing nothing.

The teacher's own expression of his work should not be confused with the content of his discussion. The reports which teachers and principals are required from time to time to give of their work tend to lead them astray in this particular. Such expression may take other than verbal forms. It often assumes the form of written notes, daily, weekly, and monthly plans, notebooks, and progress-books. These are aspects of self-activity, but other things are needed to round out the complete cycle of pedagogical self-activity.

Academic erudition similarly is an important, but not the whole, part of self-activity. Theoretical activity is necessary to prevent stagnation and routine Gradgrindism, but practical application is just as necessary. The student may be a failure in the classroom, but just as true is it that the teacher who knows little of his theory can do little more than mechanical work.

3. The aim or moving reason. — Whether a teacher is helper in a kindergarten, assistant in a high school, or professor in a university, he should in all his work be moving towards a definite end, and he should, moreover, have a clear and distinct idea of such end. It might be well here to differentiate end and aim. The end is a definite, concrete situation which is prospective. It is connected in some manner with a present situation. It exists in some degree potentially in a present situation. After certain changes take place, either in the present situation, in the agent controlling such situation, or in both, the end may be reached. Now it is the idea of such end which forms the aim. This aim need not exist in explicit form while the teacher is at his work, but it should be sufficiently well ingrained to direct pedagogical action.

The work of the term, the weekly plan, the daily lesson, even the particular question asked or illustration given, should be guided by the all-embracing aim. Each specific act, guided by some less aim, should in turn help out the greater aim. The whole system of aims should point towards the child, what he is and what he may become.

Upon entering his profession the teacher usually has some idea of his work. His aims, however, are apt to be crude and ill-defined. Intensive analysis of classroom work and continual study of subjects bearing on the theory of education are necessary for a clarification and purifica-

tion of aims. A study of psychology will give a better understanding of the child's mental processes. Knowledge of sociology, anthropology, and economics will facilitate a common-sense interpretation and emphasis of the parts of the course of study. Acquaintance with functional logic will enable the teacher to combine subject-matter and method most economically. Ethics, religion, and the literatures of all time will keep the teacher from thinking he is, to use Carlyle's expression, dealing out so much pig's wash.

For classroom practice subordinate aims can be developed in a similar manner. Examination of the experience of others, critical weighing of evidence as published in books on method, visitation of schools, hearing of lectures, comparison of results with the results of others,—all these will tend gradually to build up those aims connected with classroom practice.

4. **The means.** — The aim or idea of the end in self-activity is simply a guide directing the detailed explication in the classroom. It is an ideal representation of some final situation to be reached. It is teleological and points to some future state. It is simply a theoretical scheme which will enable the teacher to do his work as effectively as possible. The present, however, must always be the starting point in actual practice. Some mediation is therefore necessary to bridge the gap between the end and the present situation under control. A series of means must be evolved to insure realisation.

(a) *Ideal means.* — The means may be considered from a purely theoretical and representative standpoint or from one more practical and concrete. Whatever the teacher has thought out for the purpose of securing realisation of the aim, whatever plans, devices, ideal schemes he has

constructed to connect the present with the end to be reached, these constitute the ideal means. Such means exist as a series of images or ideas, or as ideal dispositions.

The following points should be carefully noted, (1) the means should be developed out of the end, and should be connected with the child, (2) they must be conceived in form simple enough to fit the child, and (3) the ideal means are the work of the teacher and constitute for the most part his share in that aspect of self-activity. The actual realisation of these means in concrete detail, the manipulation of the practical means, this part belongs to the child. The skill of the teacher in working out the ideal means is usually seen in the kind of control possessed by the children over the concrete practical means.

(b) *Practical means.* — The practical means consist of whatever material fit for the child is available. Chief among such practical means are the child with his animation and vitality, actual situations to be understood and taught, excursions, objects in the school, the home, and the immediate environment, samples of things to be explained, and where the situations themselves can not be controlled in whole or part, adequate representations of such means. Adequate representation demands a proper use of clay, papier-maché, wood, metal, liquids, pasteboard, cloth, color, crayon, and then the much-abused pen, ink, pencil, and paper.

Two cautions should be observed in the use of the practical means, (1) the child himself must do the manipulating of the concrete means after proper guidance has been given, and (2) the concrete means should be appropriate to the nature of the end to be realised. Thus, written arithmetic requires manual work and written practice. A child good in mental arithmetic is not necessarily good in written

arithmetic. Conduct requires actual practice, and verbalism should not be considered sufficient in the various subjects.

5. **The emotional impulse or impelling feeling.** — The aim and the ideal means are purely schematic, logical, and formal. They are like the signboards on the road. They point to the end, give some directions how to get there, but in themselves are no guarantee that any action will be taken to reach the end. A moving spirit is necessary to work realisation. Portia in the *Merchant of Venice* well expresses the difference between the purely logical and the more emotional elements in deliberate action. "It is a good divine," she says, "that follows his own instructions: I can easier teach twenty what were good to be done, than be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching. The brain may devise laws for the blood; but a hot temper leaps o'er a cold decree: such a hare is madness the youth, to skip o'er the meshes of good counsel the cripple." In addition to the cold and bleak symbols there must be an emotional impulse, a feeling which impels to action.

Disturbing elements which impel action exist in plenty, and few teachers can be accused of a lack of zeal. Much energy, however, is often wastefully misdirected. Narrow routine and mechanical Gradgrindism, unleavened with sweetness and light, may dwarf natural sympathies and humane feelings. At all times the child must be kept in view. To see a little child with all the potentialities within him, to find how much opportunity is wasted, to see the great differences in individuals due to neglect, to find how overemphasis in training along rigid academic lines has dwarfed capacities uncared for by the school, to see the suffering, and want, and neglect which seem necessary accompaniments with so many children, — these are only a

few of the unquieting elements which will tend to develop thought and action for their removal. Sympathy, humanity, and love of children, — these are the feelings which should motivate a teacher's actions.

Mistaken popular opinion often confuses a humanitarian spirit, a love of children, and a sympathy with their efforts with softness, weakness, and effeminacy. The rigid 'disciplinarian,' too, is prone to look with contempt upon the teacher who is friendly with children, who tries to make things pleasant for them. But as Kidd points out,³ "There is no justification for regarding the change in progress in our time, as indicating that we are undergoing a kind of deterioration, or as evidence that we are becoming less able to bear the stress of life than formerly. There are no real grounds for such a supposition. On the contrary, it is amongst the peoples who are most vigorous and virile, and amongst whom the stress is severest, that the change is most noticeable. It is amongst the races that are winning the greatest ascendancy in the world that this softening process has proceeded farthest." I may be pardoned if I add that the One Man who suffered little children and forbade them not was also the One who was able to drive the money-changers out of the temple.

Finally, emotional impulsion to be more or less humane must have the backing of sound health and undiminished vitality. Ill-health will make an individual peevish, fretful, and biased, while a lack of energy will interfere with a vigorous enforcement of proper aims. A teacher or principal may have emotions of the proper kind but not of a strength sufficient to impel realisation of humanitarian aims. He may speak of his love of children and may really have a little of it. But to avoid conflict or pressure

³ Kidd, B., *Social Evolution*, 175, and Ch. VII.

from various sources he may commit the greatest injustice and inflict injury and pain on children for whom he professes to care.

6. Immanence of the aim, means, and impelling feeling in the individual. — The constituents of self-activity discussed above have of necessity been treated separately. But to be of worth, to have any meaning as self-activity, they must be inherent in the person concerned, must belong to the individual as an intrinsic part of his inner self.

The school system may be founded on humanitarian bases, the principal may have the best of intentions, but these will be of little use unless they are also a part of the teacher's mental possessions. The very nature of the teacher's individuality demands that his actions follow his inner, spiritual guidance, that the aim which leads him on is an aim which he believes in as true and good. This does not mean that individualism is to reign unchecked by social reference and superior guidance. In fact, it is one of the most important of the principal's functions to develop a humanitarian aim, and at the same time to respect the teacher's self-activity and individuality. More specific means of such control are given in the succeeding chapters.

Other feelings and aims may, of course, stimulate the teacher in doing his work. The lash of a superior looking for percents, the commands of a principal who wishes to show his authority, the fear of losing grade or position, misleading aims, — these and other causes may rouse action. But such activity is not self-activity, does not rise naturally out of the situation, has little connection with the higher ethical and social aim, and is harmful to the best interests of the child.

7. Self-activity as ethically effective. — There is no doubt that much work of a certain kind is done by every teacher.

But it is a question whether or not such work is really effective in a truly ethical and moral sense. The deadly verbalism, the spiritual nagging and flogging, the repression and silence which take up so much of the teacher's time require considerable effort. But the fact that the teacher does work is no guarantee that such work is effective, is ethically and morally good for the child. In theory this may readily be granted, but it is the practice which should be judged.

In the above discussion many topics have been treated which require further explication. The individuality of the teacher, his cooperation with his superiors, the aid given to him by his superiors, — these and other subjects will receive fuller treatment in the succeeding chapters. Further consideration, however, is necessary of the individuality of the teacher, and of his rights and duties.

§ II. INDIVIDUALITY OF THE TEACHER

1. **The self.** — The self of the teacher implies, not some unchangeable, metaphysical *Ego* or transcendental something we know not what, but rather a living personality, acting beneficially upon others and being influenced in return. Self, personality, individuality, may include a number of things, but all these can be shown to radiate from the self-activity of the person concerned.

From a purely subjective standpoint the self of a person is all that a person can call 'me.' But to use the words of James:⁴

⁴ James, William, *The Principles of Psychology*, 1:291. See, also: Bradley, F. H., *Appearance and Reality*, Second edition, Ch. IX. Baldwin, J. M., *Mental Development in the Child and the Race*, Third edition, 318-331.

It is clear that between what a man calls *me* and what he simply calls *mine* the line is difficult to draw. We feel and act about certain things that are ours very much as we feel and act about ourselves. Our fame, our children, the work of our hands, may be as dear to us as our bodies are, and arouse the same feelings and the same acts of reprisal if attacked. . . .

We see, then, that we are dealing with a fluctuating material. The same object being sometimes treated as a part of me, at other times as simply mine, and then, again, as if I had nothing to do with it at all. *In its widest possible sense, however, a man's Self is the sum total of all that he CAN call his*, not only his body and his psychic powers, but his clothes and his house, his wife and children, his lands and horses, and yacht and bank-account. All these things give him the same emotions. If they wax and prosper, he feels triumphant; if they dwindle and die away, he feels cast down, not necessarily in the same degree for each thing, but in much the same way for all.

(a) *Material self*. — Too much emphasis can not be placed on the necessity of developing the material aspects of the self. The classroom, the work of the children, ornaments and decorations, pictures and statues, apparatus for science, supplies neatly ordered, books carefully kept, — these and others are an important part of the teacher's self. As they increase and prosper, so does his influence extend, so is he looked upon as a person of ability and power. They point to him as one who is able to do things.

(b) *Spiritual self*. — In addition to the material constituents are the spiritual constituents of the self. These include thorough mastery of the subject-matter to be taught, an understanding of effective means of presentation, guidance, and control, a sympathy with and love for children, and a wide knowledge of a cultural nature.

The material and the spiritual constituents of the self will be bound more closely to the individual if they are a result of his own efforts and self-activity. Not only will

he consider them of worth, but others also will look upon them as products of his activity, will tend to respect both the man and the products of his labor.

2. **Personality.**⁵ — The material and spiritual constituents of the self, even if felt as one by the individual, even if considered by him as his very own, will not afford him a personality as such: Besides belonging to him, they must be used by him for the good of those about him, they must have a social reference. Material and spiritual constituents of the self plus points of proper social contact, — these form the personality of the individual. A man may have the wealth of Cræsus and all the wisdom of Solomon, but if he hoards his gold and uses his knowledge to no purpose, he can not be said to have personality. If, however, an individual is known here for one good deed and there for another, if his friends receive from him a helping hand, if his own flesh and blood imbibe from him sweetness and light, if his children have the dry dust of knowledge moistened with his sympathy and love, such a man can be said to have personality.

A mistaken idea of personality is the one connected with presence, magnetism, and the like. To have personality, some vaguely suppose that an individual must have a *presence* of some kind. Personality in such cases exists chiefly in the imagination of the onlooker. He *sees*, for example, a man of good build and imposing appearance, and *imagines* what a wonderful store of power exists, what knowledge must be contained in so noble a head, how efficient an individual he must be. All these potential points of contact are imagined. Suppose, now, that one goes to the individual with the *Presence*, finds his remarks vapid,

⁵ On 'personality,' see Wallace, William, *Lectures and Essays on Natural Theology and Ethics*, Pt. II, Ch. II.

his abilities small, the very clothes on his back unpaid for. At once all the personality of the presence dwindles and vanishes. No, personality is not so inert and passive a thing. It is work, energy, efficiency, radiating for the benefit of others.

3. **The individual as a *socius*.**⁶ — When an individual develops an aim, evolves a plan, or creates or constructs something, the result of his activity is for himself only partly sufficient. For the individual the result may be truth. But there is in him an inner craving to have his work receive the stamp of social approval, or if not approval, at least acceptance. He longs for human companionship, he desires to lay before his fellow-man the result of his efforts. If there is no living being in whom he can confide, he refers back either to his memories of those whom he once knew or to the opinions of master minds as given in books. “No more fiendish punishment could be devised,” says James, “were such a thing physically possible, than that one should be turned loose in society and remain absolutely unnoticed by all the members thereof. If no one turned round when we entered, answered when we spoke, or minded what we did, but if every person we met ‘cut us dead,’ and acted as if we were non-existing things, a kind of rage and impotent despair would ere long well up in us, from which the cruelest body torture would be a relief.”⁷

The teacher feels this need for some kind of social support, for the friendly clasp and the hearty, ‘You are right,’ of a sympathetic listener. But how often are the sources

⁶ See Baldwin, J. M., *Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development*, Fourth edition.

⁷ James, W., *Princ.*, 1 : 293-294. See, also, Baldwin, J. M., *Soc. and Eth. Int.*, Ch. II.

of such social recognition, while giving the human touch, either ethically and educationally inadequate or perverting and stultifying? A teacher may take counsel with his wife or talk the matter over with a friend. Family troubles are to be smoothed over, and the teacher will often find, from his wife, how right he is, how wrong is the system, how wicked is the boy who may have caused the trouble; while his friend, expanding under the genial influence of a good dinner, will probably give an inane though sympathetic approval of everything.

The principal should recognise this craving for social recognition and should provide means of effecting it. He himself should keep in close touch with his teachers, socially if not pedagogically. He should also encourage social contact between the teachers of his school. It is one of the most delicate and important functions of the principal both to recognise this craving, unconscious if not expressed, and to provide for it by free discussion, sympathetic approval, and kindly guidance.

4. **The individual not a tool.** — Where work is rigid and well-defined, calling for more or less habitual actions, as in the hoisting of bricks or the lifting of levers, where human judgment is reduced to a minimum, where mistakes harm only things and lifeless objects, *perhaps* an artisan may be called a tool.⁸ But a teacher has to deal in a loving and sympathetic manner with little children, each child requiring unique treatment. He must represent and transmit the civilisation and culture of the ages. He must himself be constantly growing and expanding. He is by no means a tool to be ordered to do this or that at the will of a master.

⁸ See: *Aristotle's Politics*, Eng. tr. by Benjamin Jowett, 31. *The Politics of Aristotle*, Eng. tr. by J. E. C. Weldon, 9.

If a principal, either by his manner or by his orders, treats a teacher as a tool, he will end by having the whole school on his hands if effective work is to be done. If continually ordered about, a teacher will probably do only what he is told to do. As a principal can not attend to everything in the classrooms, it is evident that the children must suffer. It is the teacher who can best deal with the children entrusted to his care. It is the teacher who by his daily contact with the child is to lead him to better things. Where a teacher is not allowed to exercise his own judgment in dealing with the individuals under his charge, where he is driven to satisfy some narrow private whim of the principal, instead of looking upon the children as living, animate beings, the teacher in turn will tend to regard them as tools, as instruments to turn out required work or percents regardless of individual capacity or interest.

§ III. RIGHTS OF THE TEACHER

1. **Meaning of a right.**⁹ — A right of one person over another implies a duty or an obligation of the other to act or to refrain from acting a certain way. It implies, moreover, that such action or forbearance should operate without pressure from the person holding the right. Infringement of the right gives a further right of complaint or of reparation or of compensation.

To emphasise the fact that a teacher has rights is not necessarily to approve combativeness nor to foster insubor-

⁹ On 'right,' see: Ritchie, David G., *Natural Rights*. Holland, Thomas Erskine, *The Elements of Jurisprudence*, Tenth edition, Chs. VII-VIII. Austin, John, *Lectures on Jurisprudence*, Fifth edition, Revised and edited by Robert Campbell, Lect. XII. Duprat, G. L., *Morals*, Eng. tr. by W. J. Greenstreet, Pt. III, Ch. IV.

dination. Where, however, rights are flagrantly violated, insistence upon them is but proper. A teacher is not a mass of inert matter to be roughly used or subjected to irresponsibility or vagary. Certain rights inhere in him as a human being apart from pedagogical considerations.

2. **Sanctions of rights.**¹⁰ — Right means little in effective practice unless there is something more or less substantial back of it, be such backing merely moral. The sanctions of any right may reside within the individual or outside of him in the social whole.

(a) *Utility.* — Should his actions be questioned, the teacher should show that they are of some use to the child. Where a teacher's right is influential in promoting the welfare of the child, it should be upheld on the strength of that alone.

(b) *Authority.* — Whether an act is right or not may in part be determined by what standard authorities say about the matter. Books on method, on theory, on the subject-matter under discussion may have to be searched.

(c) *Results.* — This sanction is one which can hardly be questioned. A method or device which, when put to the test, yields good results, can not fail to receive approval. So long as the children do effective work and so long as they are not harassed nor driven, there can be little question concerning the method.

(d) *Custom.* — In the matter of social rights appeal may be made to custom. When an individual becomes a teacher, he should be treated with the courtesy which is accorded to him outside of the school. On entering the school, the

¹⁰ On 'sanction,' see: Ritchie, D. G., *Nat. Rights*, Ch. V. Baldwin, J. M., *Soc. and Eth. Int.*, Pt. IV. Blackstone, William, *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, Bk. I, § II. Bentham, Jeremy, *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*, Ch. III.

teacher ought, in fact, to receive more respectful treatment than that which he usually gets outside. Custom, however, is a somewhat unsafe guide in the matter of pedagogical procedure.

(e) *Official regulation.* — Of legal and official sanctions there can be no question. They are usually definitely stated. They should be carefully studied that infringement can not so easily take place.

(f) *Social appeal.* — If through indifference or through a greater regard for his own ease a principal disregards legitimate sanctions, it might be well (1) to ask him to give his orders in writing that responsibility be placed, (2) to place the rights in question before the higher governing boards, or (3) to influence the parents to take action.

(g) *Illegitimate sanctions.* — Even to-day, with so-called merit systems, examination boards, and the like, the illegitimate sanction is most powerful. A friend in the governing body, a politician in one's club, a minister in one's church, a friend of a friend of some one in power, — these are too often relied upon to 'fix' matters. It is often a most perplexing thing for an honest teacher to decide whether he will depend upon his own efforts for right and justice, or whether, like the rest who are passing him in getting the good things of his profession, he, too, will make unto himself gods of gold.

3. Official rights. — A teacher usually works under definite instructions which tell the kind and quantity of work, the number of hours he is to teach, the rules which govern his relations with the principal, his absence, lateness, and the like. A teacher should carefully examine course of study, by-laws, etc., to see exactly where he stands.

In large systems ancient custom sometimes holds sway

and ignores completely the official regulations. Subjects in the official course of study are neglected, by-laws are openly violated, and at times the whim of the principal or teacher replaces definite official requirements. Even in such a case it is advisable that the teacher follow the official regulations, and where disapproved by the principal have him give his orders in writing.

4. **Rights of the material self.**—The teacher should have undisputed control over his own property. He should also receive all supplies which are necessary for his work, which can be legitimately obtained, and which are not so excessive as to deprive others of similar material. Such material should not be restricted to books, pens, ink, pencils, and paper, but should include for regular work, colored crayon, paint, brushes, palettes, cloth, clay, wood, knives, scissors, boards, apparatus, to name only a few. The teacher should know the supplies to be had and should then determine which are needed.

The teacher has the right of adequate protection of his materials, be such protection afforded by closet and desk room, or by careful guarding of such matter as may be left exposed, as pictures, statues, apparatus, and similar things.

A teacher's room should afford facilities for keeping the person generally in trim. Such rooms are usually provided, but they should not be used for other purposes, as for the storing of supplies, and the like.

5. **Rights of the spiritual self.**—The spiritual self consists of all those relations of thought and feeling which a man can call his. Rights inhering in the spiritual self are of a highly moral character, and where a teacher is sensitive and highly enthusiastic, such rights must be carefully respected.

(a) *Good name.*—To a conscientious teacher the right

to his good name is of great consequence. On no account should a principal go talking about the teachers or their classes to others, or even allow slurring remarks to be made by one teacher against the others. To criticise one teacher before another, or to pass remarks about one teacher's class in the presence of another class, or to criticise a class openly before a teacher or during a teacher's absence is a most cowardly thing to do. So, too, the constant bickering and faultfinding among the teachers themselves is unprofessional. As far as the principal is concerned, his official action and mark should guide any unofficial procedure.

To preserve the good name of the teacher and to enhance it, if possible, the principal should carefully study the following suggestions from Hobbes:¹¹

To praise, magnify, or call happy, is to honour; because nothing but goodness, power, and felicity is valued. To revile, mock, or pity, is to dishonour.

To speak to another with consideration, to appear before him with decency, and humility, is to honour him; as signs of fear to offend. To speak to him rashly, to do anything before him obscenely, slovenly, impudently, is to dishonour.

To believe, to trust, to rely on another, is to honour him; sign of opinion of his virtue and power. To distrust, or not believe, is to dishonour.

To hearken to a man's counsel, or discourse of what kind soever, is to honour; as a sign we think him wise, or eloquent, or witty. To sleep, or go forth, or talk the while, is to dishonour.

To do those things to another, which he takes for signs of honour or which the law or custom makes so, is to honour; because in approving the honour done by others, he acknowledgeth the power which others acknowledge. To refuse to do them, is to dishonour.

¹¹ Hobbes, Thomas, *Leviathan*, The English Works, Edited by William Molesworth, 3 : 77. Hobbes, Thomas, *Leviathan*, Edited by A. R. Waller, Cambridge English Classics, Ch. X.

To agree with in opinion, is to honour; as being a sign of approving his judgment and wisdom. To dissent is to dishonour, and an upbraiding of error; and, if the dissent be in many things, of folly.

To imitate, is to honour; for it is vehemently to approve. To imitate one's enemy is to dishonour.

To honour those another honours, is to honour him; as a sign of approbation of his judgment. To honour his enemies is to dishonour him.

To employ in counsel, or in actions of difficulty, is to honour; as a sign of opinion of his wisdom or other power. To deny employment in the same cases, to those that seek it, is to dishonour.

(b) *Free speech and action.* — A teacher should not hesitate to go to the principal and state to him actual conditions as they exist. It is advisable, however, to restrict expression in such cases to conditions affecting either the teacher personally or the school as a whole. Free though respectful speech is also advisable where a difference of opinion exists between the principal and the teacher. As regards his actions, a teacher has the right to do anything after regular school sessions which is not connected with school work or class duties, and which is not in conflict with them. In the school and during school hours freedom of speech and action is conditioned by educational needs.

(c) *Cooperation from the principal.* — The teacher can expect the principal to aid him indirectly even when specific cases for help do not arise. Too often the principal will consider that he is doing his full share when he aids the teacher at critical moments. In addition, the teacher should look to the principal for suggestions on method, study, references, and the like.

(d) *Official privileges.* — Whatever privileges are allowed to the teacher by official regulation should not be set aside at the whim of the principal. If visitation of other schools

is allowed, the teacher should take advantage of it and should insist on his right in this connection.

6. **Rights of the social self.** — A teacher should not consider that he gives up his manhood when he becomes a teacher. The courtesy which he receives outside of the school he has a right to expect when in the school.

(a) *Personal consideration.* — As principal the head of a school is superior to the teacher, but as gentlemen, man and man, they are equal. A principal is a knave who will use means given to him to judge pedagogical fitness for the purpose of browbeating a teacher.

(b) *Social recognition.* — The teacher should expect the principal to keep in touch with himself and his work even when pedagogical matters are not in question. The teacher should receive recognition of his work other than the cold and abstract 'satisfactory' or 'meritorious' given annually.

(c) *Free discussion.* — In grade or other conferences free discussion is a right which should not be denied. Where the numbers will not permit, grade conferences will deal with numbers small enough to allow of free discussion. Of those present, the principal, if efficient, will probably say the least.

(d) *Free association.* — Closely allied to the right of free discussion is the right of free association with other teachers in a school for purposes of social and educational improvement. A small room (the library, for example) for purposes of meeting and entertainment, facilities for luncheon, and freedom from janitorial or other interference, would be a boon to the too isolated and partisan groups of teachers as they usually exist. Moreover, the department as a whole, principal and teachers, ought to go and see standard plays, visit places of historic interest, give receptions to parents, and the like.

§ IV. DUTIES OF THE TEACHER

1. **Meaning of duty.**¹²—Duty is something which a person ought to do, something which he is impelled to do as right, either because of external pressure or internal impulsion. Upon deliberation over an action there is often a vague feeling of unrest, disturbance, dissatisfaction, either if the right thing is to be left undone or if some course of action felt as not right is to be taken. Where external compulsion has been crystallised in the form of law, the ‘ought’ is supplemented by the ‘must.’ In the free agent the two usually not only coincide, but the ‘ought’ also goes far beyond and ahead of the ‘must.’

Ethical action¹² is possible only where the following elements are present. There must be (1) a situation in which action is possible, (2) inner impulsion, (3) an end judged as right, and (4) a properly coordinated means bridging the gap between the present and the end judged as right. The highest ethical action is not possible where the teacher is simply an instrument or tool, where he is not conversant with human action past and present, where aims of a highly developed character do not exist, where, in short, self-activity is not present.

2. **Sanctions of duties.**—The teacher should, if possible, do things because he feels he ought to do them, because they are for him good and right. And such good and right

¹² On ‘duty,’ see : Kant’s *Critique of Practical Reason*, Eng. tr. by Thomas Kingsmill Abbott. Green, Thomas Hill, *Prolegomena to Ethics*, Bk. III. Paulsen, Friedrich, *A System of Ethics*, Eng. tr. by Frank Thilly, Bk. III. Aristotle, *The Nicomachean Ethics*, Eng. tr. by J. E. C. Weldon, Bk. III, Ch. IV. Stephen, Leslie, *The Science of Ethics*, Ch. IV, and others.

¹³ See Mackenzie, John S., *A Manual of Ethics*, Fourth edition, Bk. III, Ch. VII, § 2.

should also be good and right when the welfare of the children is taken into consideration. This individual sanction, however, is strongly bolstered up by the sanctions of *utility, authority, results, custom, official regulation, social approval*, and the other sanctions discussed in connection with rights.

3. Official duties. — Official regulations are usually more or less explicit on the question of the teacher's rights and duties. They should be carefully studied by the teacher when he enters the profession, and should be referred to from time to time.

4. Duties to the principal. — The teacher should remember that the principal is the head of the school and that responsibility in the end falls upon his shoulders. The teacher should, therefore, carefully consider the following duties:

(a) *Implicit obedience.* — All instructions, when given by the principal, should be rigidly followed. They may be wrong. They may harm the children. They may be against high ethical standards. But they should be followed. The moment a principal delivers his instructions he becomes responsible for whatever happens when they are carried out. Remonstrance and protest are allowable. But so long as the instructions hold, they should be followed.

(b) *Cooperation with the principal.* — The teacher should work for the good of the school, to increase the prestige and power of the principal, and so, by reflection, the prestige and power of himself. No teacher should be satisfied to sit within four bare walls, teach, and get out promptly when the day's work is done. Athletics, school and class decoration, games, excursions, stereopticon lectures, musical rehearsals, clubs, — these and other activities tend to

enhance the good name of the school. A teacher need not take up too much of such work, but he should do his share of it.

(c) *Personal consideration.* — As the teacher should expect courteous treatment from the principal, so he should give it in return. He should read carefully the directions given by Hobbes and quoted in a preceding section.

(d) *Toleration.* — A duty strongly to be emphasised, especially in the case of a young teacher, is the duty of toleration. Before forming hasty judgments or performing rash actions, a teacher should consider a number of things. In the first place, a principal is human and liable to error. The question is not so much whether he is wrong, as whether the majority of his actions are wrong. In the second place, the principal has to deal with a number of teachers, and has to adjust relations between these teachers, his superiors, and the parents of the children. Allowances should also be made for differences in age, temperament, and for possible disturbances, as indigestion, pressure from outside sources, and the like. Before taking any action at a supposed wrong, the teacher should wait a few days and calmly think the matter over. He will then be in a position to discuss the matter with the principal. Toleration, however, should not become a virtue.

(e) *Honesty.* — Honesty in carrying out instructions, correctness in reports, exactness in accounts of supplies, material, attendance, etc., should become almost automatic with the teacher. This point needs only to be mentioned.

5. **Duties to himself.** — Some consideration should be given by the teacher to such duties as concern himself.

(a) *To the material self.* — There should be a strict account kept by the teacher of his supplies, books, etc.

These should also be properly cared for and preserved. The teacher, moreover, should procure as much material as he legitimately can by appealing to the boys, by writing to manufacturers and business men, and by lending a helping hand himself. From the narrow confines of his room he will find his personality on the material side expand to the four sides of the room and even beyond.

(b) *To the spiritual self.* — The teacher owes it to his spiritual self to improve and enlarge his aims, refine and make more accurate his means, and to improve his outlook by increased knowledge and more refined practice. The following are desirable for this purpose, (1) a study of psychology, physiology, ethics, sociology, economics, and some readable history of education with the educators in the original, (2) close acquaintance with present-day politics, sociology, and economics, (3) attendance at university courses, (4) access to swimming tank, open-air court for games, roads in the suburbs for walking, gymnasium, etc., (5) reading of the classics of all nations, including typical novels, successful plays, and masterpieces of poetry, (6) travel through neighboring cities, and visitation of public buildings, parks, and other schools, and for the more specific classroom practice, (7) knowledge of hygiene, ventilation, and school and class management, (8) use of books on general and special methods, (9) reference to standard works (not the usual classroom compilations) on the subjects to be taught, (10) practical use of tools, paint-brush, and manipulation of material in one or more of the arts, carpentry, iron-working, or what not, (11) comparison of results with other teachers in and out of the school, (12) companionship with children, and (13) whatever may appeal to the interest of the teacher.

All these activities should not be attempted at once.

But a little each day out of two or three a week will accomplish wonders. The cry against overwork is somewhat too loud. The teacher usually works too hard, but accomplishes too little. And the resulting waste is due chiefly to the fact that he does not substitute knowledge and skill for more bungling methods.

(c) *To the social self.* — The teacher should keep in touch with his colleagues after school by means of clubs, associations, meetings, excursions, and personal visits. He should keep in touch with other interests, as the church, business, the theatre, to name only a few.

Companionship with the children of the school is a desideratum. This will do much to soften his character and give him some insight into childish needs and troubles.

CHAPTER II

THE PRINCIPAL

§ I. SOME MISCONCEPTIONS

1. **The principal not a military commander.** — The organisation of a school, with its classes of children, the teachers at the head of the classes, and the principal at the head of the teachers, may lead one to compare it with military management. The spirit underlying the one, however, is far different from that permeating the other. The military spirit is well expressed by the words of the centurion of Capernaum, "For I am a man under authority: and I say to this man, Go, and he goeth; and to another, Come, and he cometh; and to my servant, Do this, and he doeth it."

But military management of a school has a dehumanising effect on both teachers and children. Teachers accustomed to orders gradually lose self-initiative and fall into routine and mechanical methods of procedure. Children are massed and handled like battalions, they are formed into so-called classes according to the bases of size of the classroom and numbers, and the weary and overdriven fall by the wayside. Those who had least need of education, those of greatest general ability remain, while the children who would have been most benefited are forced into the streets. The military conception leads to a disregard of the individual who may not be able to keep in line with the others.

2. **The principal not a business director.** — A man at

the head of a business has the power of employment, advancement, and discharge. He issues orders, tabulates receipts, buys and sells merchandise, and need not in any way enter closely into the feelings and ambitions of those beneath him.

The principal should not attempt to be thus business-like with the teachers. Business methods belong to the material side of the school, but should be kept out of the more humane and social relations which exist between the teachers and the principal. Teachers need guidance, but simply ordering this or dictatorially requiring that, is not guidance nor cooperation. Mere telling may be effective with an errand boy in sending him on a message, but is often little short of useless when the more delicate social and pedagogical relations between the principal and the teacher are concerned. The teacher should not be left entirely to his own devices, but he should not feel driven nor be a target for the principal's displeasure.

An employee who is the subject of his superior's anger may without much harm pound the counter a little harder, cast the goods about with violence, and allow his emotion to wear itself against inanimate things. The teacher, if mechanically driven, will probably tend to react in a similar manner. If, however, he drives the children, it can result only in harm to them. Business may be pushed by strenuous methods, but the development of the child can not be forced.

3. The principal not an enlarged teacher. — When a principal assumes charge of a school, he must not consider that he is passing to a class of larger pupils. Teachers are adults, their characters are more or less formed, they have feelings and desires of their own, and whether they are right or wrong in their actions, they are entitled to

consideration and respect. The teacher usually does not protest against the work required so much as against the manner in which the requests are delivered. The principal, no doubt, can secure a certain amount of work by holding over the teacher's head the lash of an unsatisfactory mark, but none the less he usually fails to get effective obedience or true respect.

4. **The principal a cooperating agent.** — The principal does not own the school, he does not pay salaries out of his own pocket, and he is responsible to higher authorities. In dealing with teachers he is dealing with grown people capable of responsibility, and having aims, feelings, desires, rights, duties, and a certain amount of self-activity and personality. While his relations with the teachers are official, they are at the same time human relations. Moreover, he is not dealing with teachers alone, but with teachers who are working with sensitive, delicate (as mental and not necessarily as physical) children. Any mismanagement will affect not alone the teachers but through them hundreds of children. A mere cross word from the principal may set a class askew for the day, or if a teacher's personality is affected, for the whole term.

Words used by Lieber ¹ in his account of government, illustrate the spirit which should animate the principal:

Self-government is founded on the willingness of the people to take care of their own affairs, and the absence of that disposition which looks to the general government for everything, as well as on the willingness of each to let others take care of their own affairs. It cannot exist where the general spirit of interference prevails, that is, the general disposition in the executive and administration, to do all it possibly can do, and to substitute its action for individual or

¹ Lieber, Francis, *On Civil Liberty and Self-Government*, 253. Compare Aristotle, *Politics*, Bk. I, Ch. V-VII, Eng. tr. by Jowett or Welldon.

minor activity and for self-reliance. Self-government is the corollary of liberty. . . .

The common action of government in this system is not origina-tive, but regulative and moderative, or conciliative and adjusting. . . . It does not create nor tolerate a vast hierarchy of officers, forming a class of mandarins for themselves, and acting as though they formed and were the state, and the people only the substratum on which the state is founded.

From this standpoint the principal should consider the teacher, (1) as a self-active agent with a will and desires of his own, (2) as an individual working for and with the children in his charge, and (3) as a member of a school carrying out a more or less definite humanitarian aim. He must respect the teacher's individuality and yet guide his self-activity; he must not only allow self-government, but he must also direct it, and in some cases even develop it in the individual who is to be self-governed. He can not, with efficiency, sit, command, and issue orders; personal vituperation is of little use; gathering examination marks ends in mechanical driving; standing on one's dignity is useless and ridiculous. The principal must cooperate with the teachers, aid them, correct their faults, elevate their aims, and do this without disturbing the delicate web of human contact and sympathy which are so necessary for effective work. He must take them as he finds them. He can not get rid of them, discharge them, or otherwise replace them. He should not crush initiative out of the teachers and then point to them as inefficient.

§ II. SELF-ACTIVITY OF THE PRINCIPAL

1. **The aim or moving reason.** — The aim of the principal is somewhat more complex than that of the teacher. The teacher's aim in general deals with the child as he

desires him to be. With this the aim of the principal coincides. It includes in addition, (1) a future view of the improved teacher, (2) his relatively present relations with the children under him, (3) the realisation of his various means, (4) his cooperation with the other members of the department, and (5) the unification of the whole, pointing to ethical and social standards set for the entire school.

The aim of the principal must take into consideration the child, not alone, but in his struggle to a higher development under the teacher's guidance. This pupil-teacher relationship requires meditation on means of improving the aims and means of the teacher, of securing the most ethically and socially effective work. Cooperation with all the teachers requires consideration of how to harmonise various aims at least numerically different, provide for means individually fit and proper, and preserve humane relations at the same time.

2. The means. — The principal may have the highest of aims and the best of intentions, but these can not reach realisation without proper means. On the ideal side his means will be worked out in much the same way as are those of the teacher. On the practical side, the means at his disposal are (1) the teacher, (2) the school building, and (3) the material placed at his disposal.

Before taking action towards the realisation of his ideal means, it would behoove a principal to sit down and think out a series of means adapted to the situation in question. What action he himself should take, how best to approach the teacher, what aid to give, in what manner to give it, what the point is at issue, — these and other questions should carefully be thought over.

3. The emotional impulse or impelling feeling. — The principal should not let any personal feelings move him

in his pedagogical deliberations or in his cooperation with the teachers. There is occasionally the danger that a principal will use authority given to him for educational purposes to lash a teacher for reasons which are purely personal. The good of the child and sympathy with his efforts should move the principal just as it should actuate the teacher in his work.

For a healthy, humane system of emotions a good physical basis is necessary. This implies regular hours, moderation in eating and drinking, and sufficient exercise to preserve a good body tone. Erratic and irresponsible behavior will thus be kept at a minimum.

3. Immanence of the aim, means, and impelling feeling in the individual. — If a principal has an aim, feels justified in carrying it out by rational and legitimate means, he can establish a policy which is his and which need not change at each change in the governing bodies or with each gust of popular opinion. A policy which is well founded may be modified, and a principal open to new ideas will progress and develop along the proper educational lines. But when a principal has no well-based aims he is usually as fickle as the weather-vane. Each little breeze sets him into commotion, orders are countermanded, and confused teachers are compelled to change schedules, emphasise different subjects or omit some altogether, and make a number of changes which require considerable energy but which do little good.

A principal should be consistent and honest in his treatment of the children, the teachers, the parents, and his superiors. He should not tell the teachers one thing, the parents another, and superior officials a third. Now a principal is wrong, is in fact a knave, who *sub rosa* tells a teacher to do one thing and expects him to do something

else when the superintendent is in the building. Whether instructions are given confidentially, in public conference, or in writing, they should be approximately the same.

§ III. INDIVIDUALITY OF THE PRINCIPAL

1. **The self.** — The self of the principal may be considered under the three aspects considered in the preceding chapter, (1) the material, (2) the spiritual, and (3) the social.

(a) *Material self.* — On its material side the self of the principal consists of the school building, the school fixtures, the books, supplies, and all the material in his charge. As a self-active agent, whatever he does to bring order and economy into the management of his material and supplies will tend to knit his material self more closely to him, will force the regard of others for his school and for himself.

(b) *Spiritual self.* — The principal should keep in touch with progress in all fields of knowledge specially connected with education. Wide reading and deep study are necessary in ethics, logic, psychology, physiology, sociology, economics, and jurisprudence. Continual reference to handbooks on method, critical research into the newest educational returns, examination of procedure in other schools, will enable the principal more easily to direct practical pedagogical procedure. A knowledge of the masterpieces of prose and poetry will tend to deepen and soften the emotional nature. Standard books on the regular school subjects should always be within reach.

(c) *Social self.* — To preserve sweet within him the milk of human kindness, the principal should allow his social self to expand within the school and outside of it.

The church, the university, social clubs, associations, will afford elevating means. Informal conferences and discussions with the teachers, kindly help, recognition of services rendered, consideration for the feelings of the teachers will also tend to broaden and expand the social self of the principal.

Backing the other elements of the self, and giving tone and color to the whole is the physical substratum. When a principal feels out of sorts, he should reserve his judgments, inhibit his action, wait till his body is in a normal condition. An attack of indigestion may cause his best teacher to seem like a tyro, a lack of sleep may make his school seem a failure, a headache may result in outbursts which will tear the whole social fabric.

2. **Personality.** — Radiation of the various aspects of the self is necessary before an effective personality can be said to exist. Lack of confidence on the part of the teachers, absence of sympathy and human feeling on the part of the principal, will cause his personality to shrink to that of a mere figurehead.

Mechanical aids are necessary to facilitate the making of the various points of contact necessary for the existence of a controlling personality. Means of approach, systematic distribution of material, prompt reply to or treatment of difficulties presented or questions asked, an honorable consistency in word and action contribute greatly to the formation of an effective personality.

§ IV. RIGHTS OF THE PRINCIPAL

1. **Official rights.** — The official rights of the principal are usually definitely stated. Careful study of these is necessary by the principal, that he may establish his posi-

tion clearly and distinctly. He should not confuse school custom with such rights, nor should he manufacture such rights to suit his own purpose.

2. **Rights of the material self.** — The principal should expect economy in the use of supplies, tabulation of material needed and received, adequate protection of apparatus, pictures, etc., careful supervision of books by the teacher, and the like. A text-book uncovered and used by the pupil as a traveling case for loose papers and pencils, a book slovenly kept, a book marked or interlined, with pages torn and corners bent, reflects as much on the personality of the principal as it does on the character of the teacher.

3. **Rights of the spiritual self.** — The rights of the principal in this connection are much the same as the duties of the teacher to the principal. Brief mention, therefore, is all that is necessary.

(a) *Implicit obedience.* — Careful and conscientious carrying out of orders and requests by the teacher is a right inhering in the very nature of the principal's spiritual self. This demands obedience in both letter and spirit. It also implies an active cooperation on the part of the teacher in all school activities.

(b) *Personal consideration.* — In all his dealings with the principal, the teacher should show him respect in attitude, word, and action. The instructions quoted from Hobbes in the preceding chapter apply to the teacher as well as to the principal.

(c) *Good name.* — Where a principal is working might and main to improve the work of the teachers, they should not do anything to injure his good name or his reputation. Small faults in the principal should be overlooked.

(d) *Free discussion.* — The principal can expect the teachers to come freely to him and suggest improvements,

offer means of simplifying work, of economising in the use of material, etc. Such information, however, should be restricted to the teacher's own class and work, or to purely impersonal matters connected with the school as a whole.

4. Rights of the social self. — The principal usually looks to his superiors for social and other rights. A few, however, emanate from the principal-teacher relation.

(a) *Free association.* — Teachers should not form partisan groups which discuss petty grievances unknown to the principal. He should be looked upon as a colleague, a friend, and companion. By means of free social intercourse the principal will better be able to see the cloud when it is no bigger than a man's hand, and can then avoid any possible storms.

(b) *Social recognition.* — When a principal exerts himself to aid the teachers, it should not be taken as an official function, as something which he ought to do as a matter of course. The principal is human, and needs social recognition just as much as does the teacher. As he lives with the teachers in the school during school hours, the social background of response is naturally the corps of teachers. Appreciation can be shown by a more friendly attitude, by a greater willingness to cooperate, and by increased effort in class work.

5. Sanctions of rights. — The sanctions of rights have been discussed in the preceding chapter. A caution need only be added. The dictatorial position of the principal, his relative freedom from criticism, the deference paid to him by parents and pupils, — all tend to confirm him in the opinion that an action is right because it is his. Personal dignity, ease, comfort, wounded feelings, personal bias should not be allowed to cloud the ethical or the pedagogical judgment.

§ V. DUTIES OF THE PRINCIPAL

1. **Official duties.** — A careful study of all printed or written instructions should be made by the principal, so that he will not unduly extend his authority. It would be well if he clearly defines his official rights to the teachers, for he will then be able to throw the onus of many an order on the higher governing bodies. Neither the ancient practices of the school nor any whim of his own should come between himself and his official duties.

2. **Duties to the teacher.** — Certain duties to the teacher should be enforced by the principal.

(a) *To the material self.* — Distribution of supplies, books, etc., should show no favor to service, age, or beauty. All teachers, good, bad, or indifferent, efficient or inefficient, should receive the same consideration in this connection. The principal should look solely to the needs of the classes, and should not use material to soothe an obstreperous teacher, or to reward a favorite. If any one is to be favored, it is the quiet, efficient worker who does his work, saying little and requiring a minimum. Adequate protection for material should be given.

(b) *To the spiritual self.* — The principal should encourage and approve outside study. Not only the regular pedagogical conference, but meetings in the nature of seminars could be held. At times the principal might sit with the teachers and listen to some presentation given by a teacher. Reading-room, books, and proper facilities should be placed at the disposal of the teachers.

(c) *To the social self.* — Officially a principal may do everything fit and proper, and still be a failure. Courteous and humane treatment should be accorded all the teachers, whether they are handsome, ugly, efficient, inefficient,

liked, or disliked. And by courtesy I do not mean the conventional courtesy usually shown by friendly waiters, but that expanding *Mitgefühl*, that touch of nature which stamps the principal who shows it as a man to be trusted. Gossip behind a teacher's back, slurring remarks, insinuations, or even scornful glances or sneers are entirely out of place.

The principal should actively search out good work done by the teacher, and give it the stamp of his approval. Often a teacher will hesitate to parade his work, and will let it go unnoticed.

Free and open discussion should be allowed at all times. Where right is on the side of the principal, free discussion can not do him any harm. If, of course, a principal would rather hold his position and prestige through the ignorance of those below him then from this point of view, free discussion should not be allowed.

In all his dealings with the teachers, the principal should show a wide toleration and a beneficent consistency in word and deed. Social groups of teachers should not be looked upon with suspicion. Slight errors of individual teachers should be overlooked, especially if the work on the average is good. A principal should not take one mistake which may have offended him and hold it over the teacher's head all term. Differences of a personal nature should have no influence on his official actions. A teacher has difficulties enough to contend with in managing a class of from thirty to seventy children, and actions not quite in accordance with the principal's views can be expected from every teacher. Where the good of the child is at stake, where it is a question of minor official procedure, mistakes should be overlooked.

In his instructions to the teachers in writing, at confer-

ence, orally, or in the office, the principal should be consistent. In some cases a principal will keep sets of instructions, etc., which have been signed by the teachers and which are most humane and modern. These are shown to superintendents, visitors, and like persons. But side by side with such written orders may be given oral directions which, if put in writing, would condemn the principal as inefficient or even criminal. The principal should on this account not hesitate to put any of his instructions in writing. Nor should a principal be inconsistent and, in fact, dishonest by implication. Examinations in the so-called essentials and a disregard of the 'non-essentials,' for example, is simply an indirect means of instructing teachers to neglect certain parts of the course of study.

Justice is a difficult thing to procure, but an approximation to it is possible. Careful study of the official requirements, impartial weighing of evidence, careful collection of such evidence, disregard for any personal feeling or emotional bias are necessary. Teachers should exist for the principal as human, cooperative agents of a certain efficiency, and this efficiency should always have in view the good of the child.

3. Duties to himself. — (a) *To the material self.* — The school, the fixtures, the material and supplies all should be looked upon by the principal as a part of himself. He ought to care for the material elements of his school self, as much as he does for the material constituents of the home self, for example. If he carefully looks after the school fixtures and materials, shows that he takes some interest in them, investigates just as closely when his school dictionary is torn as when his home book is mishandled, the various materials will be looked upon as a part of his material self, and will be respected as such.

(b) *To the spiritual self.* — A principal should not rest from his labors when he assumes his new duties, but he should continue his efforts at self-improvement. He should not be satisfied to live on the resurrected pieces of his bygone knowledge or on the smattering he gets from superintendent's conferences. By study, investigation, travel, visitation, experiment, he should interpret what is best for the children in his charge, what is most fit to improve and aid the teachers under him.

Not only spiritually, but physically, a principal should keep himself in good condition. He need not be an athlete. But exercise of some sort, if it be only a vigorous daily walk or participation in some outdoor game, should be taken. In matters of drinking and smoking, these practices should not be indulged in within the school limits. A principal owes it to himself, and so to the school, to preserve a certain physical vitality which will temper his judgments with sanity and prevent eccentricity or emotional outbursts.

(c) *To the social self.* — As one of the approving agents of the school, the principal should keep in touch with present social, economic, and political conditions. Unless he has a broad basis to enable him to interpret clearly and appreciate rightly, his decisions will become narrow and partisan. Association with his colleagues in clubs, gatherings, the university, social contact with different classes of men in other fields, participation to some extent in the activities of the children, — these will help to preserve in him humanity, to prevent crustiness, and to keep off the barren conventionalism of official routine.

In all school work the point to be kept in view as far as the teacher-principal relations are concerned, is that the teacher has rights as well as duties, that a principal

has duties as well as rights, that a humanitarian and social basis is necessary for effective work, and that there is necessary at all times humane interpretation and sane appreciation of the different aspects of school work. How the principal shall make his aims effective in practice, what means he shall take to influence the teachers, what shall be the method of procedure both to aid and improve the teachers, and at the same time to preserve their efficiency as self-active agents, — these points will be taken up in the following chapters.

CHAPTER III

COOPERATION BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER: INSTRUCTION

§ I. COOPERATION

1. **Meaning of cooperation.** — Where a common end is striven for by two or more self-active agents, where mutual aid is rendered, where each individual functions as he should and does his share for the realisation of an aim, we have cooperation. Giddings¹ gives an excellent account of the matter:

This word stands for many kinds of mutual aid; and from one point of view nearly every kind of activity in human society is a form of cooperation. . . . This view might successfully be maintained if it could be shown that cooperation is coextensive with like response to the same stimulus. If it is only one mode or development of like response, it is not the primary social fact.

The fact, then, is that not all like response can be described as cooperation. Like response may result in nothing useful or even tangible. It may end in an aimless activity or in mere uproar and confusion. It is cooperation only if the like activities of the similarly responding individuals are by some means coordinated and brought to bear upon some particular work or task which is necessary or useful, or which at any rate is supposed to be useful. . . .

Conscious cooperation presupposes (1) a common interest in a common object or end, which, as we have seen, is a like responsiveness to the same stimulus; (2) a perception by each that all are responding in like ways to the same stimulus, and this perception is a consciousness of kind; (3) communication, one motive of which is the consciousness of kind; (4) some degree of confidence in one another, which presupposes a consciousness of kind.

¹ Giddings, Franklin Henry, *Inductive Sociology*, 112-113.

The relation of cooperation, it is easily seen, is a mutual one. It implies aid from the principal to the teacher, but it implies equally well aid to the principal from the teacher.

2. **Kinds of cooperation.** — Cooperation may be (1) simple and direct, (2) indirect, or (3) complex.²

(a) *Direct cooperation.* — In simple cooperation each member of the school works on a common end, and does the same work towards realisation. This is the case when the teachers are working at the same thing, as the adding of figures in reports or the distribution of books, for example.

(b) *Indirect cooperation.* — When teachers do each a different thing for some common end, we have indirect cooperation. Thus, the principal may see visitors, direct the assembly, and the like, the clerk may prepare reports, and the teachers may be doing the class work. All such activities are kept separate, though all are necessary in the control of a school.

(c) *Complex cooperation.* — A combination and closer integration of the two forms of simple cooperation give rise to complex cooperation. In this case each individual does his own work, but such work is related, and the work of one influences directly and immediately the work of the other. Thus, when a principal gives a model lesson, he works in the domain of the teacher, and influences the work in such domain. At the same time the teacher does work which is in part guided by the work of the principal.

3. **Bases of cooperation.** — Unflinching honesty, even justice, rigid consistency are necessary for effective cooperation between teacher and principal. As regards honesty, it might be well for the principal to note in a

² See Giddings, F. H., *Ind. Soc.*, 116.

book promises made by him or work done, for failure of memory is often looked upon as intention to deceive. Principal and teacher should know the honest 'Why' and 'Wherefore' of the other's actions. It is better to have full explanations at once, if necessary, than the private understanding later which stamps one or the other as a hypocrite and a knave.

Uniform consistency is a desideratum. The injunction, 'Do right though the Heavens fall,' should be followed at all times, with all people, on all occasions. Whatever be the policy of the principal, he should follow it in his actual school work, in his conferences, before visitors, and in the presence of superintendents. The superintendent is usually liberal enough to give the principal freedom to carry out his own ideas, and attempts to throw responsibility on higher officials is sometimes a convenient way to cover one's own defects.

Under no condition should a principal play upon the feelings of the teacher for the purpose of using him as a tool for private ends. By flattery, by presenting misleading aims, by equivocation, a principal may induce a teacher to do various kinds of work. The petty shifts with which a principal at times will try to influence a teacher's actions call to mind the protest of Hamlet: "Why, look you now, how unworthy a thing you make of me! You would play upon me; you would seem to know my stops; you would pluck out the heart of my mystery; you would sound me from my lowest note to the top of my compass: and there is much music, excellent voice, in this little organ; yet cannot you make it speak. 'Sblood, do you think I am easier to be played on than a pipe? Call me what instrument you will, though you fret me, yet you cannot play upon me."

Faith, trust, confidence, courtesy, and sympathy have in them the implication of an already existing group of individuals. Such individuals, moreover, are not inanimate units, but living beings with feelings, desires, and aims of their own. Each individual has within him certain tendencies, innate and acquired, which strive to realise themselves. Now it may be laid down as a hard and fast rule that any attempts to turn such tendencies, or arbitrarily and suddenly to block them, will cause confusion, dissatisfaction, internal burning, and antipathy to the interfering person. This will at once tend to prevent effective cooperation. A principal who will blindly insist on having something done his way, on receiving passive, unintelligent obedience, on getting rigid, clockwork performance of work, will not get effective cooperation from the teachers.

A principal should always keep this fact in mind. In the last analysis his only foundation is the corps of teachers under his control. If he injures or destroys his foundation, on what can he build? It is useless to say one can not build upon sand. The teacher is human, is as intelligent as the average person, obeys unconsciously the same laws regarding the facilitating or arresting of desires, is not wooden, is, in fact, very human and very like other human beings. The teacher might well cry with Shylock, "If you prick us, do we not bleed? if you tickle us, do we not laugh? if you poison us, do we not die? and if you wrong us, shall we not revenge?"

§ II. GENERAL MEANS OF COOPERATION

1. **Situation or institution in instruction.** — If cooperation in instruction is to be effective, then actual instruc-

tion in the classroom is the matter to be influenced. Instruction means activity of pupils and teacher upon a third object. It implies the imparting of facts. It necessitates self-activity of the pupils under guidance. Neither principal nor teacher should lose sight of this point of view, and be led astray by the manufacture of plan-books, by results in narrow examinations, by exhibitions of show work, though these may be necessary for effective instruction.

The nature and limitations of the situation should be well understood. Under restricted conditions, cooperation can effect only so much and no more. Large classes, inadequate supplies, age of the pupils, home training, etc., will admit of only certain results. The principal can do what he will, and the teacher can worry to the verge of prostration without effecting better results. Cooperation is thus limited by the existing conditions.

2. Community of aim. — If the principal has any purpose in mind, if he is required to judge teachers according to fixed standards, if he wishes to realise special aims, it is only fair that the teachers know in what direction he is trying to lead them. Many teachers never have a clear idea of what is required of them. In fact, a few principals will be found who have no aims of their own, or who, in fact, may have aims which vary each month or so. If there is to be harmony and effective cooperation in a school, both teachers and principal should have a clear and distinct idea of the common end which they are striving to realise.

Principal and teachers usually start with aims more or less similar. They both deal with children. They both are concerned with instruction. The material given is approximately the same for all. Differences will be found

in the further refinement and amplification of these aims, and in the realisation of the means. It becomes the duty of the principal to harmonise such differences and to establish aims more or less common.

3. **Imitation by the teacher.** — The two preceding sections have dealt with more or less static means of co-operation, one, material, the other, spiritual. The dynamic means now require some consideration, one, the process of imitation within the teacher, the other, the action of the principal in responding to the teacher's action.

Imitation is simply the sensorimotor aspect of an idea, image, or ideal representation of any kind.³ An individual's actions are limited by his knowledge and his previous experience. He can not do anything more than he knows. Whether his knowledge consists in what he sees, what he reads, what he hears, or what he has remembered or thought out, such knowledge is the only knowledge which can guide his action. His conduct as automatic or as consciously guided by ideas, or by the meaning implicit in a present situation, is all that he is capable of. This holds for the teacher as well as for every one else.

An individual acquires the knowledge which guides him by imitating either the actions of others or by repeating actions which he has seen or has initiated for himself. The mere perception of an act will induce a tendency to imitate it, and repeated observation of the act will almost insure imitation of it. We tend to talk like our neighbors, eat what they eat, dress as they do, and think in a similar manner. Each individual gives his imitation a touch which stamps it as his own. But the broad basis of it he

³ See: Baldwin, J. M., *Men. Dev.*, Pt. III. Thomas, P.-Felix, *La Suggestion, Son Rôle dans L'Education*. Sidis, Boris, *The Psychology of Suggestion*.

simply copies. "He aims, it is true," as Baldwin says,⁴ "not at anything new; he aims at the thing the copy sets for him to imitate. But what he does differs from this and anything he has ever done before. . . . The outcome—that is new. . . . He has a new thing to contemplate, and he is withal a new person to contemplate it. The plane of his being and contemplation is now a grade higher." If an individual can act only in accordance with his present knowledge, only in accordance with the copies which have been set before him at various times, it is seen how important are imitation and suggestion in guiding and developing the self-activity of the teacher in instruction.

Now a school with its members is a very close society. The teacher is under the same roof with the principal almost half of his waking hours. His conduct, his speech, his manner, his method of teaching can not fail to be influenced by those of the principal. If the principal wishes to establish a certain line of conduct, as far as imitation and suggestion are involved, he must (1) conduct himself consistently and repeatedly in the required way, *i.e.*, he must set a copy a sufficient number of times and (2) he must make his copy effective by bringing it into human contact with the teacher.

The best copy is actual work in the classroom of the kind which the principal wishes imitated. After this in efficiency is action outside of the classroom. Then come the various representations, suggestions, requests, instructions, warnings, which may be sufficiently well understood, but which can not always be depended upon to guide or produce the required action. Copies may be unconsciously produced by the teacher himself, and should he not imitate them, the principal should seek to induce such imitation.

⁴ Baldwin, J. M., *Soc. and Eth. Ini.*, § 65.

4. **Selection by the principal.**— By setting a copy a number of times the principal can be fairly certain that the process of imitation will run its natural course. But he has another powerful means of selecting any particular imitation in favor of others. He has at his disposal the instrument of approval.

The social nature of the individual demands a return wave of recognition, and he will seek it from others if he does not get it from the principal. The knots of teachers sometimes found in the halls or in the classrooms are due to this craving for social recognition. Because of the superior position of the principal, his recognition will have greater weight. He should not be satisfied to approve only the gross and manifest acts of the teacher but he should search out the more refined and hidden classroom methods by which the teacher is striving towards perfection in teaching.

Approval must be based on a thorough knowledge of the subject-matter, of method, of cultural studies, and of present-day conditions. Approval in many instances is motivated by aims which are pedestrian and narrow, and which have worth nowhere else outside of the classroom. Custom may grow up within a school, giving rigidity to aims which are artificial and absurd.

§ III. SPECIAL MEANS OF COOPERATION

1. **Personal aid.**— The best copy which a principal can set before a teacher is an actual lesson or a series of lessons. The subject which the principal should use in his lesson is not the one he knows the most about, but the one which the teacher knows the least about. When a principal gives model lessons in but one or two subjects, the teacher may suspect that he knows no more.

After a principal has decided that the teacher really needs the example of his teaching, he should carefully prepare the lesson, arrange notes, and do exactly what he wishes the teacher to do. The model lesson should be so prepared as to show correctly certain incorrect aspects of lessons on the subject taught by the teacher. The principal should carefully note what the aim of his lesson is to be, and should plan accordingly. The lesson may be a review lesson, a drill lesson, a development lesson, or a test lesson. The aim will determine the procedure of the model lesson to be given.

If a teacher's deficiency is serious, the principal should not rest satisfied with one lesson, but should give a series of lessons. Selecting some topic, he should, in a number of lessons, develop the topic, drill on it, review it, test the pupils, and show such results as he expects from the teacher. It is important, in fact, for a principal to do this from time to time to keep himself from requiring the impossible. If he finds that things are not coming up to his standards, he might try himself and see whether his standards are not too high.

After giving his lesson, the principal should leave a margin for the teacher's self-activity to work its own way. He should let the teacher absorb the lesson by himself. A day or so after the model lesson has been given, the principal should give to the teacher a copy of the outline of the lesson, the arrangement of the subject-matter, the aim of the lesson, the results which should have been reached, and whatever points he wishes to have emphasised. By waiting a day or so he will leave sufficient time for the teacher's self-activity to operate. He should have time to think it over before being presented with rigid directions. If necessary, there should be a discussion between principal

and teacher of such matter as needs further explanation. Such discussion will be more valuable if the teacher has already given a lesson in imitation of the principal's.

A model lesson may at times be given to the teachers as a class. This will give them an opportunity to put themselves in the child's place. This should be done where the teachers lack dexterity or knowledge in the subject to be taught, as in science, music, drawing, and manual work.

As the whole matter is one of cooperation the teacher should not be idle while the principal is hard at work at his model lesson. He should take notes on points which seem to him of importance, he should carefully observe everything which is done, and he should make a memorandum of questions which he wishes to discuss later. To make the matter one of concrete reality, he should then try to give a lesson similar to the model lesson, to see how it differs from his own work, and to take for himself whatever is of value. He can best judge of the good or bad points of a lesson after he has tried to give one. He need not follow the model lesson slavishly and in fact may improve it for his own special use.

Very often a model lesson is not necessary. By suggestion a principal may correct a fault or improve aims or means. In informal discussion he might expound a good method in an entirely impersonal manner and rely on his rapport with the teacher for its partial or complete adoption. He might refer the teacher to some book or send the book with slips having on them notes and comments. He might, if he feels that the teacher is very friendly towards him, ask the teacher directly to follow some method. There need be no reference to any particular fault of the teacher's. But none the less the principal should have some specific purpose in making his suggestions and in offering his aid.

Under no circumstances should a principal point out a teacher's faults as faults directly, either orally or in writing, till all the above-mentioned or similar indirect means have been taken. On the average it is safe to assume that the teacher is working might and main to teach properly under guidance of his own ideas of what is right and proper. Nothing is so discouraging to a teacher as suddenly to be criticised adversely when right along he was doing his best. Every opportunity should be given him to improve his method before oral or written directions are thrust into his face implying that he is incompetent. Written directions and injunctions of direct and explicit nature should be used only as a last resort. They would in fact have more value if they were so used.

With little effort of his own the principal can lend the authority of his office to instruction given in the classrooms. About once every six or eight weeks he should confer with the teachers on the work they have covered, ask them for test questions, and then, as if his actions were self-motivated, set these questions immediately before the children. He need do little more than announce to the class that he has prepared test questions, and then he can let the teacher do the rest. Such tests it will be noted are not the lashing examinations used to drive the teacher, but simply those questions set by the teacher himself and enforced by the principal. Again, once every month or so the principal should set aside a day for the purpose of interrogating the five or ten weakest pupils of each class, of urging them to greater effort, of notifying their parents, if necessary, for the purpose of letting them know exactly what kind of work their children are doing.

2. **Visitation.** — Instead of presenting the copy himself the principal may make arrangements which will enable

the teachers to see other teachers at their work. Each teacher should be afforded the opportunity of visiting another school. A visit should be made for some specific purpose. If the school is to be visited because of some special feature, special preparation should be made for getting as much information of the excellence in question. Some special point should be kept in mind when the visit is made. Some subject, some particular method, some specific program should be thoroughly examined. The method of passing indiscriminately from room to room without a set purpose is usually a waste of time. To facilitate the acquisition of as much information as possible it might be well for the principal to arrange matters beforehand with the head of the other school so that only the best will be shown.

The notes gathered by the teachers should be given to the principal and discussed with him. The principal might also let the teacher take the chair and present his paper for free discussion by the teachers in conference. For intensive study all the teachers in a series of visits could gather notes on some one subject, method, or feature of school work. Such notes could be used for a series of conferences.

The principal should insist that, where allowed, visitation be made by all the teachers in the school. If only a few make it, it is sometimes assumed that such teachers are merely on a loafing trip. On this account some of the most conscientious teachers do not take advantage of the privilege of visitation.

3. Conference.—When some subject or method concerns a number of teachers, the conference should be used. The conference may assume the form of (1) a general conference, (2) a grade conference, and (3) an individual interview.

(a) *General conference.* — In a general conference all the teachers of the department or the school meet to hear what the principal has to say. Such a meeting is necessary (1) when requirements demand a uniform method of procedure throughout the school, as in the keeping of records, the dismissing of pupils, the arrangement of papers, and similar school routine, (2) when general and special methods require elucidation, (3) when correlation between the subjects of the grades in serial order is to be facilitated, (4) when some one fault or mistake in instruction runs through the whole school, (5) when in fact any matter which concerns the school as a whole is to be discussed.

When some discussion is to be expected, the conference and the topics to be considered should be announced at least a week before the conference is held. Free discussion and criticism should be allowed. An outline of the matter to be presented might be given to each of the teachers. At the conference the topics under consideration should be freely discussed.

The objection that free discussion will result in recrimination and vituperation is a most childish one. Any chaos of such a kind may be laid to the inefficiency and ignorance of the principal. If the conference has been announced beforehand, if discussion is held rigidly to the topics in question, no such misuse of the meeting will result. Of course the principal must know something of the subject-matter; he must have a definite purpose; and he must be consistent and just in his actions.

If the principal suppresses all expression by the teachers and floods them in a torrent of words, he may feel satisfied with himself and consider that the teachers are absorbing his ideas and that later they will follow them. Any suppression of individual self-expression, however, may lead

to internal commotion and dissent, or even to open action, either in the presence of the principal or in his absence. The principal may not be aware of it, but it crops out in application for transfer (conventional reasons being given, 'to be nearer home,' 'to do more good in another environment,' or what not), in relaxed endeavor, in poorer work, or in a general apathy.

(b) *Grade conference.* — When there are two or more teachers in the same grade, they should meet to determine (1) the nature and amount of the subject-matter to be taught, (2) the general progress to be made from month to month, and (3) such matters as concern the grade in which they teach. The principal may and may not be present. If he is present, the same freedom in discussion and criticism should be allowed.

(c) *Individual conference.* — A general conference should never be held to correct the faults of one or two teachers. Usually such teachers are the ones who believe that they alone are not concerned. If, after having done all that he can to improve a teacher, the principal finds that the teacher still persists in doing things his own wrong way, he should be asked to step into the office for a private interview. The principal should then go over the various points at issue in a quiet and gentlemanly manner.

Individual interviews are at times useful when the principal wishes some of the more efficient teachers to try some new method or to take up some special school work. In fact the personal interview will accomplish much more than the usual written directions.⁵

4. **Professional study.** — Every opportunity should be

⁵ On the general spirit which should permeate the conference, see: Bagehot, Walter, *Physics and Politics*, No. V, 'The Age of Discussion.' Bryce, James, *The American Commonwealth*, 2: 536.

taken by the principal to encourage the teachers to read, attend lectures, and take courses at any university or institution within reach. Cultural studies ought to be taken with the rest. The principal should be sufficiently well informed to direct such studies. Of the more professional subjects which the teacher should consider are general method, special method, management, history of education, and allied subjects as psychology, logic, ethics, anthropology, and sociology.

Considerable opposition against theoretical study will at all times be met from the more unprogressive teachers of a system. The mediocre individuals always outnumber the hard workers and so will be able to agitate in a more boisterous manner against professional study. School officials should not be misled by the cry against study and theory. A doctor must study and pass written tests before we entrust ourselves to him, a lawyer must pass written tests set by the state, and in other lines efficiency is successfully gaged by written tests in theory and practice. Only in the school are empirical methods and medieval practices still allowed. Very often one will find associated with dull Gradgrindism, artificial aims, and stilted practice a total lack of professional knowledge, a want of culture and acquaintance with the best that has been thought and done. Usually the Gradgrind is like the redoubted Ichabod Crane who had read several books quite through.

§ IV. APPROVAL AND DISAPPROVAL

1. **Social approval.**⁶ — Approval is one of the most effective instruments which the principal has at his com-

⁶ On 'social approval,' see: Westermarck, Edward, *The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas*, 1: Chs. I-V. Green, T. H., *Proleg. to Eth.*, Bk. III, Ch. III.

mand to select effective teaching. It is also one of the means which society at large has of selecting and encouraging individual endeavor. Approval is an essentially social means of selection and for the individual usually means fame and perhaps fortune.

The principal may bring social approval to bear in a number of ways. Where specially good work is done by a class, it should be exhibited on the school walls. The mere public presentation of the work will act as a stimulus. Outside of the school we have our art galleries, our museums, our public halls. In a small way the school should follow such examples.

With the teacher's permission, visitors, officials, parents should be brought into the room to see the work which is going on. Samples of such work should be taken to conference meetings, to outside gatherings, to official bodies, and the like. To prevent emphasis on the product, only legitimate work should be selected, or better still only the work of the whole class. If each child in the class has contributed his share, it is safe to infer honest work. Explanation of the method employed with illustrations showing the stages in its growth might accompany the work itself.

At times the principal should allow some teacher to present in conference some feature in which he is proficient. To prevent jealousy, it might be well to allow each of the teachers to take a turn at such presentation.

2. Individual approval. — Individual approval may take a number of forms, but these usually fall into three classes, (1) personal aid, honor, and commendation, (2) granting of special privileges, and (3) stimulation of the children to take an attitude of approval.

By increased courtesy, honest praise, and consistent commendation, the principal should show that he appre-

ciates good work done. For this he must keep in constant touch with all the members of his department. It is a mistake for a principal to keep entirely away from a teacher, even if he wishes by this to show that he trusts the teacher. He may keep away officially, but he should by no means isolate the teacher to such an extent as to lose his personal influence with him. He should always take a personal interest in the work, and show such interest by asking for information concerning material, or what not, by using model work as a copy for other classes, by discussing questions of method, by attending promptly to requests for aid, supplies, and so on.

There always occur opportunities in a school by which the principal can do a teacher some favor, grant him special privileges, benefit him materially. The teacher may be selected for clerical work outside, for aid in the storing of books and supplies, and the like. Sample books, material, etc., may also be distributed among the most efficient teachers.

In his contact with the teacher in the classroom the principal can so conduct himself as to arouse in the pupils increased admiration for the teacher. He can carefully look at exhibited work, borrow some of it, praise it openly, ask for the child who did the work, and the like. A minute or so is all the time needed for this. In all such approval he should at no time usurp the place of the teacher. This sometimes happens when he addresses the class and praises the teacher. Such approval tends to thrust the teacher into line with the children of the class.

3. **Official approval.** — In rating a teacher the principal should not use his pedagogical authority for personal purposes. No matter how he likes or dislikes a teacher, no matter how strained are the relations between the

teacher and himself, the principal should consider only the teacher's efficiency in instruction.

4. **Function of disapproval.** — By causing unrest, dissatisfaction, or even pain, disapproval stamps a desire, or action, or endeavor as one not to be persisted in. The best kind of approval is that which comes from the individual himself. By presenting proper aims, by setting elevating copies, the principal may rouse in the teacher a dissatisfaction with his own work, and an endeavor to improve the old or even to cast it aside.

A principal should never use any form of disapproval, however mild, until he has employed all positive forms of encouragement and stimulation. There are, in fact, few teachers who will not improve if repeated copies are shown them, if they are sent to visit schools, if method is suggested to them by conference and individual discussion, if their right actions are approved, if, on the whole, they are treated with decency, justice, consistency, and honor.

A principal is usually too hasty in condemning. He may see a bungling lesson, stamp the teacher as wooden, and sharply reprimand him. But this is simply a means of antagonising the teacher, and sometimes of making him persist in his action, or of killing all initiative in him. In such disapproval one must think of the bear who in his zeal killed the fly on his master's face with a rock. The principal should not expect a sudden change to his opinion or way. He should be patient and persistent. Copies should be given again and again. Even the most obtuse teacher will wake up if bombarded with copy and suggestion.

5. **Kinds of disapproval.** — Certain forms of disapproval have been cast aside even in our treatment of criminals. We no longer cast an offender into the stocks nor pillory him in public. People no longer troop on the highway

to see a public hanging. So we may consider as cruel and inhuman any forms of public condemnation of the teacher by the principal. Open criticism of a teacher before others, any censure at all before the children in the classroom, any boorish treatment of the teacher, may be considered barbaric. A principal who will shout at a teacher across the room or who will criticise him before his class is not fit for the position. In disapproval the principal should rely solely on individual and official disapproval.

The first form of disapproval which a principal should show is that made manifest by gesture, look, and attitude. A mere shake of the head, a slight frown, a simple upraising of the eyebrows, may be enough to show the teacher that some part of the work is wrong. This, supplemented by kindly explanation and request, will often be enough to correct the fault or mistake.

We know the commotion caused by Jeffrey's 'This will never do' in his critique of Wordsworth's 'Excursion.' A principal should be chary of such statements. He must remember that his duty is to encourage endeavor and not to stifle it. He must not repress a tendency, but rather direct it or substitute another for it. Should he object to anything, he should at the same time suggest positive treatment.

A strong means of disapproval is to spend some time with the teacher in the office, question him, and try to find the 'Why' and the 'Wherefore' of incorrect procedure, of dereliction, or what not. The principal should indicate clearly the fault in question, show what steps he himself has taken to remedy it, and try to find out what response the teacher is willing to make.

Written warning in the shape of written instructions should follow the private conference in the office. If

such written directions have no effect in stimulating the teacher, it becomes the duty of the principal to set forth clearly and distinctly the menace which his inefficiency is becoming to the school, and to indicate the official consequences of such inefficiency.

Finally, if the principal feels that there is no further hope of effecting a change in the teacher's inefficiency, he should mark him 'unsatisfactory' in instruction, giving full reasons, indicating his own efforts to improve the teacher, and suggesting that the teacher be tried in another grade or in another school.

If the principal is consistent in his method of procedure, the gradation of his method will have an added effect. The teacher will know about the position which he occupies in the eyes of the principal by the stage of disapproval. The process of disapproval should not be reversed. He can expect apathy and inferior work if he begins by flaunting official marks before the teachers, by threatening them, and then giving a model lesson or two.

§ V. INDIVIDUAL *versus* UNIFORM METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

1. **Uniformity in instruction.** — There should be uniformity throughout the school (1) in the selection of the subject-matter taught by two or more teachers in the same grade, (2) in the emphasis placed upon the subjects in the different grades, and (3) in the progress from one grade to another.

(a) *Uniformity in selection of subject-matter.* — In grade conference and in individual discussion with the teachers the principal should determine within the official requirements the minimum amount and the specific kinds of

subject-matter to be taught, and the time allowance and arrangement of such subject-matter. There need be only approximate similarity, and each teacher should be allowed to do as much more as he pleases.

(b) *Uniformity in emphasis.* — No subject should be emphasised in one grade and slighted in another at the whim of the teacher. The course of study is more or less specific, and it should be religiously followed. The newer subjects are sometimes ignored or not taught at all by older teachers and principals.

(c) *Uniformity in sequence.* — There should be a certain continuity in the subjects of the various grades. In conference it should be determined how far a teacher is to take a subject and where the next teacher is to begin it. Much of the disgust of children for some of the school work is due to the insane desire of many teachers to develop the subject from the beginning, no matter what be the grade.

(d) *Uniformity in method.* — Uniformity in method is conditioned by the aspect of instruction involved. I shall roughly classify the functions of method as follows, (1) to develop, (2) to review, (3) to drill, and (4) to test.

Each grade in the school should spend some part of the term in reviewing (not developing) the work involved of the previous term. The beginning and the end of the term are fit periods for this purpose. In testing the pupils, some uniformity should be present, as regards (1) the oral and the written test, (2) the minimum requirements for a passing mark, and (3) the time for such tests. Tests should be conducted by the principal and teachers at approximately the same time, within the same week if possible.

In drill and development uniformity is possible only to a certain degree. Uniformity may be required in the general underlying principles, but within these limits the

teacher should be allowed the greatest freedom. In a development lesson, for example, concrete material, illustration, diagram, etc., should be used. Definition should not begin a development lesson. Time should be taken. There should be no memoriter recitation or rote work, and so on. In general, it is safe to insist that when a subject is new to the pupils, development should precede drill, that verbalism should be allowed only as an accessory, and that the test should round the cycle of instruction. Drill and test are usually the two aspects of instruction in which a school will be found weak.

2. **Individuality in instruction.** — Devices, specific applications of general principles, will vary greatly with the ingenuity of the teacher and the material at command. A teacher of artistic temperament will use means of illustration different from one more mechanically inclined, while a teacher in favor of the abstract may employ the diagram. So, too, illustration may be by lantern slide, lithograph, or by work of the pupils themselves. Representations may be made by the pupils in clay, papier-maché, cardboard, or wood. A toy, game, tool, or home-made article may be used to illustrate a mechanical principle, and so on. Devices, however, should not be confused with principles.

The constitution of the children will demand variations in individual appeals. The classification of individuals into visual, motor, etc., is one which gives a basis for variation. Age is also a factor. An older boy usually requires a different presentation from one fit for his younger brother. Seasonal changes, rhythms in the growth and vitality of the children, temporary changes in the weather, in the environment, or in the health of the children, must also receive consideration.

Each subject should be taught by the teachers according to the same general principles, but the specific devices and special methods will vary according to the skill and knowledge of the teacher, the development and individuality of the pupil, the nature of the subject-matter, and the kind and amount of the material at hand.

§ VI. MISCONCEPTIONS OF COOPERATION

1. **Simple cooperation.** — No principal should imagine that he has cooperated fully with the teacher if he does the work demanded by conditions outside of the classroom, as at assembly, in the yard, during dismissals, by examinations, and the like. He can not say of the teacher what Ulysses did of Telemachus, 'He works his work, I mine.' Such simple cooperation is inadequate.

This spirit of isolated self-sufficiency is what may impel a principal to dispose of a new course of study with the words, 'There is the course of study. Teach it.' It is this spirit which moves the principal who will thrust a new teacher into a class, look in at the end of the day, and perhaps ask for the teacher's transfer or resignation. A principal is not the visiting inspector or superintendent, and his contact with the teachers implies a much closer relation, a more highly developed, sympathetic rapport.

2. **Verbalism.** — What a principal says he wants is not necessarily any step toward the realisation of such a want. A principal may write out full directions, send them to the teachers, have them signed, and feel that he has done enough. The signatures of the teachers indicate only that they have read and understood the instructions. It by no means implies that they can carry them out or that they have received help in carrying them out. It may be that

when interpreted in classroom practice the words signified something different from what the principal intended they should, or they may have meant the impossible. Verbal protestations likewise are useless unless supported by actual deeds. 'I always aid my teachers' is an expression which will be believed in by the principal if he utters it enough. It is not what the principal talks about or at the teachers which is of worth, but what they absorb by imitating him in honest, conscientious work.

3. **Dogmatism.** — The autocratic position of the principal sometimes leads him to become dictatorial and unyielding. Teachers are continually hearing what he wants, and they are supposed to obey without further discussion or questioning. The attitude taken by a principal in such a case may give him greater ease and satisfaction than the rational position of having the teachers and himself engaged in the search for truth which is above them all. The principalship is not a position of reward to the faithful, the Nirvana to be reached after the toil of class work. It is a position which implies aid and cooperation.

Dogmatism is shown now and then by the lordly reference which a principal makes to 'my' teachers. As a matter of fact, neither by law, by relationship, by inferiority, nor even by sympathy are they 'his' teachers. In an affectionate sort of way he may call the children 'his children,' but it is carrying the connotation of the term too far to apply it to his relation to the teachers. It is usually the arbitrary and non-sympathetic principal who will insist on using this expression.

§ VII. THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The position of the high school principal is somewhat different from that of the elementary school principal. His teachers are specialists, and moreover he can not be expected to know enough of all the subjects to be able to give model lessons. But with this difference, much of what has been presented above in connection with instruction applies to the high school.

Various problems confront the high school principal. The difference between adolescents and preadolescents is sufficiently great to call for methods of procedure based upon principles which pertain to the one and not to the other. So, too, in the selection of subject-matter, in the unifying and correlating of the different grade subjects, both longitudinally and transversely, in the determination of the amount of home work to be given, conferences with the teachers will be necessary. The high school principal should make use of similar means of approval and disapproval, should strive in like manner to found a consistent policy, and should consider himself to a similar extent a coworker with the teachers.

A superficial reader may carry with him the impression that the principal is to submit to all kinds of inferiority, that he is to do nothing but prop up weak teachers and sympathise with bad ones. Far from it. I have nowhere indicated such a procedure. I am making a plea for humanity and decency in cooperation. But in the end, if the principal's efforts are without avail, if, because of his kindness, he is ignored as the head of the school, if there is no active response nor cooperation from the teacher, then it behooves the principal calmly to lay the matter before the teacher, and use extreme measures.

CHAPTER IV

COOPERATION BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER: DISCIPLINE

§ I. DISCIPLINE *versus* INSTRUCTION

1. **Meaning of instruction.**¹ — In instruction teacher and child act upon a third object, be such object idea or thing, abstract, concrete, or what not. Under guidance of the teacher the pupil seeks to know and to retain the knowledge which he has acquired. In instruction the teacher communicates facts or principles and aims at the intellectual growth and development of the child. As conscious residua of instruction there should exist a number of cognitive systems enabling the child to recall ideas, revive images, and use them coherently and consistently in specific acts, and in the construction of a series of ideas or of a system of thought. Such ideas and ideal systems are concerned practically with objects, actions, and things, without any special reference to other human beings or social institutions. This holds even when one instructs another in his duties, for instruction in such a case is also concerned with images or ideas which are to be assimilated or retained. Any further social use of such ideas is a matter, then, of discipline.

¹ On 'instruction,' see: Rein, W., *Outlines of Pedagogics*, Eng. tr. by C. C. and Ida J. van Liew, 38. Laurie, S. S., *Institutes of Education*, 44-48. *Sonnenschein's Cyclopedia of Education*, Ed. by Alfred Ewen Fletcher and rev. by M. E. John. Tompkins, Arnold, *The Philosophy of Teaching*, 246.

Instruction in general should be considered in its four aspects, (1) development, (2) review, (3) drill, and (4) test. In brief, it may be said that in development the bases are laid; in review, organisation of such knowledge is brought about; in drill, such knowledge is fastened; and in test the knowledge is recalled or used.

Since instruction has to do with knowledge, it may be well to state briefly the meaning of knowledge.² Knowledge implies a certain amount of information about a thing, whether such information is acquired at first hand, from others, or by any other means. It involves (1) consciousness of a thing as having existence apart from other things, (2) consciousness of the qualities, function, and use of the thing, (3) a certain belief in the actual existence or possibility of the existence of the thing, and (4) ability to revive and manipulate and apply in practice the ideas or images of the thing.

2. **Meaning of discipline.**³ — In discipline the teacher is concerned with the child as he is and as he is related to others like himself. Discipline deals primarily with emotions and sentiments, with motives and duties. It is concerned with the conduct of the child, his movements and actions, his attitudes and expressions. Robinson Crusoe, for example, instructed himself in a number of things,

² On 'knowledge,' see: Bain, Alexander, *Logic: Deductive and Inductive*, Bk. I, Int. Mill, John Stuart, *A System of Logic*, Bk. I, Ch. III. Whewell, William, *The Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences*, Bk. I. Bacon, Francis, *The Physical and Metaphysical Works*, edited by Joseph Devey, *Novum Organum*. Dewey, John, *Studies in Logical Theory*, Chs. I-IV. Hobhouse, L. T., *The Theory of Knowledge*, Chs. I-II.

³ On 'discipline,' see: Rein, W., *Out. of Ped.*, Ch. VIII. Laurie, S. S., *Inst. of Ed.*, Pt. VI. Keith, J. A. H., *El. Ed.*, Ch. VI. *The Educational Theory of Immanuel Kant*, translated and edited by Edward Franklin Buchner, Int.

but discipline was possible only when Friday came. In the last analysis discipline is concerned with right and wrong considered as motives or sanctions for the acts of an individual. It may be considered as the process of so transforming the pupil that he can find the moral guide and sanction for his actions within himself, that, in his relation with others, the center of authority is not only within himself but coincides with or exceeds the social sanctions.

Discipline in general includes (1) government, (2) training, (3) instruction, and (4) practice. Government deals with external means of guidance. It looks only to the present with a view of establishing conditions which facilitate moral conduct. It is a system of regulations and arrangements by which suitable environmental changes are made to enable the higher forms of conduct to become realised. It includes such mechanical acts as entrance and dismissal, distribution of supplies, order, and the like.

Training is necessary to make certain actions automatic. It may be defined as habituation to a fixed order in life. It implies that certain situations are to exist in a more or less rigid form to which the child should react properly. By making such actions automatic, the individual is left free for higher conscious effort. Training results in the production of skill, facility, and rapidity in action. Routine work is chiefly the subject for training.

Instruction comes to aid when by it pictures of the will,⁴ ideals of action, examples of high and noble conduct, are presented and allowed to work themselves out in conduct. As instruction, it aims at nothing further than a proper development and drill on such pictures, but the further efforts of the teacher to make such ideal means effective in practice belong to his discipline.

⁴ See Rein, W., *Out. of Ped.*, 123.

Practice is the culmination of discipline. Selection by approval is implied in practice. For, unchecked, it may lead to wrong action, and it is only practice with selection which is of worth.

Discipline in general refers to the imparting of ideals, the developing of moral sentiments, the stimulation of ethical practice. It reads the present and the past for suggestions to guide action in the future. It has to do essentially with human relations, in short, with conduct.

3. Meaning of conduct.⁵—When an individual acts with or against other individuals, when he does anything to further or hinder social good, when he engages in any pursuits involving other human beings, we refer in a vague and general way to his conduct. Conduct implies action, even though such action be detrimental to social interests. A wooden Indian, though doing nothing to injure the passers-by, could hardly be said to conduct himself properly. Social friction is necessary before conduct is possible. In certain matters of government, order is necessary. But order is not necessarily discipline, in fact, is a very small part of discipline.

Conduct is impossible without (1) some institution or situation in which action can take place, (2) opportunity to work with or for a neighbor, (3) actual practice under guidance, with selection of actions socially serviceable, and (4) the guiding light of ideals. Conduct implies such control of the self that the individual at least comes into contact with his neighbors, and such a further manner of action as will receive approval from the social whole.

4. General means of cooperation in review.—Cooperation in discipline demands (1) actual situations in which

⁵ On 'conduct,' see Spencer, Herbert, *The Principles of Ethics*, 1: Pt. I, Ch. I, and below, Ch. VIII.

conduct is possible, (2) a definite knowledge of common aims in the minds of both principal and teacher, (3) imitation and suggestion of proper methods of discipline, (4) approval of right methods of discipline, and (5) bases of faith, trust, and confidence as emanating from a mutual justice, consistency, and humanity in the relations between principal and teacher. As these factors in cooperation have been discussed in the preceding chapter, only brief mention of them is here necessary.

§ II. SPECIAL MEANS OF COOPERATION

1. **Personal endeavor.**—By his actual treatment of the boys in the school, the principal consciously or unconsciously sets copies which the teacher will imitate. By a careful consideration of the rights of the children, the principal will set a model for the teacher to follow. If, for example, in speaking to a child the principal sternly tells the boy to stand up, look him in the eye, not act like a little loafer, at once his attitude tends to develop a hardening and non-sympathetic influence. And if he grasps a boy by the arm and rushes him through the doorway, such hardening influence will tend to crystallise.

In addition to concrete practice in his conduct towards the children the principal should, with the permission of the teacher, give the children informal talks in the classroom and during assembly. Such talks should refer to general school behavior, to duties not specially necessary for the class in question, to general conduct which refers to the school as a whole, and indirectly to the class.

In specific instances of class discipline, at no time should the principal usurp the place of the teacher. The teacher should at all times deal directly with questions of class

control. If there is danger of the class slipping out of the teacher's control, the principal should give aid as suggested below. He does not give aid by rushing into the room, and shocking them to a standstill, nor does he really cooperate with the teacher by telling the boys how bad they are and what will happen to them if they do not behave themselves. Class discipline is a matter of direct and immediate contact between the teacher and the class. A principal may succeed temporarily in suppressing disorder by taking the situation in charge himself, but his personal influence is not that of the teacher.

At critical moments more vigorous steps are necessary than those implied in personal endeavor. If the teacher is losing control of the class, if, for example, chairs are being overturned, spit-balls thrown, etc., the personal support of the principal becomes necessary.

2. Personal support. — Personal support may be incidental or specific. Specific support is necessary in two types of disorder, (1) that of the individual, and (2) that of the class. I shall discuss the individual first, for he is usually at the bottom of class disorder.

When a teacher is unable to control a boy, the boy should be sent to the principal or the principal should be sent for the boy. In either case the principal assumes full charge. The principal should then interrogate the boy in private. There should be no public scene. In a conversational and open manner the principal should ask the child how the trouble arose, what the cause was, how far he was involved, and so on. He should not, of course, assume a hypocritical interest in the child to draw facts from him to use against the teacher. It is, in fact, for the good of the teacher if the real facts in the case be known, and an honest principal will later discuss such facts with him.

The occasions of individual disorder will usually be found to be (1) the child himself, (2) the teacher, (3) the subject-matter of the lesson, (4) the boy's associates, (5) climatic conditions, (6) the health of the child, (7) material conditions, as seat, supplies, etc., or (8) home and outside social conditions.

The principal should first find whether the child is really to blame. It may be that the teacher has made a mistake. In such a case the pupil should be properly cared for, either in some other class or in the principal's office, pending explanations by the principal to the teacher. After the matter has been discussed, the teacher should be induced to talk the matter over with the pupil and try in a friendly manner to reestablish bonds of faith and confidence between himself and the child.

A real case of disorder exists when started by the boy himself, *i.e.*, the boy as a self-active agent who with malice prepense concocts some scheme to create disturbance. If no extraneous reasons can be found for the child's action, if there are no mitigating circumstances, as climatic conditions, environmental stimuli, etc., the principal should call the offender sharply to task. If it is his first offence, the disapproval should proceed somewhat in the following order, (1) explanation of the significance of the action, (2) strong verbal censure with warning, and (3) referring of the offender to the teacher for further explanation, exhortation, and disapproval. The boy should not be sent back to the class till the teacher has been seen. Nothing throws a teacher so out of self-control as to see a boy sent out in the morning come back in the afternoon, or to receive from the same boy's hands a general notice from the principal, which, as coming from the principal, must be received with respect. A boy sent out for disorder

should not be used as errand-boy or helper, for this is usually considered as a mark of honor.

If the same offender wilfully persists in his wickedness, the same process should be repeated, with additional disapproval. Depending upon the gravity of the offence, (1) the boy may be placed in a lower grade for a day or so, (2) his parents may be notified, (3) he may be segregated from other pupils by not being allowed to enter or depart with them, (4) he may be detained a certain time each day for a week, (5) he may be called up for intensive questioning concerning his actions during the day, and so on. But if in the face of all that the boy threatens to become a plague-spot, he should be put into some special class or be firmly and promptly expelled. Extreme measures should be kept till the last. Only after a boy has been tried with a number of teachers, and found wanting, should more summary measures be taken.

Other reasons for the disorder will usually be found. Often the teacher may be the origin of the trouble. Either he may not like 'that little loafer' or he may have been sarcastic, personal, or dogmatic. In such a case the principal should by no means indicate that he sides with the boy. The boy should be kept out of the class till matters have been talked over with the teacher. The child should then state his grievance before the teacher, and in a private conversation unburden himself. But if a teacher persistently refuses to look upon a child in no way other than with antipathy and dislike, if he can not be induced to show toleration and humanity, he is at bottom inefficient as a disciplinarian. The boy should then be protected, transferred if possible to another class in the same grade, and if his work is good, promoted at the end of the term.

A common cause of disorder is the inability of a child to understand what is being taught, either because of his own unreadiness to assimilate the subject, or because of a lack of efficiency in instruction. A teacher who prods a boy in arithmetic when the child has very little power to deal with symbols and abstract relations may provoke sulkiness and seeming refusal to obey. The teacher should try to make matters clearer by different appeals, but if no further progress seems possible, he should let the pupil alone in that subject. If inefficiency in instruction is at the bottom of the matter, the principal should cooperate, as suggested in the preceding chapter.

When the boy's associates are the stimulating agents, they may exist as an approving social background, or they may be the real offenders. In the latter case, for example, a boy's neighbors may stick a pin into him or annoy him. The principal can decide just how far one or the other is the real offender by bringing them all outside, interviewing them, and letting them argue the matter out. The boys may then be sent to the teacher for further interrogation. Disapproval should proceed as explained above.

Climatic conditions, ill-health, unsuitable material surroundings often occasion disorder. A boy may have bowel complaint, or some internal irritation may make it impossible for him to react as the teacher wishes. On rainy or sultry days or on days on which electrical changes are taking place⁶ the principal should discount the apparent seriousness of any disorder. The occasion of the disorder will probably be one of the influences above mentioned. A hard, badly-shaped seat, a spluttering pen, sticky underclothes, etc., may excite outbursts in the child which seem like open defiance.

⁶ See Dexter, Edwin Grant, *Weather Influences*.

Cases of some seriousness are those in which the child has developed preconceived notions from his people at home. The teacher may have been discussed at home with the conclusion that he is not fit here, or wrong there, and the child may wait for some opportunity, or create the opportunity himself, in which the teacher is to do something out of the way. The principal should go slowly once he finds this to be the case. He should warn the teacher to keep within his official rights and duties, and to hold evidence of the child's inefficiency if there be any. He should politely request an interview with the parent. He may transfer the child to another class in the same grade. He should not, however, allow any child or parent to dictate school control or to interfere with class work.

In other questions in which home conditions operate against class discipline the child is usually not to blame. He may fall asleep in the morning when the teacher is reaching the climax of a lesson, because he was up at sunrise delivering bread. He may be cross or irritable because he is sickly or because he has not had enough to eat. He may have done no home work because his parents may have had to use the rooms for work of their own. These things should always be considered in discipline.

More serious breaches of discipline occur when the class is slipping out of the teacher's control and acting in a boisterous and anarchical manner generally. The principal may be sent for and may find the teacher practically helpless. He should not allow himself to be carried away by the contagion of disorder. He should not take the situation out of the teacher's hands so long as the teacher is on his feet and in the room. He may take it for granted that the call for him and his actual presence will quiet

the class for the time. He should come into the room quietly and cheerfully, address a few commonplace remarks to the teacher, and rapidly glance over the class. A lurking grin here, a sidelong glance there, and a general guilty air will show him quickly where the trouble is. He should localise it as soon as he can. Then he should indicate to the teacher by row and seat certain boys who seem to be the ringleaders, and suggest that any other boys whom the teacher wishes should be sent to him. They should be sent with him at once, or under escort of another teacher.

In his office he should sharply interrogate the children. It may be that he or the teacher has selected the wrong ones, but, innocent or guilty, their conversation will throw much light on the existing conditions. The boys should be returned to the classroom only after the teacher has been seen. After the principal and the teacher have agreed on a course of action, the principal should turn the pupils over to the teacher. Disapproval should be given if necessary. If more than one teacher requires such assistance, the principal should call upon his senior teachers for aid.

In addition, the principal should call at the classroom from time to time to show the pupils that he is in harmony with the teacher. He may call now to borrow a book, again to ask for some information, or to get the teacher's permission for the use of a child's services, and the like. His aim should be to establish class control in the teacher without taking it out of his hands or by assuming such control himself.

In all such cooperation the principal should not usurp the position of the teacher. If he takes the teacher's place, it is highly probable that the confusion and riot will

begin again as soon as he is out of the room. At all times he should defer to the teacher in matters of class management, ask his permission to address the class, and show the pupils that he considers the teacher supreme in his classroom.

Further support should be given to all the teachers, even when there is no specific and urgent need for it. The principal should openly respect the teacher in all his dealings with him. He should casually visit the room from time to time and on some pretext or another speak to the teacher in such a manner as to show to the pupils the harmony between them. Even in such casual visits the principal should refrain from interfering with the teacher's class discipline. If the appearance of the class is not as he desires, he should see the teacher later. He should not snap his fingers, clap his hands, tap the desk, etc. When he is in full control, as when he is giving a model lesson, he may, however, take such measures as seem to him necessary to call the class to order.

3. Conference. — General conferences are necessary only in questions which concern school organisation and government, the general principles of class management and discipline, uniformity in discipline, errors common to the school as a whole, etc. Individual discipline is best improved by individual conferences with the teachers.

In such individual conferences the principal should suggest remedies wherever possible. The following suggestions may be pertinent. Has the teacher developed a personality or established a basis of mutual trust and confidence between the pupils and himself (1) by doing something for the class either in the line of decoration, construction of apparatus, drawing of maps and charts, etc., (2) by approving and stimulating effort in the pupils

by exhibition, personal commendation, and the like, (3) by treating the children with respect, (4) by carefully preparing enough work to keep the pupils busy, (5) by forming situations, allowing of games, meetings, excursions, elections, etc., (6) by kindly talks with the pupils after hours for the purpose of helping them in their private aims, interests, and feelings, (7) by personal example at all times? All these suggestions may not be needed. Some of them can not fail to be beneficial in particular cases.

The rules governing the control of conferences in the case of instruction hold for control of conferences on discipline. General methods of developing class spirit, the principles underlying good conduct, the means of selecting right action, the ethical aspects of the subjects of instruction, the relation of instruction to discipline, the analysis of conduct in duty, some special evils which may need correction, — these are some of the topics which may be profitably discussed. The manner of conducting the conference should also be a good model in discipline. Suppression of teachers during the conference can not be expected to develop in them a humane control of the children. A principal who shouts at a teacher can expect the teachers to shout at the children. So, too, a principal who threatens a teacher, indirectly fosters corporal punishment. It is only by his fruits that he can expect to be known.

4. **Cultural studies.** — No teacher can well do without culture. Life may be made a purgatory for children because a few schoolmasters decide that a rigid back-bone is all that is necessary for discipline; that arithmetic, spelling, and grammar are all that man needs on earth and hereafter. Again, a teacher can approve only according

to his own ideas of right and wrong. Now if the teacher's ethical notions are askew, if he can not adequately represent that approval which the world at large has given and still gives, how can he be fit to discipline the children? Either of two things must happen, (1) the children will believe in his approval and so grow up with wrong ideas (for which the school is hardly necessary), or (2) they will compare the teacher's judgments with those of the outside world, find them narrow and perverted, and disregard or disrespect the teacher (for which the teacher is hardly necessary).

If the child is to be educated for life on this world, some knowledge and appreciation of human activities are necessary. If the child's ideas of right and wrong are to harmonise with at least the average notions as existent, some familiarity with present sociological, ethical, and economic conditions may be taken for granted. How can a teacher be expected to develop a child properly if he has kept his nose poked rigidly in the narrow confines of an antiquated arithmetic or a scholastic grammar? The teacher may be considered by the public as a necessary evil, and humorous anecdotes may be related of his foibles in after life; but if he is thus taken as a joke, he is, to say the least, a most serious and expensive one.

In order to interpret properly the child's groping for the light, in order to give the right set to his endeavors, to understand the social and ethical significance of many of the child's first attempts and actions, the teacher needs a broad cultural basis.⁷ But how often do the childish

⁷ On 'culture,' see: Eliot, Charles William, *Educational Reform*, 8 and Ch. V. Harris, W. T., *Psych. Found. of Ed.*, Ch. XXXVI and 340. Butler, Nicholas Murray, *The Meaning of Education*, Ch. I. Horne, H. H., *The Phil. of Ed.*, 242. Hanus, Paul H., *Educational*

appeals fail to strike a responding chord in the teacher's disposition? How often are they like the seeds which were cast by the sower on barren ground?

"Some fell upon stony places, where they had not much earth: and forthwith they sprung up because they had no deepness of earth.

And when the sun was up, they were scorched; and because they had no root they withered away.

And some fell among the thorns; and the thorns sprung up and choked them."

5. **School spirit.**⁸—The principal can work indirectly on the class by establishing a proper school spirit. No matter how helpless the children of the school may seem, they will always respond if active measures are taken to appeal to them as human beings.⁹ The general method is to establish some kind of institution in which the children can take an active part, to use only positive means of approval, to select right action, and to give opportunity for practice in right action outside of the school. The following suggestions will prove effective:

Organise the school or at least the upper grades into some kind of social democracy, with a leader, an advisory board, and subordinate agents, with names as mayor, president, head, or what not. Delegate to them certain functions, as patrol of the halls, yards, etc., formation of

Aims and Educational Values, Ch. I. Keith, J. A. H., *El. Ed.*, 60. Baldwin, J. M., *Soc. and Eth. Int.*, 30-37. Paulsen, F., *A Syst. of Eth.*, Eng. tr. by F. Thilly, Bk. III, Ch. V. Rein, W., *Out. of Ped.*, 47, 68. Laurie, S. S., *Inst. of Ed.*, Pt. I, Lect. V. Martineau, James, *Types of Ethical Theory*, Second edition, 2: 214. Arnold, Matthew, *Culture and Anarchy*.

⁸ See Cronson, Bernard, *Pupil Self-Government*.

⁹ This spirit is well shown in the books by Jacob A. Riis, *The Battle with the Slum*, *The Making of an American*, *Children of the Tenements*, *How the Other Half Lives*, etc.

athletic teams, holding of literary, social, and business meetings, giving receptions, establishing clubs for games, dances, excursions, etc., publishing a paper, and the like.

Approve actions worthy of commendation by judicious platform talks, personal appeal, notice on bulletin boards, etc. Encourage social intercourse among the children by letting them visit other rooms to see the work, by letting them correspond in composition form, and by allowing them to correct compositions of other classes. Exhibit school work on the walls, and invite parents to see it. Hold interesting school exercises, give entertainments, exhibitions by lantern, and the like. Groups of boys may work together to construct some apparatus or model which can be put to class use, as large papier-maché map, cabinet, scientific apparatus, etc.

All the children will not be able to participate in such school activities, but they can not fail to be influenced by those who do. In the yards, on the streets, in the small groups of boys who gather at various places, a few of the older boys will be enough to set a good example for the rest. In the classroom, moreover, the radiating influences of good conduct should be manifest because of such social endeavor.

§ III. APPROVAL AND DISAPPROVAL

1. **Approval.** — In general, the same rules guiding approval and disapproval in instruction operate in the selection of effective discipline. Only a few cautions are here necessary. Social approval should not be restricted to one or two teachers. If a principal is continually approving a few teachers, he runs the danger of causing dissention and jealousy. So, too, should a banner or what not

be presented to a class, it should be given as a reward for class work and not as a means of approving the teacher. Individual and official approval in discipline should proceed in much the same way as in instruction. Freedom from bias, justice, and an even consistency should be the rule here as elsewhere.

2. **Disapproval.**— In the section on disapproval in instruction will be found a presentation of the graded steps by which a principal should express disapproval. Only a word or two need be added.

The principal should never try to humiliate the teacher by openly finding fault with the class. If a class does not at the moment suit the principal, he has other ways of improving discipline than that of barking at the children in a sudden flush of anger. At all times the teacher should be in charge of the class without interference.

In general, both in instruction and in discipline the principal should rigidly follow this rule: Do not find fault with the work, say directly that it is ineffective, or imply this by asking the teacher to do better or to change his methods. The principal should note any imperfections, either mentally or in writing, and plan carefully to remove them. The principal may think 'Such inefficiency I have never seen.' But he should also remember that the teacher may not think so, may in fact be blissfully unconscious of the error of his way. Very often the teacher may have no fixed or settled reason for his method, and will readily change it when good models are shown or when other methods are properly suggested. The effects of the circle, *copy*, *imitation*, *approval*, may always be relied upon. Even when he thinks that the teacher is shirking his work, the principal should give him the benefit of the doubt and go through the whole process of setting

copies and suggesting models. There will then be no possible loophole for the teacher when more direct disapproval is used.

If, after having taken all positive means of improving the teacher, the principal finds his efforts in vain, he should proceed with graded disapproval as in instruction. Then, should there be a struggle, he should not flinch, but should firmly and quietly take means to have the teacher transferred to another class or another school.

§ IV. INDIVIDUAL *versus* UNIFORM METHODS OF DISCIPLINE

1. **Uniformity in discipline.** — In his efforts to have an orderly and well-controlled school a principal may try to have his classroom discipline as rigid as the more mechanical routine. Only in certain cases, however, is uniformity advisable.

Where discipline deals with mechanical reactions necessary in good government, one method of procedure should maintain throughout the school. Uniformity should exist in the ruling, arrangement, and order of work in written exercises, in entrance and dismissal, in the distribution of material, etc. Where nothing is gained by constant change in mechanical reactions, there seems no reason why children should be compelled to learn a new system with each class they enter.

As regards the content of discipline, the virtues to be inculcated and the offences to be arrested, there should be one movement through the school towards a common end. There is not enough systematic endeavor towards such realisation. Some plan of virtues, duties, etc., should be followed in a school as is a course of study in instruction.

As in instruction, uniformity in method in discipline should be insisted upon where it is a question of general principles in the development of conduct. Thus, it is safe to say that copies must be set before imitation can take place, that approval should be tried before disapproval is used, that an opportunity for live conduct is necessary before discipline can be really effective. It is also safe to lay down as a hard and fast rule that endeavor in conduct is at first unsuccessful, that the first attempts of the child will go wrong and may seem like intentional disorder, and that a fair chance should be given before judgment is passed on the ethical significance of a child's action. Then there is the common ethical significance of the various subjects, as literature, history, the arts, etc.

2. **Individuality in discipline.** — As development in conduct demands personal contact between teacher and child, the teacher can best tell what particular variations of general method are necessary. Such individual treatment is conditioned by a number of things.

Differing temperaments of children will necessitate particular consideration and guidance. Good-natured banter which will be taken with a sheepish grin by a stolid, phlegmatic child may cause distress in one more sentimental and sensitive. The general division of temperaments into sanguine, phlegmatic, sentimental, and choleric should, however, be followed with some caution.¹⁰ Human nature is a compound of many strange elements, and particular situations will require action which can be guided by no fixed rule.

¹⁰ On 'temperament,' see: Paulhan, Fr., *Les Caractères*. Fouillee, Alfred, *Tempérament et Caractère*. Volkmann, Wilhelm, *Lehrbuch der Psychologie*, 2: §§ 154-155. Sidis, Boris, and Goodhart, Simon P., *Multiple Personality*.

Differences in home training should also temper the treatment in specific instances. A breach of decorum in one properly trained at home is something far different from a mistake in one who considers his actions right because he has been brought up no better. Some children will use profane language before a teacher with the greatest equanimity and unconscious of the nature of the offence.

Accidental conditions often force the teacher to change his applications of general principles to suit individual cases. A child may be irritable because he is hungry, or because he is ill, or because he has been spoiled at home. Individual appeals and personal contact must also be varied in accordance with the sanctions and motives which have impelled the conduct of the child. A boy may wriggle in his seat, for example, for a number of reasons. His neighbor may be pinching him. His underclothing may be uncomfortable. The seat may be hard and the teacher uninteresting. He may be ill. The action is the same in each case, but its correction will depend upon the nature of the case. Correction may vary anywhere from a verbal reproof to a dose of liver pills.

The child may be appealed to more strongly from one side than from another. An affectionate child will be moved more by sympathy than will his more cold-blooded neighbor who may want to know Why.

It behooves the teacher carefully to study the pupils that he may (1) set the copy appropriate to the individual concerned, (2) offer the right selection, (3) allow initiative and practice in imitation, and (4) select by the fittest approval.

In matters of discipline the teacher should not compare himself to a judge, for his functions are vastly dif-

ferent. When a man is before a judge and jury it is not their duty to educate that man, show him the evil of his way, set him a good model, and then let him try again. They assume that his education has been completed. The judge and jury simply try to decide whether or not the man is guilty. But the teacher has a far different task to perform. His purpose is to educate the child. Even if a child has done wrong it may be better to ignore the offence, offer encouragement, and allow the child to try again. Justice is the watchword of the judge, but the teacher should have with him, always, faith, hope, and charity.

3. **Evils of routine discipline.** — If virtues and offences are marked like articles in a price-list, there is danger that the ethical balance in social adjustment will be destroyed. If an offence under all conditions is rated of equal value, the fine distinctions between right and wrong will be gradually blurred. A child, for example, who is punished equally with his neighbor because he has asked for a knife with which to sharpen his pencil while his neighbor has asked for some bauble with which to play, will have his belief in the fitness of things somewhat shaken.

If rules are held before children, there will always be some who will be stimulated to see how the rule will work. Moreover, rules do not have great motive power. The injunction, "In the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die," had little effect in averting the downfall. Finally, enough rules can not be given to cover all cases. Somewhere I read that two boys who were caught shooting crap on the school roof could not be punished because the offence had not been listed.

Routine discipline destroys the individuality of the pupil and the personality of the teacher. For the child then places the sanction of his action outside of himself,

performs his work because he is told, because, perhaps, he will be kept in if he fails to do it. If he is marked for some offence, he feels that he has paid for it, and that nothing further need be said. Moreover, when the teacher is a cold, formal, punishing machine, any sympathetic rapport between the children and himself becomes impossible. Discipline then becomes a farce. The children may sit up straight because if they do not they will have to sit up straighter after school has been dismissed. Work is done under duress, but self-motivation is lacking.

Finally, routine discipline disregards the motives which lie back of an action. For example, talking or whispering may arise from a number of conditions. A child may desire approval of his work and may turn to his neighbor for it. It may be due to the inability of the child to control expression of the ideas which bubble and effervesce within him. There may be ineffective instruction by the teacher, and the pupil may turn to his neighbor for information. The child may wish to borrow something, and so on. Each case, though apparently the same, would require different treatment.

Routine discipline may produce apparent order and a superficial aspect of peace and calm, but there is great danger that spiritually, it will end, to use Dickens' suggestive phrase, in a slaughter of the innocents.

§ V. MATERIAL AND SUPPLIES

1. **Selection of supplies.** — Since it is the teacher who is to use the supplies, and since in most cases a difference in choice or selection will make no difference in expense or in the quality of the material, it is the teacher who should have something to say in determining what sup-

plies are to be ordered. Teachers should know what supplies are to be obtained. In conference it should be decided what particular kind of pencil, paper, etc., is to be selected. Where the same supplies are used right through a department, uniformity in selection is desirable. Material used in common should be listed and a copy of the list placed in the hands of each teacher. If there is a printed supply book, this is not necessary.

In selecting books individual and grade conferences will be helpful. The same grades should use the same books in any subject, but different grades should use different books even if the subject is the same. Preference should be given to a book written by an authority. As regards subject-matter, the book should be accurate, properly proportioned, non-sectarian, interesting, clear, and adopted to grade requirements. Secondary features to be considered are adequate illustrations, good index, topical paragraph headings, and suggestive references to other books, reading matter, experiments to be performed, etc. Any questions added at chapter ends in fine type should not be used by the pupils. The regulation *12mo* or *16mo* is about the right size. Geographies still come in a large, unwieldy form. A test of the binding is to open the book. It should stay open or partly open, and should show a good cloth support with at least four stitches for the *12mo* size.

Where a subject such as a history or geography is taught in successive grades a change of book is desirable. A pupil usually goes into a new book as if it dealt with a new subject. In this manner the pupil gets the benefit of repetition by association and interest.

2. **Care of supplies.** — In storing supplies the principal should place some teacher in charge. He may be aided

by boys, but boys should not be left alone with them. It is not because boys are necessarily untrustworthy that they should not be given full charge, but because they have not yet reached an age of responsibility.

Books should not be placed upon the floor, but should be put on shelves. Paper should be similarly cared for, and loose material should go into boxes. A convenient device which will enable a principal to read off the amount of supplies is a linear scale placed alongside of the paper and indicating by the inch the number of sheets in the stack. This is possible in the case of paper and pads. Material of the same kind should be kept in the same room. If there is a choice of rooms, the one allowing of quickest distribution should be used. The lock of the door should be an inside deadlock or an outside padlock. Two or three keys should be kept by the principal. Supplies should be so stored that in distribution the material is taken from one end and in one direction. If material is taken indiscriminately from different places, confusion will soon result.

At least once a month the principal or some teacher should make an inspection of all locked closets. At least once a day some one should at least pass by them. Too many precautions can not be taken where a large amount of inflammable material is stored. If there is running water within reach, it is advisable to have a hose with a brass fastening which can be screwed to the faucet or water pipe. Such a hose need not be very thick, but should reach to any part of the floor or to that part not covered by another hose.

The teacher should care for his supplies in a similar orderly manner. He should use his closet space to the best advantage. Like should be stacked with like, and all

material should if possible be placed behind locked doors. Once a month there should be a general housecleaning.

To create a personal interest in supplies and to centre responsibility, the principal should place all material of durable nature in the hands of the same teacher who has used it. For example, if two teachers in the same grade use the same book, the sets should remain with the same teachers and should not be changed round or mixed. A principal should be able to determine how long books and the like last with the teacher.

3. Distribution of supplies. — A *per capita* average of supplies needed *per* pupil might be struck by the teachers and principal at a conference. When a proper allowance has been decided upon, it should be hung in the principal's office. Teachers should also make a copy to guide them in their requisitions. They need not be held rigidly to such allowance.

Requisitions should be sent in by the teachers at least once a month, and if necessary at any time in which they urgently need material. Printed blanks should be used to ensure uniformity. If written, the requisitions should follow a certain form. All lists should be open to free inspection by the teachers. The number of pupils in the class should be indicated so that the *per capita* allowance may be estimated. Publicity will tend to reduce excessive demands for supplies.

There should be one form of requisition for general supplies, one for books, and one for apparatus, maps, etc. Such lists should be dated, and should be accessible to all the teachers as above suggested.

4. Record of supplies. — In addition to his order slips a principal should keep a more systematic record of the supplies which he receives from the school board. He

should keep a book similar to the business man's *Record*, in which he should list the supplies in an order like that on the supply sheets sent in by the teachers. As soon as the order blanks are checked off, the lists should be entered in the *Record* with the following data: (1) date of order, (2) date of receipt, (3) quantity or amount, and (4) condition or special note.

There should be some uniformity between the principal's record and the supply sheets handed in by the teachers. Added order can be had if the items are arranged alphabetically. The three divisions as suggested above may be made, (1) general supplies used daily, (2) books, (3) apparatus and supplies of durable nature specially ordered.

Some such method will enable a principal at short notice to give, (1) list of supplies ordered during any period of time, (2) present supply on hand (obtained by subtracting amount of supplies distributed from amount ordered), (3) supplies asked for by the teacher during any period, and (4) the date and amount of any special item. To make such a plan effective closets must be locked and no distribution should take place save through the medium of the supply sheet. Even the principal should subject himself to this rule.¹¹

§ VI. RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHER

Under proper conditions of cooperation a much higher order of responsibility should be expected of the teacher. A principal should assume a certain individuality and self-

¹¹ Since I have written the above suggestions, an almost identical account has appeared in Perry, A. C., *The Management of a City School*. Each treatment, I need hardly add, is independent of the other.

activity upon which to work. If, after he has done his duty in a quiet, gentlemanly manner, the principal fails to see any effective response in the teacher, he should not begin to prod the teacher, do some of his work, or take the class in hand from time to time so that it may be properly instructed and disciplined. If the teacher does not respond of his own account, if he shows a lack of self-activity, he may be considered inefficient and fit for closer investigation.¹²

§ VII. THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

As in instruction, so in discipline, the high school principal is a person who can make his work felt. He can do much to further school interests and school discipline. A study of the adolescent pupil, means of stimulating pupils to continue their work, cooperation with the teachers, etc., all come within his field of work.

The two chapters on cooperation show that the principal is a necessary agent in the school. He must improve aims and means, create harmony and uniformity in school work, stimulate and supervise instruction and discipline, transmit instructions to the teachers and enforce obedience to them, prepare reports, meet parents, agents, etc., organise assemblies, meetings, and the like.¹³ The further duties of the principal in supervision will be considered in the next chapter.

¹² On 'responsibility,' see Wallace, W., *Lect. and Es. on Nat. Theol. and Eth.*, 302.

¹³ See Chancellor, William Estabrook, *Our Schools: Their Administration and Supervision*, 124.

CHAPTER V

COOPERATION BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER: SUPERVISION

§ I. SUPERVISION

1. **Meaning of supervision.**¹ — First of all, supervision means an actual inspection. It implies a first-hand contact with (1) the product and (2) the process. Such inspection should have the spirit of cooperation about it. Good work rather than bad should be sought, and faults should be used as a basis for aid and correction. Inspection and examination should be used not as a lash to drive teachers but as an instrument by which approval is made possible, as a means by which the social reaction is made complete. The teacher should be encouraged to show work and method, to invite examination and criticism.

In the second place, supervision implies criteria by which method and result can be judged. The principal must have a clear idea of what can be expected under the existing conditions, and this idea should exist at the same time in the minds of the teachers. The criterion for judgment should not be some hidden, mysterious thing which only the principal knows, but it should be something which has

¹ On 'supervision,' see: Chancellor, W. E., *Our Schools: Their Ad. and Sup.*, Ch. IV. Pickard, J. L., *School Supervision*. Perry, A. C., *The Man. of a City School*. Dutton, Samuel T., *School Management*, Ch. XIX. Gilbert, Charles B., *The School and its Life*, Chs. XV, XXI. Bagley, William Chandler, *Classroom Management*, Ch. XVII. Seeley, Levi P., *A New School Management*, Ch. XIX.

been developed and which exists in the minds of the teachers.

Finally, supervision implies that the principal has the ability calmly to go over the results of his investigation, carefully to weigh the evidence by comparison with some more or less fixed standard, and humanely to allow for conditioning circumstances. Systematic, rational, and sympathetic interpretation and valuation will enable the principal to give a proper mark for instruction and discipline.

2. **Method of supervision.** — First-hand contact demands a reasonable method and a fit time for the inspection. I shall give those means of supervision which are at the same time both effective and humane.

(a) *Visitation.* — The method of procedure in instruction and discipline can be seen only by quiet visitation. The visit may be short or long. Often a minute or so is sufficient to tell the principal how matters stand for the particular lesson in question. If a longer visit is necessary, the principal should ask the teacher's permission to sit in the rear and look on.

Casual inspection can be made incidentally. A principal may drop into the room to ask the teacher for a book, a boy, or what not. A glance at the boys, the board, the teacher, is often all that is necessary. The entire manner of the principal should be that of a welcome visitor.

(b) *Oral questioning.* — With the permission of the teacher visitation may be supplemented by a conversational and relevant oral questioning of the class. This is necessary if the principal thinks that (1) the pupils have not the proper basis for assimilation, (2) the teacher is going too rapidly for the pupils, (3) the appeal is not made to the right sense organ, (4) all the pupils are not active, or (5) they are not

allowed enough expression or the right kind of it. Questioning is also necessary to ascertain whether the lesson is one of development, review, drill, or test.

The principal may also talk quietly with the teacher before leaving. Such conversation should be for the purpose of further information and not for the correction of the teacher. Correction of the teacher should never be made in the room before the pupils. Such talks should never develop into argument. The principal may inquire concerning the kind of the lesson, the method employed, the material used, the outline followed, and so on. Casual glances at the desk will give him some information of possible plan-books, apparatus, material, etc.

(c) *Results*. — Actual presence in the room is the best way of judging efficiency in method. Secondary means will aid in correcting such judgments. These are (1) examination of the work turned out and (2) inspection of the teacher's plan-book, progress-book, and apparatus made and used by him. Results can be ascertained by careful examination of written work handed in, by a close observation of manual work, and by sporadic written tests and examination. Informal questioning of the class from time to time is also of aid.

(d) *Conference*. — Discussion in individual conference will be helpful in bringing to light the teacher's knowledge of method and subject-matter. Such information should be used for purposes of verification or should suggest further visitation and inspection.

(e) *Time of visitation*. — Time of visitation is an important factor. The principal should not be satisfied with a single visit. The best teacher can be made to appear inefficient if visits are made on rainy days, on days preceding holidays, or when the principal happens to hear of

things which do not suit him. A number of visits should be made, and they should be distributed more or less evenly among all the teachers. Consistency and persistence should be shown. The time of day when the visits are made is immaterial. Good discipline, however, is best judged before sessions and shortly after sessions. Discipline on the stairs and in the halls should not be attributed wholly to the teacher. Such discipline is more or less the result of the principal's efforts.

If the first few visits show inefficiency, the principal should note errors, etc., and should then cooperate persistently in instruction and discipline before visiting and inspecting again. If continued inefficiency is shown, there should be increased cooperation.

3. Objectionable supervision. — The principal should not try to find out what the teacher has done by privately interrogating pupils. Nor should he question the class during the teacher's absence for such a purpose. Neither should he judge of work done in one grade by the showing which they make in another grade immediately after promotion. Pupils rarely show at their best after promotion. The shock due to new surroundings, the inability of the pupils to adapt themselves to the general management of the new class, the lack of a well-developed social rapport will tend to check expression and to confuse thought.

A most offensive method of supervision is that based on a 'cram' test given at the end of the term. Where a principal is solely responsible for the questions, a teacher is driven to teach answers to such questions, and not the subject-matter concerned. Moreover, as is actually the case in some tests, the examinations can be so manipulated as to obtain almost any results which the principal may desire. As he knows what work has been done, he can

arrange his questions so as to get any percent from the class. This is not pleasant to contemplate, but its truth can hardly be denied.

Excessive supervision is offensive. Especially is this the case if such supervision is followed by silence or disapproval. Inexperienced teachers need more supervision than the others, but favors in this connection should be distributed as impartially as possible.

Mechanical supervision is almost as bad as none at all. Written lists of topics taught, books with plans, notes, etc., reports on errors committed by children, etc., are not necessarily an indication of work done. So, too, written directions and instructions sent by the principal give little indication of his efficiency in cooperation and supervision.

Supervision in general is pernicious if the mark given is not based upon successive and persistent visitation, actual examination of the work turned out, and comparison of such data with a criterion fully known and appreciated by the teacher. Personal bias, dislike, a dependence upon general principles, and guesswork of any kind should be eliminated.

4. **Bases of valuation.** — The criteria by which a principal is to estimate efficiency may be primary or secondary. First and most important are the actual instruction and discipline in the class as determined by correct methods of supervision. Secondary bases of valuation are (1) effort in class work, (2) preparation as shown by plan- and note-books, knowledge of subject-matter and scholarship, and (3) personal appearance. Secondary bases should be investigated if inefficiency in instruction or discipline are evident.

5. **Record of supervision.** — The principal should keep

some record of his more formal visits. It might be advisable to have a book with headings and spaces which can be filled in. When a superintendent inspects the class, the principal should go with him and take notes of his own. He will then have data ready should the superintendent wish to discuss any particular lesson given during inspection.

§ II. EFFICIENCY IN INSTRUCTION

1. Motivation in the pupil. — One of the most important points to be looked for by the principal in his inspection of instruction is a proper motivation in the pupil. Why do the pupils get up and answer as they do? What impels them to keep actively at the work before them? Why are they conducting themselves in one way rather than in another? What is there in the lesson to incite them to further effort?

Motivation may be external or internal, and again it may be positive or negative. If the child does his work under duress, or in fear of some punishment, or because of threatened impositions, he is impelled by external and negative sanctions. If he does his work because he likes it or because he is striving for some form of approval, his impulsion is positive. Motivation may be either external or internal, but at least it should be positive.

In written work positive motivation may be inferred if the children are working in an animated manner, if the work proceeds steadily and persistently, if interruptions are few, if there is an air of seriousness, earnestness, or even pleasure manifest, if there is a quiet hum and clatter. If, however, there occur halts with expressions of ennui, disgust, dissatisfaction, or imbecile vacuity, if the children stop, rest, drive forward for a short period, rest,

wriggle, and start again, it is fairly evident that they are working under duress.

In oral work positive motivation is shown by the willingness of the children to answer questions and by their attitude while answering. In addition there should be present a general expression of ease, satisfaction, and intentness. But if, on the other hand, pupils seem apathetic, stare out of the window, turn and squirm, answer in a disjointed fashion, or fail to answer, or even if they sit motionless, with hands properly placed and heads erect, it is highly probable that they move and conduct themselves under constraint.

External marks of proper motivation are (1) the general attitude of the teacher toward the pupils, (2) a free use of praise, commendation, and approval, and (3) exhibition of work done by the children. A room which does not show decoration, which is not used as a means of showing good work done by the children, is an indication that effective motivation is lacking.

2. Aim of the teacher. — If the signs of proper motivation are present, effective teaching can usually be inferred. This, however, is not always so. To take an extreme case, the teacher may be telling funny stories, or the pupils may be cutting their initials into the desks. A second feature to be looked for in effective teaching is the aim of the teacher.

The principal should determine from the drift of the lesson whether it is one of development, review, drill, or test. A principal should not judge a drill lesson from the standpoint of a development lesson, nor should he reverse the process.

If the lesson is one of development, there should be adequate material for representative study, proper models:

and copies, and slow and lucid exposition by the teacher. The progress of the pupils will be a slow and halting one. Questions will be asked by the pupils, individual aid will be given by the teacher, and the general aspect of the work will be crude and unfinished. The same point in the lesson will be presented in a number of ways. Blackboard presentation, modeling, construction work in the concrete, will predominate. The children will be active under guidance in drawing, modeling, constructing, diagraming, questioning, reading, looking up matter in books, comparing, discussing.

A review lesson may precede a development lesson or it may end it. It calls for general rather than for specific knowledge, it deals with topics rather than with particular instances. It may proceed by comparison, by application as in construction, illustration, dramatic representation, etc., by condensation and topical arrangement, by expansion and discussion of topics and so on. Review may be used to advantage in relieving the necessarily mechanical nature of drill.

In a drill lesson the general action is more rapid. Little aid will be given by the teacher. Questioning by the teacher, application by the pupils, and practice stimulated by different sense appeals will be the rule. At times the teacher may seem to be doing nothing. Focalisation on one topic, exercises calling forth activities of the pupils, and practice of the kind in which proficiency is to be expected should be in evidence.

In the test which is a species of drill the principal need look only at the nature of the problems set and the time necessary for their solution. Most of the problems should be such as the average pupil can do. No paper should consist solely of technical or catchy problems. For manual

work one or two hours may be allowed. For the more abstract subjects from fifteen minutes to an hour will be enough.

The specific nature of the content of instruction should be readily seen. There should be few topics presented, usually only one. There should be no rapid movement in the same lesson from topic to topic. Even in review and drill, the lesson should be restricted to a few specific topics carefully defined and causally connected. Only in the test are miscellaneous topics consistent with effective instruction.

3. **Material and method.**—In the process of realising the aim there should be some guide holding the teacher closely to the lesson in hand. Such guide should be logical and should be supplemented by psychological interpretation.

(a) *Logical outline.*—The work of the term should be carefully mapped out in a series of method-wholes. There should be at least one for each week for each subject. Such logical outline should include (1) a series of connected topics causally arranged, (2) references to standard authorities and to allied literature, (3) possible correlations with the other subjects of the grade, and (4) type sentences, examples, questions, etc., on the subject-matter to be taught.

In addition to such outlines the teacher should have a daily plan of the work to be done. The daily plan should indicate (1) the topics to be covered in each of the subjects for the day, (2) type sentences, problems, experiments, etc., and (3) the method to be employed in presentation. Such a plan requires little time, it frees the teacher from further worry during instruction, and is usually a guarantee of effective instruction and discipline during the day.

(b) *Psychological arrangement.* — In presenting the topics to the children he should not follow the logical outline in the order of its arrangement, but should recognise the pupils' powers of assimilation and their ability to cope with the demands made upon them.

A psychological presentation necessitates the setting of proper copies and models, the use of concrete material, the employment of illustration, diagram, description, etc., relevant discussion, proper questioning, and reaction by the pupils in a sensorimotor manner. The teacher should not do all the work. He should suggest, set copies, build them up slowly before the children, but after that they should do the work. The pupils should be busy modeling, coloring, cutting, drawing, writing, figuring, and the like. The amount of instruction received by the children is not measured by violent performances of the teacher before the room, but by what the pupils actually do themselves.

Finally, in the matter of psychological presentation, the child as a *socius* should be considered. There should be some means by which he can receive approval. Exhibition of finished work, verbal commendation, artificial credits, etc., may be used. Positive approval should be used before disapproval is employed.

(c) *Material.* — When proper material is supplied, an effective use of it should be looked for. Thus, clay should be used in geography and history, colored paper, scissors, etc., in arithmetic, and so on. Material should not be restricted to paper, pencil, pen, and ink.

4. **Effects on the pupil.** — The effects to be looked for in the pupil will depend on the nature of the subject-matter and the stage and kind of the lesson given. Complete results should be expected only after the whole cycle, development, review, drill, and test has been gone through.

The teacher should be given every opportunity to complete a lesson before results are asked for.

The results of instruction will not be the same in every case. Often simple *recognition* and *appreciation* are all that are necessary. A great mass of detail, for example, is presented in history. But recall of it all can not be expected. The stories, illustrations, details, etc., are given to fasten the main fact. Thus, a pupil may know enough about the *Magna Charta* if he can tell that it is a declaration of rights similar to the American *Declaration of Independence*. He need not memorise its provisions, study the names of the barons who signed it, etc., though much of such detail may have been given.

Further knowledge is that of *recall*. Recall usually implies a cue and perhaps an ability to revive a series of words or acts upon its presentation. Accurate spelling should be insisted upon. Ability to speak and write fluently and correctly should be demanded. Natural phenomena should not be misunderstood. Ability to use figures accurately is necessary. But recognition only of geographical, historical, grammatical, and similar detail should be expected.

A higher knowledge is that in which the pupil can put together his ideas into new combinations or apply his principles to new situations. This is called knowledge of *reconstruction* or *control*. The schoolmaster calls it 'power,' though general power does not really exist outside of some specific content. A study of geographical surface should give the pupil a clue in judging of the value of real estate, a knowledge of grammar should enable him to write more correctly, skill in mechanical drawing should give him ability to map out a road, and so on.

The pupil should be able to go through a quantity of

matter, seize the salient points, and construct a brief *outline*. He should also be able to gather up his own knowledge in such topical form and develop the topics in an orderly, sequential, composition form. He should be able to go through a text-book or a number of books and search for information on some *topic*. He should know where to go for such information. And in the manual arts he should have some *skill* and facility in handling tools, mechanical instruments, and the media for color, finish, and design. Such results should be obtained without mental strain, weakened eyesight, spinal curvature, or general physical deterioration.

§ III. INEFFICIENCY IN INSTRUCTION

1. **Verbalism.** — Memoriter recitation and rote work at once stamp instruction as ineffective. Under no circumstances should the words of the book be demanded. Memory gems should of course be learned by heart and fine selections may be repeated verbally, but the usual text-book presentation is not worth repeating for its own sake. In manual work the teacher should not dictate line by line the parts of a working drawing nor indicate verbally the development of a design.

Words should not be used in lessons which demand other means of presentation. A teacher, for example, may talk with great skill on the formation of rivers, refer to concrete situations, and tell interesting stories relevant to the discussion. But he is dealing with words instead of with green fields and their adequate representation by the sand table, clay, etc. Arithmetic demands actual manipulation by the pupils of paper, scissors, blocks, etc. Literary interpretation requires illustration, dramatisation,

and the like. Imagine how barren a lesson on Shakespeare's *Julius Cæsar* must be to a boy who is told to study the meanings of the words in the next ten pages. A safe rule is to interpret what is unknown or partially unknown by the situation implied in its basic meaning. If the real situation is not available, use the next best representation of it.

The so-called object lesson is usually a humbug. A teacher may perform an experiment, go through various processes in an inductive manner, ask the pupils to draw a possible inference, and consider that his teaching has been effective. Induction, however, means nothing for the pupils unless they themselves have manipulated the objects and have appreciated the significance of the steps through an actual feel of the situation through use.

Lecturing is a common form of verbalism. The teacher usually talks too much. Too much lecturing may take place in history, nature study, geography, and English. Questioning should not be used to excess. Often it is used like the goad which a keeper will stick into the elephant to make him move forward.

Verbalism can be seen by inspection of class work. Results will be poor. The children will show confusion and inability when presented with work somewhat different from that given, though of the same kind. Improvement will be effected by model lessons, individual conference, suggestive reference to books on method, visitation, and kindly advice. Tests may be given in cooperation with the teacher.

2. Lack of development. — To be effective, a development requires (1) self-activity of the pupil under guidance, (2) thoroughness, (3) time, and (4) some congruence of the material used with the situation to be explained.

A teacher does not develop a lesson properly when he does all the work. Even induction is of little value if the particular instances are not controlled by the pupils. A teacher should not try to rival the vaudeville artist before the children. He may hold them spellbound, but he is not teaching.

Sufficient time should be allowed for the copies presented to soak in thoroughly. Patience is here a virtue. Explanation and simplification are not development. They are but the first steps. Time should be allowed for assimilation of the copy. Time should be given for active attempts at imitation. Time is necessary to correct errors in reproduction. Time is needed for approval of right actions. Time is indispensable if the pupil is to understand fully the aspects which have been presented.

The material should represent adequately the subject-matter to be presented. Thus, spacial representation in arithmetic requires scissor work, paper folding, coloring, and the like. Written work requires practice in writing, and calculation needs considerable practice in figuring. Geographical presentation requires manipulation of clay, sand, and the like. Experimentation is useless unless under full control of the pupils. Composition should be based upon the pupil's knowledge of matter on which he can write, and so on. Verbalism should not exclude more effective means of instruction.

In the selection of situations the teacher should take those which are familiar to the children. Home situations are more impressive than school situations, while what has been constructed or obtained by the child himself is most effective of all.

A lack of development is evident if the teacher goes ahead too fast, presents too many topics in a single lesson, does

all the work, or does not make use of diagrams, outlines, models, illustrations, color work, and the like. Concrete manifestations of development should be seen exhibited on the walls of the room. Four bare walls should stimulate further investigation. Lack of development will be shown by the answers which the children give. They will tend towards verbalism, definition, formula, rule, and will be weak in describing properties or qualities, in explaining clearly particular problems or situations, and in illustrating function and use. In talking with the teacher the principal will also be able to find out something of the teacher's aims and ideas concerning effective instruction.

Improvement will be effected by model lessons, by individual conferences and written suggestions, by explanation of the use of proper material, by references to books on method, and by allowing visitation to classrooms in which effective instruction is going on.

3. Lack of drill. — There are so many unlovely features about drill that it is often wrongly tabooed. To the on-looker, drill seems barren and mechanical. There is little show and little of the interplay between teacher and child so interesting to the observer. It goes ahead in a more or less even manner, it does not flash nor scintillate, and there is little opportunity for parade. Due to its confusion with some forms of ineffective instruction, legitimate drill is often looked upon with suspicion.

Drill is not restricted to facts. A teacher may have a lurking fear that he may imitate the celebrated Gradgrind or his worthy colleague, M'Choakumchild. The caution of Dickens may be dimly remembered. "Say, good M'Choakumchild. When from thy boiling store, thou shalt fill each jar brimful by and by, dost thou think that thou wilt always kill outright the robber Fancy lurking within —

or sometimes only maim and distort him ! ” No, drill applies to fact and fancy, emotions and sentiments, duties, rights, motives, and conduct. The misuse of drill as a means of cramming barren scholastic facts shows the inefficiency of the mechanical teachers concerned and not the inadequacy of drill.

Drill must never come before development and review, and when it does take place it must be restricted to those matters which are necessary for the child as an ethically and socially efficient being. Lists of any kind in grammar, arithmetic, geography, science, nature study, etc., should be avoided. Verbal definitions and formulæ should be given with caution. Rules in arithmetic are an abomination. In many other things, however, drill is necessary.

Drill is necessary in the actual doing of examples and the solving of problems. For this, many problems should be given for practice. Drill is necessary for correct analysis of sentences and the proper use of the forms of words. For this, much material should be at hand to allow of sufficient practice in usage and analysis. Drill is necessary before the children can learn perspective. Let them make many sketches and draw many objects. Drill is necessary before the children understand the physical aspects of a country. Let them mold many maps. Drill is necessary before the children can talk and read properly. Let them read as much as possible, and give them every opportunity to express themselves. Drill is necessary before the pupils can write systematic compositions. Let them write in paragraph form in answering history, geography, or science tests. Let them synopsis and again expand stories or poems read. Let them write their adventures, their complaints, or what not. Drill is necessary for correct spelling. Let the words be written, spoken, heard, explained, defined,

discussed. If necessary, talk them into a phonograph and let the machine repeat them for half an hour or so.

The nature of the knowledge should not be changed by drill. After children have learned to mold a map, for example, drill does not consist in a verbal repetition of its physical features. So, too, after a boy has read and appreciated certain passages in a masterpiece, drill does not consist in a study of verbal definitions. Verbalism should at no time replace other forms of activity, as drawing, modeling, diagraming, or what not.

Drill should follow certain rules. There should be *focalisation*.² One topic, one activity, one kind of appreciation, one feature in design, should be presented. Such topics are not isolated, but have about them a web of relations woven in previous development lessons. Focalisation refers to the emphasis upon one thing in a series, system, or institution already understood.

There should be sufficient *repetition* properly distributed. No one has yet found any other means of bringing about adequate impression and retention. The other means can all be reduced to repetition.³ *Recency, vividness, primacy, emotional congruity* are simply means by which repetition is secured. An impression in early childhood or one vivid, pleasurable, or interesting will, by virtue of that fact, recur again. This creates a new impression, strengthening the first. The scenes of our childhood are constantly being

² On 'drill,' see: Bagley, William Chandler, *The Educative Process*, Ch. XXI. Roark, Ruric N., *Method in Education*, Ch. VI. White, Emerson E., *The Art of Teaching*, Ch. VII.

³ On 'secondary laws of association,' see: Calkins, Mary Whiton, 'Association, An Essay, Analytic and Experimental,' *Psych. Rev.*, *Mon. Sup.* 2, 1896. James, W., *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. XIV. Arnold, Felix, 'The Psychology of Association,' *Arch. of Phil., Psych. and Sci. Meth.*, 1906, Ch. VII.

resurrected by our friends, our household gods, tokens, reminders, and the like. So, too, a strong emotional overtone will tend to excite a former impression with which it was connected, even if the present stimulus is something different. So repeated opportunity exists for the revival of the old impression.

Repetition should be *properly distributed*.⁴ If, for example, five hours are to be spent on a topic, more good will be obtained if it is cut up into half-hour or hour periods than if it is divided into two-hour periods. Much of the time after an hour's continuous application is usually wasted with children.

Effective drill requires a *mass of material*. Such material should be so varied as to afford *difference* and *change*. This necessitates an abundance of examples and problems in arithmetic, a large selection of sentences for use in grammar, sufficient material and apparatus for experimentation, construction, and modeling, a library within reach for appreciation, interpretation, and topical study, drawing material for illustration, surface development, and so on. *Concrete filling* should be given wherever possible. To repeat fifty times that two and two are four is not so good as to talk about two boys and two girls, two rabbits chased by two dogs, two marks crossed by two others, and the like.

Finally, effective drill requires that an *appeal be made to every pupil in the class through as many senses as possible*. On this account, oral drill must proceed rather rapidly, while the best drills are usually written. The mistaken notion that the teacher must be doing something in the

⁴ See Jost, Alfred, 'Die Assoziationsfestigkeit in ihrer Abhängigkeit von der Verteilung der Wiederholungen,' *Zeit. f. Psych.* 14, 1897.

front of the room has led many principals to look with suspicion on the teacher who is not so engaged. Often, however, the teacher is doing most effective work when he is quietly sitting down doing nothing. His activity consists in home preparation, setting of models, etc.

The simplest way to test efficiency in drill is to seek results. A caution is here necessary. An examination should test both the subject which has been taught and the special manner in which the topics have been drilled upon. If drill has been on profit and loss, the test should not be on commission or something else. So, too, if the drill was on oral arithmetic, the test should not be a written one. Teacher and principal should agree on the questions to be given.

An inspection of the material used will give the principal some indication of efficiency of drill. He may be fairly sure of good work if a large and varied amount of matter dealing with one topic is at hand. Visitation will give him an opportunity of finding out whether the drill is restricted to a few topics, is properly conducted in the matter of repetition, distribution of time, etc. Improvement will be effected by model lessons, by repeated tests, by individual conferences, suggestions, etc.

4. Concert recitation. — Concert recitation is a form of drill, but it is sometimes used to little purpose. Concert recitation deals with and overemphasises words. It does not reach every member of the class through different sense appeals. Usually a few lead and the rest follow. It leads to verbalism, to a tendency to repeat meaningless words. It deadens initiative, puts all on the same level, and encourages the hesitancy which is dependent upon the efforts of others. It is noisy and tends to destroy clear, distinct expression and logical orderly thought. It is usually a

method of marking time and killing time. The concert answer is as bad as the concert drill. Usually a few pupils do all the work, as a written test will show. The objections against concert drill hold against the concert answer.

Concert drill may be permissible as a finishing touch and where the subject-matter is verbal and of a mechanical nature. Thus, arithmetic tables, spelling words, memory gems, historical dates, names of countries, etc., allow of no change through individual endeavor, and are the same for all. Such drill, however, should be preceded and followed by individual questioning and written work. Any subject which deals with processes, relations, causal or topical outlines, and which allows of variations in presentation, should not be put into a strait-jacket nor trimmed to make it fit the concert drill.

5. **Lack of review.** — Review and test are a kind of drill, but not all drill is review or test. Review is a new view for the purpose of organising material, of arranging and binding topics together in a causal series, of connecting the new with the old, of emphasising aspects of previous knowledge which are necessary for the understanding of new material, of giving freshness and vividness to knowledge which may be somewhat faded, of throwing a number of discrete topics into a kind of bird's-eye view. Drill may be repetition on one topic or fact, but review is usually concerned with a system or series. The function of drill is repetition, that of review is organisation.

There should be a period at the beginning of the term devoted to a review of the preceding term and also a period at the end of the term devoted to a review of the grade work itself. There should be a review at least every month. Review may be necessary at the beginning of a

lesson to revive old knowledge or to emphasise aspects relevant to the new work. It may be needed at the end of the lesson to connect the various parts into a systematic whole.

Review may take place by oral questioning, by arrangement of subject-matter in the form of topical outline, by expansion of topical outline, by drawing of a scheme, map, plot, diagram, by constructing a short summary, by forming a causal series, by comparing one system or series with another, either as a whole or point by point, by explaining some new situation by means of what has already been assimilated and learned, by the formulation of a principle, rule, law, definition, or concept, by subsuming particular cases under such principle, by a comprehensive illustration or dramatisation, by a proper test, or what not.

The absence of review can be determined by visitation, by individual conference with the teacher, and by sporadic tests. Lack of review will be seen by the scattered way in which the pupils arrange their answers, by the inconsequential and random succession of topics discussed or written by them, by the undue emphasis placed on trivial or irrelevant matter, by an inability to connect situations causally related, by a want of power to summarise in outline or topical form chief events, basic situations, emphatic viewpoints, etc.

The principal can aid the teacher by model lessons, by suggestions on the time of review, by a formulation of schemes of review, by suggestions on material, note-books, and the like.

6. **General inefficiency.** — The teacher may be going ahead under guidance of a general idea of the work and a hazy notion of what the boys are getting out of it. He

may have fixed periods set for instruction in the different subjects, he may be active at all times of the day, but his method and the subjects or topics taught may be guided by his spirit, which goeth whither it listeth.

If tests for drill yield no result, if tests for development draw a blank, if classroom visitation shows waste of time, the principal should proceed very slowly. He should not fly into a rage. He should find out what are the weaknesses to which the ineffective instruction is due. Then he should proceed to cooperate in instruction one step at a time.

The importance of work carefully planned should be insisted upon in private conference. Discussion will force the teacher to look up books on method, if only to cover his own ignorance. Easy tests should be given to encourage further effort. A series of model lessons will be helpful. The whole series suggested in the preceding chapter on cooperation in instruction may be necessary.

Minor defects in instruction may interfere with the general work. Unnecessary dictation of examples, sentences, rules, formulæ, etc., may be demanded of the pupils. The teacher may show a lack of skill in asking questions. He may fail to make use of the children's previous knowledge. He may have no aim or he may confuse minor aims with more mechanical ones. He may be disgruntled, he may be constantly complaining of the children, or he may have a 'pull.' A thousand and one conditions may underlie inefficiency. The general state of mind, however, in general inefficiency is that spirit which takes no thought for the morrow and considers that the evils of the day are sufficient unto the overworked teacher.

§ IV. EFFICIENCY IN DISCIPLINE

1. **Motivation in the pupil.** — Motivation may be positive or negative. It may be based in general (1) on sympathy, approval, and initiative, or (2) on fear, disapproval, and dependence. The only motivation to be used in effective discipline is the former.

Positive motivation can be determined by watching the attitude of the children towards the teacher. The pupils should show pleasure in doing their work, and will turn towards the teacher for his commendation and approval. The teacher needs but to give a nod or a look to receive a smiling and cheerful obedience. If the pupils are in such apple-pie order that they seem to be baked, it is a question whether real discipline is present. Rigid back-bone, stiff neck, eyes straight ahead may present a soldierly appearance, may look pretty, but they are usually the result of suppression. No conduct is possible because there is no life, no animation in such a case. Certain external signs of proper motivation should be looked for. The room should be well decorated and should show contributions from the children. The teacher should be at ease without the artificial stare or the repelling grimace of a martinet. Sarcasm, threat, bulldosing, insinuation, or personal remarks should not be heard. The 'sharp eye' should have no place and disapproval will be rarely used.

It is often difficult to ascertain positively whether proper motivation exists because the teacher may have a clever scheme of government by monitors whether he is in or out of the room. The one sure test, however, is the attitude of the children towards the teacher, in the yard, on the street, and outside of the classroom. His influence will be shown there by the actions of the children in his

presence. If they shrink away when he passes by, or hold aloof when he is near, it is safe to infer that his control is not of the best.

2. **Aim of the teacher.** — As the teacher is concerned with conduct at all times, so his aims must be present persistently and consistently. The aim of his government should be good order, of his training the formation of right habits, of his instruction the presentation of copies and the formulation of precepts, and of his discipline in general abundant practice with effective selection of what is good and serviceable.

Good order can be seen in the entrance and dismissal of the pupils, in the distribution of material, in the appearance of the papers and written work done by the pupils. Instruction and discipline are accompanied by a comparative quiet or by the buzz and hum which is indicative of effective work. Order in general implies a certain obedience and subjection to rule so that further social contact and conduct may be possible.

Training is manifest by the manner in which pupils stand and sit, by the quality of their discourse, by their general manner of self-control and toleration for the opinions and feelings of others. Such little things as, 'Please,' and 'Thank you,' of 'Excuse me,' and 'I beg your pardon,' should be a part of the child's second nature. In more mechanical actions, training and instruction go hand in hand. The ruling of books, the use of pen and pencil, the care of ruler, desk, etc., are matters which belong to training and government.

Instruction is bound with every form of discipline. With government and training it assumes the form of precept, rule, request, and example. It should be positive. Not, 'Do not,' but rather, 'Try,' should predomi-

nate. Example, with attention called to the essential feature, is effective, as, 'Watch and see how I hold my ruler,' or, 'Try again this way.' In matters of personal behavior simple example without comment is effective. With a smile the teacher need simply say, 'Please,' or 'Thank you,' and do nothing more. It is often a pitiable sight to see a huge teacher hovering over a small, shrinking, downcast boy, shaking him, and repeating with each shake, "Say it! Say it! Say, 'Excuse me.'" Manners and personal behavior can not thus be shocked into a child.

Instruction may take the form of historical narrative or literary appreciation. In such instruction the moral should be allowed to work itself out its own way. Simply an artistic and impressive presentation of the story is necessary. Stories which are manufactured for the sake of some moral or specific virtue lack human feeling and personal appeal and should not be used.

In the higher forms of discipline instruction takes the form of social contact with the pupils. The teacher should persistently act towards the pupils in that manner which he wishes to develop in them. The process of imitation is here operative in effecting proper response.

Finally, practice with effective selection should be afforded wherever possible. The pupils should be allowed to do as much as possible for themselves. Some institution allowing of self-directed practice is necessary, as a class library, a patrol system, a committee on general affairs, work at some common object, afternoon outings, and the like.

Selection of right conduct should follow graded steps, (1) approval, (2) withholding of approval, and (3) graded disapproval. If something goes wrong, the teacher should not use his heaviest guns first, but should try the weakest

forms of disapproval. Stronger means of disapproval should be used only after the weaker ones have failed.

3. Material and method. — In good government the method is that of suggestion and precept with occasional setting of copies. Furthering conditions, as short lesson periods, proper ventilation, adequate material for work, etc., are helpful. The teacher should be calm, collected, and firm. He should act as if good order is to be taken for granted.

In training, the teacher should seek to develop right habits. He should let pass no slipshod expression nor attitude, and should allow expression of self-initiative and individual effort. He must set good models, correct and guide the pupils, and approve efforts in the right direction.

Practice with effective selection will necessitate a close rapport between the teacher and the children. When addressing them he should deal with them as having social rights. Ordinary social conduct as practised outside of the school should be his standard for the usual intercourse which he holds with the pupils. The general method to be followed is (1) the setting of proper models, (2) the facilitation of actual practice by suggestion, precept, encouragement of self-expression and imitation, and establishment of situations in which conduct can take place, and (3) selection by graded approval and disapproval.

The second part of this volume is concerned wholly with the general and the special development of conduct. More explicit directions in connection with government, training, instruction, and selected practice will be found there.

4. Effects on the pupil. — The following features of good government should be conspicuous. The room should be quiet and orderly. Material should be passed carefully and without unnecessary noise. The children should be sitting at ease and there should be no centers of disturb-

ance anywhere. The best order is that in which the class goes quietly ahead with its work even if the teacher is sitting in the rear of the room or is out of it altogether.

In effective training certain individual traits should be manifest. The child should know how to stand, how to express himself, and what to say under the conventional social conditions. His work should show care and should be stamped with the signs of honest effort. He should show some restraint and respect for the rights of others.

Right action should be shown in the acts of the child in the classroom and outside of it. In expressing opinions on historical and literary topics his ideals will come to light. His toleration for the ideas and conduct of others, his sense of fairness, his respect for school property, can be seen in games and other social movements.

Discipline should result in the development of self-control, in the fixation of habits of social action and expression, in the cultivation of respect for the rights of others, in a nurture of notions of civic obligations and duties, in a stimulation towards a clean healthy life of social service and endeavor.

§ V. INEFFICIENCY IN DISCIPLINE

1. **Lack of government.** — No government exists where the class does as it pleases. To take an extreme case, if the boys are hooting, throwing spit-balls at the teacher and ink at each other, rolling marbles on the floor, and acting in a riotous manner generally, one does not need glasses to see that a lack of government is present. In less extreme cases incessant talking during exposition by the teacher, dropping books or rulers noisily, playing tricks, and the like, are indicative of ineffective govern-

ment. So, too, obedience given in a half-hearted manner, slouchy entrance, and disorderly dismissal show a want of control by the teacher.

Better than no control is that control which holds pupils in rigid, fixture-like postures, and insures the absence of bad conduct by shutting out any possibility of social behavior. The martinet who holds the children in fear of him, who will not hesitate to throw a boy forcibly against the seat if he is not erect, may have a certain kind of government, but he has not the basis for higher discipline towards which all government should tend.

Minor defects in government can be corrected by individual conference and suggestion. A model lesson might be given to show the relation of government to instruction, and to show methods of procedure in government. Other aids I have suggested in the preceding chapter.

2. Lack of training. — Too often school discipline stops short at training, while training and social practice are overlooked. Lack of training is shown by boorish attitudes of the children, by ignorance of conventional forms of social behavior, and by a disregard for the rights of others. In general school procedure, it is shown by a slipshod manner of speaking, standing, and doing work. The principal should keep constantly before the teachers, by conference, by personal appeal, and by platform harangue, aims of training upon which all should agree. There should be a persistent, uniform movement to realise the aims which have been discussed and selected by principal and teachers.

3. Lack of selected practice. — If there is no institution in which social contact is possible, if there are no situations which call for individual endeavor, the highest kind of discipline will be impossible. A rigid, motionless class

will indicate such a lack of practice. Pupils should be allowed to do as much for themselves as possible. In the midst of work each should tend to himself. It is better for a pupil to supply his own needs while writing or modeling than to have them cared for by a monitor.

Some institutions and situations should exist favorable to social contact, as a class library, excursions, games, departments for cleaning, etc., groups working at a common object, friendly social intercourse with refreshments, and the like.

Commendation and approval should be freely employed. Work done voluntarily by children should be exhibited on the classroom walls. A bulletin board should be used for notices, etc. Whatever tends to make the children look upon the room as their own will tend to develop in them the spirit of social service and an appreciation and interest in school property. Four bare walls are in themselves a sign of inferior discipline. No teacher should be continually complaining of his class nor should he find fault with it as a whole. If he does this, the result is an antagonism between himself and the children which will cause conduct to degenerate. He will, moreover, become almost useless as an approving medium.

4. Lack of personality. — Personality is a dynamic thing. It is a conscious endeavor by the teacher to make socially serviceable all the material and spiritual stores which he possesses.

The teacher who is merely a hearer of recitations can not have such a social reach as is demanded by personality. He must do something or make something for class use. He may make a chart, build a relief map, construct apparatus, or what not. By offering it for individual use here, and by encouraging pupils to make similar objects, his

material self becomes more closely linked with that of the children. In things of more spiritual nature a similar process can take place. The teacher should use his knowledge to guide the children's reading, to offer them advice, suggest amusements, and the like. He should listen patiently to the stories and experiences which children will relate to him. Socially the teacher should not hold back the smile that encourages, or the silent touch that implies kinship and friendship. He should listen to the grievances confided to him, be willing to talk to the children on a social level, and at times participate in any social activities or games which may be going on. He should not restrict his kindness and sympathy for an esoteric few.

Lack of personality is shown by bare classroom walls, or by walls covered in a perfunctory manner, by the avoidance of the teacher by the pupils after school hours, by the constraint and frigidity manifested by the children when in the presence of the teacher, and by a general lack of opportunity for social intercourse, as in afternoon meetings, individual talks, games, excursions, and the like.

§ VI. SECONDARY FACTORS IN EFFICIENCY

1. **Effort.** — Signs of effort are manifested by almost all teachers. In fact, most teachers work too hard, expend too much energy, and accomplish too little. A teacher who shrieks at the pupils, who detains them, who wears himself down in an endeavor to impose his will on the children, is working with the best of intentions, but his energy is woefully misguided. The principal should not add to his burdens by attempting correction through further driving. He should analyse, simplify, lessen the

actual work of the teacher by substituting skill for force. Where a principal sees effort he has the foundation of an efficient teacher. He should then cooperate properly.

There is, however, a more positive aspect of effort which should receive consideration. Any special work done by the teacher in furthering school activities, in helping to beautify the school, organise meetings, or what not, should receive some form of approval. Similarly, efforts in the classroom not called for by the letter of the law, as contributions in the shape of apparatus, books, decorations, etc., should be noticed in some manner.

2. Preparation. — Most of the self-activity of the teacher is exercised outside of the school in a careful study of authorities, in a simplification and arrangement of subject-matter, and in a search for adequate and sufficient material. This is a part of his preparation.

To economise his energy, the teacher usually embodies the best which he has found in written notes, outlines, diagrams, and suggestive references. Such material is usually arranged in monthly or weekly sections in the form of a logical outline, which will insure sequence and consistency in his classroom presentation. Good teaching is impossible without some such outline. Professional preparation is necessary in the way of study, attendance at university courses, and visitation of other schools. Included in the preparation of the teacher are his care and arrangement of supplies. Economic distribution among the pupils and careful consideration of the best use to which the material can be put are also important features.

3. Personal manner. — Neatness and appropriateness of dress may be considered desirable in a teacher. He should dress quietly. The voice should be soothing, clear, and well articulated. It should breathe forth a spirit of

kindliness and sympathy. Harsh, strident tones should be avoided. His general attitude should be one of broad toleration and all-embracing sympathy. He should not insist on having his own way, especially when it is immaterial whether the children do a thing one way or the other. He should respect the rights of the children, their property, their blind struggles to see the light. The teacher should be firm when the occasion demands. But a stand should be taken only when it is a question of truth, justice, or consistency which is binding on himself as well as on the pupils. Firmness should not be mistaken for narrow-minded insistence. The teacher should not be 'firm with the boy' as was Mr. Murdstone with poor David Copperfield. Finally, he should show some self-reliance and self-control. He should consider the children as charges to be improved by him. This will often compel him to use patience and sympathy with children, who, were they adults, might be referred to the police.

§ VII. CAUSES OF INEFFICIENCY

1. **Instruction.** — A fertile source of much trouble in the classroom is a lack of adequate preparation. The teacher who has no work nor fit material ready usually depends on his memory, the school text-books, lists, formal subjects, as arithmetic, grammar, and spelling, and concert drill. Necessarily his work is dry and repelling and conducive to conflict between the boys and himself. It is so easy to have the boys parse words or repeat lists, so simple to have them recite something in the next ten pages, so natural to detain them if they can not give or name cities, rules, dates, or what not, that some inefficient teachers follow such a method. The principal can determine lack

of preparation by visitation, personal inquiry, and discussion. He should suggest standard authorities in subject-matter and method; he should show model plan-books; he should insist on signs of preparation, as logical outlines, daily plan, concrete material, etc.; he should indicate means of correlation, and allow visitation to other schools.

Ignorance of method may be a fault. With beginners there are usually too many topics presented and too little time is allowed for their assimilation. The teacher tends to do too much himself. Questions may be put after a boy has been called, verbal definitions may precede development, questions in a text-book may be mechanically set for answer, composition may be demanded without mental preparation or oral expression, and the like. Ignorance of method can be judged by visitation to the classroom, and by individual conference and discussion with the teacher. Improvement will be effected by model lessons, written suggestions, conference, reference to books on method, and visitation to other classrooms by the teacher.

Appreciation of the necessity of review and drill may be wanting. The teacher may be satisfied with knowledge of recognition, or with the pupils' own assertions that they know the subject. Tests will quickly bring to light such weakness, even when the questions are selected by the teacher himself. The principal should point out the necessity of drill. He should give model lessons and show the results which can be obtained. With the teacher he should prepare fair tests in subjects which have not been drilled upon. He may outline a method of drill and indicate the rules of drill, topics, modes of repetition, and kind of material to be used. Reference to books on method will be of aid.

An absence of definite aims and a wrong valuation of secondary aims may result in a waste of effort. Such errors usually go hand in hand with scanty preparation and hand-to-mouth teaching. Overemphasis on show work, failure to allow the pupils to react completely, selection of unnecessary detail, etc., may be found. Conference, individual discussion, model lessons, reference to books on method, insistence on adequate preparation, etc., will effect some improvement.

Where there is really a lack of effort and an apathetic indifference in the teacher, the problem is a delicate one. The principal should try to get at the root of the matter by kindly conversation and personal appeal. He should carefully examine his own conduct. He should look to surrounding conditions. He should seek to discover whether or not the teacher is overworked, ill, fatigued, or troubled with outside matters. For the time the principal should lighten the work of the teacher, use approval freely, and aid personally as much as he can.

Shirking should receive prompt cooperation on the part of the principal. Shirking is evident if the teacher reads novels or writes letters in the afternoon, or if he uses school time to fill out blanks, membership notices, and the like. Dereliction may also be suspected if written work falls persistently short, if yard or other assignments are persistently neglected, if required reports are hardly ever sent out. After positive means have been used without effect, the principal should begin use of graded disapproval.

Cheerful optimism should not be confused with intentional shirking. Little can be done to change a teacher's nature. Kindly stimulation by visitation, tests, cautions, friendly warnings, and suggestive advice will aid in strengthening the teacher.

2. **Discipline.** — Most trouble in school discipline arises from weak government. Especially is the new teacher a problem. Some consideration of the new teacher is therefore necessary.

The new or substitute teacher should not disregard class precedents nor dictate matters regardless of previous methods of procedure. He should follow the class till he is sure of his footing. He should find out the class routine and should keep closely to it. His general attitude should be one of cooperation and aid. He should have sufficient work on hand to keep the children occupied. He should not take up subjects which allow of discussion or argument and should eschew oral work as much as possible. Reading, written work, manual work, map drawing, diagramming, etc., should be employed. He should overlook any small occurrences which are subdued and which do not threaten to break out into open disorder.⁵

The principal can do much to prevent unnecessary commotion. Before he allows a substitute teacher to go into a classroom he should (1) explain to the class the new conditions and insist on their cooperation, (2) tell the new teacher of the work done by the class, the customs followed, etc., (3) suggest work or let the teacher outline the day's work before he enters the class, and (4) introduce the teacher to the class. In addition, he should visit the class from time to time, remove if necessary the more obstreperous pupils, and see that proper material is supplied. He might test the class and so lend his authority in effecting good government.

For the regular teacher no such precautions are necessary. But ineffective discipline is met with even in such

⁵ For full directions for the new or substitute teacher, see below, Ch. XI, § IV.

a case. The teacher may stir childish rebellion by not respecting the children's rights or by suppressing perfectly harmless tendencies. Personalities, sarcastic remarks, confiscation of property, as penknives, etc., rough handling, nagging, withholding of deserved approval, and the like may breed discontent, sulks, tantrums, or violent destruction of property. In such a case the principal should try to develop consistent courteous behavior in the teacher by conference and private discussion, by model treatment of the children in the classroom, and by humane consideration of the teacher himself.

Disorder often arises from a lack of preparation for instruction. Either the teacher does not supply enough to keep the children busy, or his instruction is beyond the pupils, or he does not show consideration for the individual aptitudes of the children. He may, for example, try to force grammar upon a boy scientifically inclined, or he may go ahead so fast and so arbitrarily that to follow him becomes a strain. The children usually will then find work of their own, and disorder results. The principal should point out the necessity of effective instruction by individual conference and advice, by model lessons, written instructions and outlines of work, and by references to books on method.

The teacher may lack personality. He may insist on absolute stillness, rigid lines, etc., and he may use threats, negative disapproval, and the like. The principal should suggest remedies as outlined above in the section on personality. He should suggest that the teacher abandon his policy and try to establish a living personality.

A want of graded approval and disapproval, variability in temper, excitability over small matters, inconsistent and unjust application of rules, peculiarities in expression,

voice, manner, or dress, suggestion of disorder by threats and expressed prohibition of it, lack of vigilance, or what not may be at the bottom of class disorder. Environmental conditions may also stimulate it, as long lesson periods, improper ventilation, badly shaped seats and desks, climatic conditions, etc. If the child himself is to blame, the principal should analyse the case, and proceed as explained in the preceding chapter.

Little attention is paid to inefficiency in training or in the higher forms of discipline, because such inefficiency may be consistent with good order. In fact, efforts to encourage training and practice may at times ruffle the calm and quiet of government. One reason for a lack of training is indifference. It is much easier to let a class sit still all day than to stir individual action or to correct their many errors. The actions of the pupils, however, in and out of the classroom should be a matter of school concern. The principal should outline certain duties which should be enforced, as the conventional modes of expression, and appreciation for the more basic rights. He should set forth his aims by conference, and should suggest means by model lessons, reference to books on method, etc. Indirect aid is given by establishing school institutions, as pupil self-government, athletics, excursions, games, meetings, and the like.

§ VIII. KINDS OF INEFFICIENT TEACHERS

1. **The aggressive inefficient.**⁶ — Often a well-built, vigorous individual, with a look of intelligence and a hail-

⁶ I use the descriptive terms 'aggressive' and 'flabby.' These expressions, however, correspond to the more scientific terms 'active' and 'passive,' 'dynamic' and 'static,' 'excitation' and 'depression,' 'extensibility' and 'contractility,' etc.

fellow-well-met air, a man who impresses one with his vigor and general ability, may be a failure in classroom work. Aggressiveness and insistence assume different forms. I shall indicate them briefly.

Among young teachers we find an impulsive, headstrong type, full of new ideas, self-assertive, active in devising schemes, and brooking little interference. Through the flashes of brilliancy, however, which such a teacher may show, under the occasional dazzling outbursts of splendor which he may produce, there is often wanting that cold, hard, and dry system which is indispensable to the best work. The impulsive teacher usually is satisfied with knowledge of recognition, he hurries along too fast, he hesitates to stay too long on one subject lest it lose interest, he often does too much of the objective work himself.

The principal should not consider the self-assertion of the young teacher too seriously, nor should he attempt to 'show him his place.' Abrupt order and official driving will usually be met with spirited resistance. First, the principal should go through the regulation means of co-operation in instruction and discipline. At the end of a month or so he should ask the teacher to select some questions for test in a certain subject. The class should be tested. The result will probably fall short of the teacher's expectations. The principal should then go over the results with the teacher, show him possible means of improvement, suggest effective means of review and drill, talk over specific remedies, outline a series of topics or plan of procedure, give model lessons if necessary, and let the teacher then cogitate on the matter. The principal should remember that with the young teacher suggestions and kindly advice are more effective than direct order or censure.

With older teachers such a state of affairs is rarely found. Age and routine have done their work, and often the principal wishes for the vitality of youth. Two types somewhat different from the impulsive are found.

There is the emotional, easily biased type. The teacher is governed by his likes and dislikes, by his feelings, by prejudice. He will put forth wholly irrational grounds in opposition to suggestion and advice. The cool air and dry light of reason will have little charm for him. Such a type is easily detected by the irrelevancy of reasons put forth, by an almost childish insistence on some course of action, by emotional outbursts if opposition is shown to some one-sided view, by open expressions of like and dislike, by gushing insistence on some scheme or hobby, by attitudes and actions which show dissent even if verbal acquiescence is given.

Discussion in conference among all the teachers will aid in improving such a teacher. Constant reference to printed matter and to hard, objective fact will be beneficial. Development of a sympathetic rapport by kindly acts, little favors, compromise, or even total agreement on immaterial matters will aid. The teacher may be brought face to face with the results of his misguided endeavor by tests prepared in part by himself. In general the principal should listen to petty grievances, complaints, emotional outbursts, etc., offer sympathy where possible, and give aid if necessary. He should, however, rise above possible contagion, party spirit, or personal spite. He should go calmly ahead with legitimate means of cooperation, let the teacher if necessary come face to face with his own work, and join with the teacher in renewed effort.

The above-mentioned types can readily be changed to individuals doing work of a high grade of efficiency. There

is, however, an aggressive kind of teacher who is domineering in manner, ignorant in matter, zealous in defending his own misguiding aims, quick to forestall criticism by complaint of his own, loud of speech and emphatic of gesture.

The principal should not be overawed by such a one, nor should he try to keep things quiet by offering some privileges here, or showing leniency there. If there are no reasonable grounds for the teacher's aggressive tactics, they should simply be added to the other indications of inefficiency which exist. If the teacher is really inefficient as determined by all reasonable tests, the principal should cooperate just as he would with any other teacher. The teacher should be brought face to face with his own work. Not his verbal protestations, but his actual class work, should be used as a basis of discussion. If necessary, the principal should quietly collect written data so that the teacher can have no excuses to offer. He should also show what steps he has taken to aid the teacher. If such means are ineffective, graded disapproval should be used.

2. **The flabby inefficient.** — The principal has a somewhat different problem in the loose-fibered or weak individual. The teacher may be easy-going and good-natured. He may do his work in a slovenly manner and yet take such a cheerful view of things that good, bad, and indifferent all seem to him variations of some general good. He may have no discipline, he may insist on no accurate work, he may find no fault with haphazard results. It becomes imperative in such a case to impress higher ideals and fix new standards. The teacher should be induced to prepare systematic work in the shape of notes, plans, etc. His work should be compared with that of others.

Fixed periods for tests should be agreed upon. Visitation should be regular. Personal appeal will be effective if there is a basis of mutual confidence and respect. Individual conferences and personal advice should be given.

A somewhat different type is the teacher who is willing, but who seems unable to come up to the proper standards of efficiency. Such a case should be carefully analysed. The teacher may be overanxious, he may lack confidence in himself, he may be nervous or timid, or he may lack poise, external presence, or what not. The principal should show sympathy and friendship. He should try to remove any suspicion that he is looking for weaknesses or seeking an opportunity to find fault. Abundant material should be given and thorough preparation should be suggested. Till the teacher has developed a certain control the principal should overlook small errors. Model lessons and frequent visitations should show both pupils and teacher that the principal has a friendly interest in the class work.

A third kind of inefficient teacher is the apathetic, indifferent one. He may have had all initiative crushed out of him by previous principals, he may have family troubles, he may consider himself misused, he may be a friend of a prominent politician, or what not. The principal should encourage effort by manifesting an interest in the class work, by approval wherever possible, by personal appeal, model lessons, and individual conference. Disapproval in such a case will have little effect. Self-initiative can be developed by discussing questions with the teacher on a level, by using some of his classroom devices for conference illustration, by showing some of his work to officials, visitors, and the like. ° An effort should be made to have such a teacher develop a living personality.

3. The insubordinate inefficient. — Insubordination is a serious thing, and a principal should be sure that it exists before taking any radical measures. Insubordination is an expressed refusal to carry out instructions when such instructions are called for by official regulations, course of study, etc. It is not, however, refusal to obey, as such. It is not disagreement with the principal's opinions. It is not neglect. Disobedience of instructions may be classed as inefficiency, but it becomes insubordination only when it is expressed, and when the injunctions are covered by some specific by-law, contract, or course of study. Prevention is more effective than attempts at cure. The principal should refrain from personal abuse, irrational demands, illegitimate requests, threats, suppression, and discourtesy of any kind. If necessary, he should make preparations to forestall a coming storm. If explanation, honorable apology, or personal support are due to the teacher, they should not be withheld.

Even in such a case a teacher may openly refuse to carry out instructions. The principal should say nothing for the time. He should keep copies of all his written directions. He should gather as much evidence of the teacher's inefficiency as possible, as results of tests, written work, etc. In the presence of a third party, the clerk or head of department, he should ask the teacher whether he considers it his duty to carry out specific regulations. He should report the matter to his superior and ask him to investigate. Finally, charges should be preferred. In all this, however, conventional courtesy should be shown to the teacher, and evidence of positive cooperation in instruction and discipline should be given.

§ IX. THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

As a general rule, the principal of a high school will have less need of visitation and examination of work. But he should not on that account hold aloof from the instructors. Occasional visits will tend to encourage instructors and teachers alike, and talks on general matters will do much good. Tests can be arranged with the instructors in charge of the different subjects. Discipline can be judged by visitation. Efficiency and inefficiency will follow the same general rules as in the elementary school with whatever modifications are necessitated by the age of the pupils and the difference in the subjects. The means above suggested for cooperation in instruction, discipline, and supervision should be followed by any supervising officer or superintendent. Modifications are necessary in some of the special subjects, but these are slight and can be made by the individual himself.

PART II

TEACHER AND CHILD

CHAPTER VI

THE CHILD

§ I. THE PREADOLESCENT CHILD

1. **The physical self.** — Up to about the fourteenth year we have the child in all his attractiveness and loveliness. No sharp age line can be drawn. Sometimes the change to adolescence may not become evident before the fifteenth year. It seldom is very manifest in the thirteenth year. The characterisation of the preadolescent child may be considered to apply through the twelfth year, and in some cases through the thirteenth.

The distinction between these two marked periods in school life is most vital if discipline is to be properly understood and rationally applied. Much of the trouble in discipline comes from a misunderstanding of the changes which occur after the fourteenth year. Discipline applicable to most of the children may be ineffective with some of the adolescents. Much of the trouble with high school pupils arises from the same cause. It behooves the teacher, therefore, to know something of those attributes of the child in both stages, preadolescent and adolescent, which relate particularly to conduct.

The preadolescent child is extremely active with body, head, arms, fingers, and legs. His wriggling, squirming, poking into the desk, playing with ruler or pencil, are nothing more than a necessary means of relieving the pressure of his overflowing vitality. Often such movements do not interfere with the regular work. Often they indicate that the teacher is not giving him enough to do. Hall points out such movements as signs of vitality and ability.

Abundance and vigor of these movements are desirable, and even a considerable degree of restlessness is a good sign in young children. Many of what are now often called nerve signs and even choreic symptoms, the fidgetiness in school on cloudy days and often after a vacation, motor superfluities of awkwardness, embarrassment, extreme effort, excitement, fatigue, sleepiness, etc., are simply the forms in which we receive the full momentum of heredity, and mark a natural richness of the raw material of intellect, feeling, and especially of will.¹

The child is restless because he can not help himself. The incoming impressions fall on a relatively small background of experience, they can not be shunted off into higher levels of consciousness, they can hardly be used for deliberation and thought, and so they must pass out into motor channels.²

In most of the children's actions there is a crudeness, awkwardness, and error which should not be confused with intentional disorder. The child's coordinations are still in the state of formation, and error is to be expected in his various attempts.

The health and vitality of the child is a point to be considered. In general, increased girth and length of trunk mean vigor and vitality.³ Long legs and short trunk imply

¹ Hall, G. Stanley, *Adolescence*, 1: 171.

² See McDougall, W., *Physiological Psychology*, 30-31.

³ See Tyler, John Mason, *Growth and Education*, Ch. IV.

a heavy drain on the internal organs for nourishment and removal of waste matter. In the preadolescent years Tyler⁴ finds after a careful examination of data that 'the amount of sickness tends to increase from about seven to thirteen or fourteen, and there is as a rule a marked rise about the eighth year [of age] soon after the child enters school.' Conduct is thus conditioned by the child's health and vitality. "Unhealthy conditions of the body, poverty of blood, loss of appetite, nervousness, headaches, sleeplessness, show a low tone of health, and warn us to be on our guard."⁵

Abnormal conditions should also be considered. Methods effective with normal children may simply aggravate the condition of those more or less atypical.⁶ Forehead narrow, shallow, small, or bulging, ears large, misshapen, or misplaced, eyes narrow, close together, or squinting inward, chin and mouth flabby, receding, or generally repelling, are signs indicating a need of careful treatment. So, too, imbecile vacuity of expression, defective speech due to misshapen teeth, or what not, feeble hand-balance, uneven head-balance and body position are also conditioning elements. Where physical manifestation of such variations is evident, it behooves the teacher to note it.

Underfeeding influences strongly the conduct of the child. A child who has not enough to eat according to the standard requirements⁷ shows a lack of control, a great irritability due to fatigue or lack of nourishment, and a half-hearted acquiescence in and compliance with requests. Great tact is necessary to estimate the amount of underfeeding present.

⁴ See Tyler, John Mason, *Growth and Education*, 103. ⁵ *Ibid.*, 95.

⁶ See Warner, Francis, *The Study of Children*, Ch. VI.

⁷ See Hutchinson, Robert, *Food and the Principles of Dietetics*, 56, 470.

The teacher may be able to do little for the improperly fed child, but he should consider it seriously in all questions of discipline.⁸

Child labor, especially in the cities, has an effect on children antagonistic to active and effective response. In addition to fatigue and arrested development, the child may acquire a bravado, indifference, and hardihood which might be expected in adults, but which is not natural to the child.⁹

2. **The spiritual self.** — The preadolescent stage is the age of plasticity. "The senses are keen and alert, reactions immediate and vigorous, and the memory is quick, sure, and lasting, and ideas of space, time, and physical causation, and of many a social licit and non-licit, are rapidly unfolding. Never again will there be such susceptibility to drill and discipline, such plasticity to habituation, or such ready adjustment to new conditions."¹⁰ Moreover, we do not find a willing, passive organism waiting for impressions to be showered upon it, but one which goes actively in search of new impressions, seeking, exploring, destroying, experimenting, doing whatever will afford material for sense absorption.

On the dynamic side we find the tendency to follow copy, to imitate, react to suggestion. Unconsciously the child repeats what he hears, falls into the attitudes and postures of those about him, follows the example of his companions and his elders. He can do little else. His impulses and instincts are his own, but the form and manner of expression are determined by the models and copies in the surrounding environment. And, as Baldwin points out,¹¹

⁸ See Spargo, John, *The Bitter Cry of the Children*, II, III.

⁹ On the characteristics of the normal child, see Warner, Francis, *The Nervous System of the Child*, 46.

¹⁰ Hall, G. S., *Adol.*, 1: xii.

¹¹ Baldwin, J. M., *Ment. Dev.*, 126.

The essential thing in imitation over and above simple ideamotor suggestion, is that the *stimulus starts a motor process which tends to reproduce the stimulus, and through it the motor process*. From the physiological side we have a *circular activity* — sensor, motor; sensor, motor; and from the psychological side we have a similar circle — reality, image, movement; reality, image, movement, etc.

Closely allied to imitation, and of special importance in the development of self-control, are the child's movements in play. Such movements are animated simply by the pleasure involved in the motor discharge.¹² Play-movements are similar to those called 'expressive' by Preyer,¹³ as smiling, laughing, pouting, wrinkling the forehead, making faces, shaking and nodding the head, swaying the body from side to side, swinging the legs, hopping, skipping, throwing, etc., which are sometimes looked upon by the teacher as signs of the Evil One.

When in the presence of objects, the child's play assumes the form of manipulation and experimentation. Simple presentation of an object will call forth response. A child will pull off a fly's wings or twist a cat's tail from the same impulse which leads him to open a book or pluck a flower. Splashing in the water, spinning a top, rolling a hoop, banging the desk with a ruler, making mud pies, etc., are due to similar tendencies.

Another kind of play is the analytic movement-play which is manifested in the child's endeavor to take things apart. The child will dissect a toy, a tool, a watch, an insect, with equal pleasure. There is also the synthetic movement-play seen in the child's activity in construction, as with building blocks, occupations, sand heaps, and the

¹² See Groos, Karl, *The Play of Man*, Eng. tr. by Elizabeth L. Baldwin, 76.

¹³ Preyer, W., *The Senses and the Will*, Eng. tr. by H. W. Brown, Ch. XIII.

like. Finally, of the movement-plays are the throwing plays, which include rolling, spinning, throwing at a mark, and the catching plays.¹⁴

Play involving the higher mental powers involves social cooperation. Of individual spiritual plays are reading, use of the imagination as in castle-building, mental picturing, and the like.¹⁵

In addition to plasticity, imitation, and play-movement, there is plainly evident in the preadolescent child a credulity and unquestioning belief in what is told to him. This is due to the child's lack of critical experience and to the demands of an imagination for material on which to work. He believes implicitly in the crude outlines of virtues as embodied in fairy tales, myths, legends, and historical narratives. The lack of this critical attitude seems to be conditioned by the depth and extent of the children's knowledge.¹⁶

The dynamic aspect of childish credulity and belief is manifested in the 'play-mode' and 'make-believe' world of the child, in which an image or train of fancy, a tableau or system of action, are for the child real within limits, and may excite action in the real and external world. The child builds up his 'play-objects,' which are real in their artificial sphere but which become 'experimental' when tested by rigid external conditions.¹⁷ Such play-objects may be

¹⁴ See Groos, K., *Play of Man*, Pt. I, Ch. II.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, Pt. I, Ch. III. See also on 'play': Groos, K., *The Play of Animals*, Eng. tr. by Elizabeth L. Baldwin. Drummond, W. S., *The Child*, 78-83. Compayré, Gabriel, *Development of the Child in Later Infancy*, Eng. tr. by Mary E. Wilson, 141-152. Tanner, Amy Eliza, *The Child*, Ch. XIX. Hall, G. S., *Youth, Its Education, Regimen, and Hygiene*, Ch. VI. Harris, W. T., *Psych. Found. of Ed.*, Ch. XXXIV.

¹⁶ On childish belief, see: Baldwin, J. M., *Genetic Logic*, 1: Ch. VI. Pfisterer, Gustav Friedrich, *Pädagogische Psychologie*, 223.

¹⁷ See Baldwin, J. M., *Gen. Log.*, 1: 118.

fanciful constructions of the imagination; they may assume concrete shape as in keeping house with dolls or maneuvering with tin soldiers, or they may take the form of actual impersonation as in dramatic representation of heroic characters. Dramatisation becomes a valuable aid in training habits, especially when environmental conditions are preserved.

Omnivorous belief and its dynamic aspect, the 'make-believe' world, are a means by which the preadolescent child can build a system of ideals which will not be crushed by real conditions before they are strong enough to stand alone. There is some reference to an external background, but it is a background with its rough edges rounded, its crudities removed, its inconsistencies ignored, and the ugly conflicting elements toned down. Flow of fancy is not impeded, control of play-objects goes smoothly ahead, dramatisation runs the even tenor of its way. External conditions are so twisted as to give a congruent background. Conflict arises when this is not possible.

The child stretches his memory coefficients to the breaking point in the license of fancy; but there are limits. He says to his playmate: "You can not be an earthworm, you have too many legs!" — "That can't be a bird — that safe — it's too heavy to fly!" — "We can't play fire in the dark!" The imitative criterion must be preserved, despite the essentially selective mode of control of the situation as a whole. But, on the other hand, play is no longer play, but work or "earnest" when self-illusion ceases to be auto-suggestion, and becomes compulsory, all-absorbing, and too real.¹⁸

Finally, of the more intellectual characteristics of the preadolescent child are a prying, inquiring, and investigating curiosity, a vivid and unrestrained imagination, and a great partiality for differing, changing, and intense sense impressions.

¹⁸ See Baldwin, J. M., *Gen. Log.*, 1: 114.

3. **The social self.** — One of the most beautiful things about the young child is his clinging, trustful, responsive, social nature. Given but the slightest encouragement, he edges closer to one and confides his troubles, his doubts, his hopes, his fears. One has but to smile or give a half-way pleasant look to receive a friendly glance in return. A word or so, a touch, and at once there is formed a bond of companionship, a sort of free-masonry, which is the firmest basis for effective control. Even the so-called hoodlum will respond. As Riis says of the boy of the slum,¹⁹ "He is just what you let him be: good, if you give him the chance; bad, if you will have none of him." The child hungers for the social response which he so often fails to receive at home. His father may be too busy; his mother can not always tend to him. In the larger cities, his parents, strange to the ways of the new world, are outside of the social background in which the child moves.

It is common to assign to the child all the egoistic feelings and to reserve the rest for ourselves. But the child is no more egoistic than the rest of us. He is by nature a *socius* and he longs for the social response just as much as do his elders. We need give him a little encouragement, shed our primness and pedagogic hauteur, yield forth a little sympathy, show a friendly attitude, and we shall find the child bubbling over with responsive affection, generosity, sympathy, and love.²⁰

In his social efforts we find that the child lives in the present. Each day is with him practically a new one. Ideals he has few, and those he may have are vague and evanescent. He is dependent and needs a support to which he can cling. Hero-worship, respect, esteem,

¹⁹ Riis, Jacob A., *The Peril and Preservation of the Home*, 146.

²⁰ See Baldwin, J. M., *Ment. Dev.*, Ch. XI, § 3.

affection, are some of the forms which his outgoing social emotions may take.

The social leanings of the child are seen in his games with his playmates. An occupation which he listlessly pursues by himself will be taken up with zest if a comrade is with him. We do not, however, find in younger children that persistence in carrying out the more complicated games which is present in older children. Games which require but few and simple adjustments seem to hold the child's endeavors to an almost monotonous persistence. Fair play and toleration are usually shown in such games, though supervision is sometimes necessary.

If a young child is crossed in his desires or blocked in his efforts, he manifests those signs of anger, antipathy, and malevolence which are wrongly ascribed to children as characteristic. The preadolescent child may pout, sulk, or burst into a storm of rebellion, but this is usually due to pampered indulgence or arbitrary suppression. Feelings of displeasure, anger, etc., are natural effects of activity suddenly arrested, even in the case of adults. By widening the experience of children, as in social games, their efforts will be guided by different aims, and so will not be thwarted by suggestions which may have seemed prohibitive in the earlier stages.

An important difference between the preadolescent and the adolescent child in matters of government is the readiness and the unreasoning manner in which the former obeys or disobeys a request or command. Whether he respects authority or disrespects it is shown with willingness and readiness. One can ask a preadolescent child to do almost anything, whether of a mechanical nature or not, and can, on the average, expect obedience. With the adolescent pupil this is not so. Hence there often

arises conflict where there is a mixture of preadolescent and adolescent pupils.

§ II. THE ADOLESCENT CHILD

1. **Distribution in the school.** — It is usually considered that the adolescent child is found in the high school and in the last year of the elementary school. Actual distribution will show that adolescents are found in numbers all through the elementary school. In the following distribution of adolescents I use the figures given for the schools of New York City.²¹ These figures show an average monthly register of over half a million children, or, to be exact, 21493 for the high schools, 529811 for the elementary schools, 15609 for the kindergartens, and a total of 566913. The average attendance given is .89 of the register. The proportion of boys and girls was, high school boys, 42.8 percent, girls, 57.2, elementary school boys, 50.5, girls, 49.5, and kindergarten boys, 51.1, girls, 48.9.

I. AGES OF PUPILS

AGES	HIGH SCHOOL		ELEMENTARY	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Over 14	9055	12354	23482	22326
13-14	1204	1293	27415	26544
Under 13	73	117	211572	208416

²¹ See Eighth Annual Report of the City Superintendent of Schools, The City of New York, 1906, 37, 48, 51, 58.

II. AGES BY GRADES

AGES	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL							
	1st yr.	2d yr.	3d yr.	4th yr.	5th yr.	6th yr.	7th yr.	8th yr.
Over 14		96	426	1585	4834	8140	12610	14817
13-14		240	1183	3808	9085	12722	13543	9201
Under 13	57835	81444	79505	72429	58209	36285	17107	4914
Over 13	58							
	Ungraded		Special C		Special D		Special E	
Over 14	103		176		1103		1997	
13-14	90		237		1279		2517	
Under 14	474		1035		2208		8460	

Special *C* classes are for foreign-born children who do not speak English, special *D* for children who are approaching the age of fourteen and who desire work certificates (issued in accordance with the child-labor law), and special *E* for children who hope to graduate, but who need special coaching to enter the seventh year at the earliest possible moment.

The totals of these tables will not correspond accurately, since they are based on figures taken at different times during the school year. Exact correspondence, however, is not necessary for the purposes of the distribution.

To the number of adolescents in the day schools should be added those attending night school. In the night schools there were for the same year an enrolment of 107050, a register of 95067, and an attendance of 35838 pupils. Though this attendance is small, still all those enrolled must at some time come into contact with the teachers.

It is seen from these tables (1) that the number of adolescents in the elementary schools is more than double the number in the high schools, (2) that they are massed in the last two years of the elementary schools, and (3) that they

are distributed throughout all the school grades, and are specially numerous from the fourth year up.

In the high school where practically all the pupils are adolescents discipline may be more or less uniform. But in the elementary school where there is a mixture of younger and older pupils a rigid system applicable to the one will fail with the other. Moreover, special characteristics of adolescents must be noted if changes in them occur which affect discipline.

2. **The physical self.**—The common changes which occur in adolescence are well known. The voice changes, the face loses its childish outline and becomes coarser and more definitely marked, there is a sudden increase in stature, and so on. Other changes, however, are not quite so well known.

The impulse to pick the skin shows itself and is often intensified by dermal eruptions, pimples, etc. There is increased sensitiveness to heat and cold. The appetite, as Hall says, becomes freaky, irregular, and capricious. Girls, for example, may show a fondness for sour pickles and then suddenly turn to caramels or gum-drops. The jaw bones grow stronger, and we find at this time the culmination of the chewing-gum habit. There exists with this a strong tendency to bolt food and to swallow it untasted. New tastes even for disagreeable things are persistently cultivated. There is a desire for more solid food than before. Smell is attracted by sweet odors whether from flowers or perfumes. An emotional tinge is given to the sounds in nature, as those arising from the running brook, the waving trees, the songs of birds. There is increased appreciation and love of music. The voice becomes hoarse, squeaky, and raucous. The eye becomes more susceptible to color and harmony. At first 'loud colors, high lights,

and striking contrasts are preferred, and taste for mild hues, subdued tones, and delicate tints comes later.'²² Form and outline receive a more critical appreciation.

Changes in height and weight and increased development of the internal organs are strongly manifested during adolescence.²³ The rapid growth from infancy through the early years of childhood declines to a minimum in the tenth and eleventh years. In the thirteenth year of the boy's life a marked acceleration in increase of weight begins and lasts for about four years. With the girl, accelerated increase of weight begins in the twelfth and continues to the fourteenth year. From the twelfth to the fourteenth year the girl is usually more precocious than the boy. Accelerated increase in height follows the same general lines as increase in weight. There is this distinction to be noted. In the early years growth of the legs increases more rapidly than growth of the trunk. But in the thirteenth year for girls and about the fifteenth year for boys the trunk grows rapidly, while growth of the legs has practically stopped. Rapid increase in height takes place in spring and early summer, accelerated increase in weight takes place in the fall, while growth in the winter is slow. Increases in height and weight rarely coincide in these periods of acceleration.

Due to the rapid increase of growth in height and weight and also to marked functional changes which occur within the boy and the girl, the greater part of the child's vitality is shunted off for the more vegetative uses of the muscles and organs. The brain receives relatively less nutrition, as most of the blood is needed for waste, repair, growth, and development of tissues. There is consequently a lack

²² Hall, G. S., *Adol.*, 2 : 36.

²³ See Tyler, J. M., *Growth and Education*, Ch. IV.

of animation in the adolescent child, a sluggishness of response, often an apathy in intellectual application which may be mistaken for congenital stupidity. He may become more rapid and accurate in intentional adjustments and reactions, but one misses in him that naïve, aimless, spontaneous hand, head, and body play so characteristic of younger children. In his ordinary conduct he begins to show a certain sedateness, a kind of dignity which he almost unconsciously wishes to have respected.

3. **The spiritual self.** — In the adolescent we find the individual play-movements gradually disappearing, and the naïve belief and credulity giving way to a more rational, questioning attitude, or even to complete skepticism. This skeptical attitude is a characteristic which is specially marked. What may be accepted by younger children with perfect good faith will be greeted by him perhaps with open derision. He will be ready to argue out a point or dispute it on very small grounds. He often attaches a somewhat excessive value to his ideas and judgments.

There is often a tendency to introspective searching and inner questioning in which the 'I' occupies a large part of the adolescent's mental horizon. The material self becomes subject to some thought. There may take place improvements in dress. Some special acts of buffoonery or bravado may be attempted to thrust the self before the notice of others.

In the adolescent's spiritual and social longings the 'I' also is very prominent. There is an effort in the youth to connect himself with the wider sphere of forces. He may 'look before and after and sigh for what is not.' There is no definite search into things infinite, but there is often a strange, unaccountable restlessness which fills him. There may be irritability at and a scorn for the grosser and more

commonplace things of life. The most common direction, however, which his inner searchings take is towards society. The youth begins to form social ideals. He feels himself now this, now that, great character, moves grandly forward in great endeavors and noble actions, without bothering with the less picturesque details or the necessary struggle and agony which frequently accompany success. Often he has a vague idea of being suddenly appreciated and launched into glory. More often his endeavors towards this laudable ambition stop short at an extra polish of his shoes or an added care of his necktie.

Imitation is a process operative in all stages of mental development. With the adolescent it assumes a more or less conscious form, selection of some copy being made for the purpose of emphasising self and personality. It may lead to an affected swagger or peculiarity in speech, an aping of some more or less heroic personage, an attempt at mannerism in gesture and attitude. The individual, in trying to find himself, tests now one now the other copy, to see which suits him or which is best fitted to enhance his personality.

His emotional attitude towards nature is no longer controlled by the purely animal pleasures of sense and activity. He tends to read into it his moods and feelings, to embody it with a more or less personal and romantic interest. The songs of the birds, the soft whispering breezes, the cooing, babbling brook, all seem to excite in him vague yearnings and tender emotions.

4. **The social self.** — Where the adolescent is sharply differentiated from the preadolescent is in his social proclivities. What is the basis of much trouble in discipline is the initiative, aggressiveness, and self-sufficiency which he shows in social contact. Aristotle gives a good description of this aspect of the older boy:

The young are in character prone to desire and ready to carry out any desire they may have formed into action. . . . They are changeful, too, and fickle in their desires, which are as transitory as they are vehement; for their wishes are keen without being permanent, like the sick man's fits of hunger and thirst. They are passionate, irascible, and apt to be carried away by their impulses. They are the slaves, too, of their passion, as their ambition prevents their ever brooking a slight, and renders them indignant at the mere idea of enduring an injury.²⁴

This initiative and aggressiveness necessitates a different attitude which one must take towards him. With the younger child one has but to smile or touch him in a manner signifying protection, sympathy, and love. The child takes his dependence for granted, and falls willingly into one's outstretched arms. The adolescent is more independent. He assumes an ability to look out for himself, and one must approach him with certain signs of respect. He may not have any definite formulation of the manner in which he expects to be treated, but he instinctively rebels against any treatment which implies that he is a child.

It is this aggressiveness and self-sufficiency which leads the adolescent to disobey arbitrary commands and to fight back at attempts to suppress him. He is much more easily controlled by suggestion and polite request than by positive order. Blind mechanical action is performed unwillingly or with open dissent. He will respond much more promptly if matters are explained to him, if he is treated as an individual with whom one can talk and reason. One can easily imagine the resulting riot and confusion if a teacher tries arbitrarily to order a class of adolescents about or dictatorially to suppress them. A principal may be able to drive the leading offenders out of the school, but it will result in a control much like the pacification of Gaul by Cæsar. Driv-

²⁴ *The Rhetoric of Aristotle*, Eng. tr. by J. E. C. Welldon, 164.

ing out obstreperous pupils reminds one of the answer made by a Spanish nobleman upon his death-bed. When asked to forgive his enemies, he replied: "I have no enemies. I have killed them all."

The adolescent also tends to put forth opinions in a somewhat authoritative manner. The vigor within him tends to fill out the finer sentiments which support judgment, and the boy shows unlimited confidence in his own opinions. As Hall says: ²⁵

The youth who has been amenable to advice and even suggestion now becomes obstreperous, recalcitrant, filled with a spirit of opposition, and cannot repress a sense of top-lofty superiority to the ways and persons of his environment. Age is often made to suffer discourtesy, and it sometimes seems as though the faculties of reverence and respect, to say nothing of admiration, were suddenly gone.

Contradictory as it may seem, it is just the aggressive character of the adolescent which makes him amenable to social control and which affords a firm basis for his education. The adolescent is individualistic, aggressive, self-sufficient. But he can be so only with the proper social background. Remove him from his friends, isolate him, offer him no social background which will respond to his expression, and he dwindles to a mere figurehead. He can blossom only in an approving social environment. We call him aggressive in that he tries to force himself or his opinions upon others, ourselves it may be. His efforts to thrust himself forward are due to his desire for social recognition. And his lack of experience prevents him from doing it gracefully and quietly. It is this desire for the proper social response which leads him to join clubs or consort with gangs. The basic tendency is the same in each case.

The importance of recognising and developing initiative

²⁵ Hall, G. S., *Adol.*, 2 : 80.

in the individual is seen by his function in society. It is only by individual initiative that social progress is possible. The individual is the one who invents the machine or spreads the word which is to benefit the race. Humanity stands by to approve and follow. This Baldwin²⁶ has well shown. As James puts it:²⁷

The zone of the individual differences, and of the social 'twists' which by common confession they initiate, is the zone of formative process, the dynamic belt of quivering uncertainty, the line where past and future meet. It is the theater of all we do not take for granted, the stage of the living drama of life; and however idle its scope, it is roomy enough to lodge the whole range of human passions. The sphere of the race's average, on the contrary, no matter how large it may be, is a dead and stagnant thing, an achieved possession, from which all insecurity has vanished.

To close this section dealing with adolescent children, we may note a few more or less secondary characteristics of this period. The adolescent becomes bashful when in the presence of the other sex. Attention is given to dress and personal appearance. There may be vanity and affectation. Other impulses come strongly to the surface. There may appear the migratory instinct, the *Wanderlust* which leads to truancy and running away from home. In the tentative establishing of individuality there occur periods in which inertness and excitement, self-confidence and humility, selfishness and altruism, society and solitude, conservatism and iconoclasm, wisdom and folly, take turns in swaying the child. From the social side the period of adolescence marks the beginning of the individual's struggles to fit himself into the social environment without losing his own individuality. Many errors, much wavering, often

²⁶ See his *Soc. and Eth. Int.*

²⁷ James, W., *The Will to Believe*, 259.

dismal failure, are the final outcome. It is our duty to stand by and do what we can to lend a helping hand in the change.

§ III. SELF-ACTIVITY OF THE CHILD

1. **The aim or moving reason.** — The child is not sufficiently mature to have before his mind some aim or idea of the end which he persistently pursues. It is the duty of the teacher to help the child to develop such ideal aims. But the action of the child should not be left unguided nor should he be allowed to follow his own spontaneous will.

The most effective aim with young children is the perception of some copy or model which is impressed upon the different senses. Such a model or copy tends to give meaning to the unfinished work of the child and to guide his efforts. A copy has greater vividness if it is built up slowly before the children, and if it is the same in kind as the object which the child is trying to make or the line of conduct which he is attempting to follow.

The aim may take various elementary ideal forms. It may exist as a memory image acquired by previous experience or through verbal or other instruction. It may exist as a plan or representative invention which the child has thought out for himself and which he wishes to realise by his own efforts. It may assume the form of a more or less rudimentary ideal of conduct. It may be a thought which the child has acquired by reading, through his contact with the teacher, or through observations of the activities of others.

The fact that the teacher states the aim of *his* lesson is no guarantee that it becomes *ipse facto* the aim of each of the pupils. The best exposition which the Herbartians can give of their 'aim' shows its verbal character. As

explained by Rein,²⁸ the forms which the aim may take are, '(1) a sentence which simply sets forth the work of the new method-whole, (2) a question to which no answer is expected and which serves to give a tendency to the pupil's thoughts, and (3) a problem or example which introduces some new mathematical or scientific method-whole at which the child is to arrive by apperception and abstraction.' This scheme of the Herbartians is good but it is incomplete. It neglects the sensorimotor aspect of imitation which impels the child unconsciously to follow copy. It passes by the great question of individual motivation. It overlooks the movement-play and the instinctive motor reactions of the child. It places a premium on the teacher's activity in the classroom and tends to suppress self-expression by the pupils at all stages. We have much to learn from the Herbartians but we have also much to improve.

The vividness of the aim will be conditioned by the futurity of the situation which it represents. The further off is the situation to be realised, the weaker in general will be the influence of the aim. Threats to leave a boy back will usually influence him less than warning that his report card will be marked unsatisfactory at the end of the month. The latter will have still less effect than the remark that penance will have to be done at the end of the week, while the strongest stimulus of all may be a mark or demerit given on the instant. The same is true of positive situations and aims. A boy will work hard to have his drawing or arithmetic paper exhibited *now*, but he will take chances on being consigned to eternal perdition hereafter. As for promotion, that is a mere bagatelle. Much may happen in the meantime to change the course of events.

²⁸ Rein, W., *Out. of Ped.*, 105.

2. **The means.** — As instruction and discipline demand some sort of expression in the child, some consideration of the means of expression is necessary.²⁹ Expression may be either attitudinal or open. In the former case, the child does nothing explicit and says nothing directly to give the teacher any indication of how he feels or of what he is thinking. But by his general attitude he shows that something is wrong. Such attitude may be suspected by physiological changes in the child, as deeper or more rapid breathing, flush or pallor, head movements or finger twitches, convulsive leg or body movements, or violent sulks. There may be accompanying emotional changes, as shown by facial expression or body posture.

From the standpoint of effective instruction, expression is chiefly motor. Of the motor forms are (1) hand movements, as in writing, drawing, painting, cutting, sewing, etc., (2) hand and body movements, as in modeling, cutting, cooking, constructing, etc., and (3) body movements, as in dramatisation, gesture, games, etc. Verbal expression may assume such forms as speaking, reading, singing, etc.

The general stage of the movements may be briefly indicated. In its various stages action may be (1) reflex, (2) instinctive, (3) automatic, (4) ideomotor, or (5) deliberative.

Reflex action is that which results by virtue of chemical or other changes in the muscle or spinal cord. Stimulation is wholly from without and may excite muscle action without affecting consciousness. Reflex action is simple in

²⁹ On 'expression,' see: Darwin, Charles, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*. Mantegazza, Paolo, *Physiognomy and Expression*. Warner, Francis, *Physical Expression*. Thorndike, Edward L., *The Principles of Teaching*, 9. Keith, J. A. H., *El. Ed.*, 141. Parker, F. W., *Talks on Ped.*, Ch. X.

character, immediate in response, and of a definite local character. Examples are winking of the eyelids, sneezing, crying, or coughing at the smell of onions, etc.³⁰

Instinctive actions are more complicated. They usually consist of a series of movements one immediately following the other. There may also be a series of coordinated and parallel movements excited by external stimulation. Consciousness in such a case is also a negligible factor. The whole process is self-realised. Loeb³¹ explains the complicated and coordinated nature of instincts by ascribing them to a series of tropisms due to irritability and symmetry of contiguous muscle elements. Action of one excites the one next to it and so the whole series of activities is released. Common instincts are grasping, play-movement, chewing, sucking, etc. Many of the so-called instincts are only general impulses which receive definite form through unconscious imitation of copies.

Habit works practically like instinct with this exception. It is an artificial product consciously and often laboriously developed. After sufficient repetition the action becomes automatic. Such action is shown in writing, piano-playing, etc.³²

When a presentation, model, copy, situation, or idea of such model or copy impels one to make a similar one or to do likewise, we have ideomotor action. Thus, we see an open window and proceed unconsciously to close it.

³⁰ On 'reflex action,' see: Mill, James, *Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind*, 2: Ch. XXIV. Preyer, W., *Sens. and the Will*, Ch. X. James, W., *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. XXVI. Stout, G. F., *A Manual of Psychology*, Second edition, Bk. II, Ch. II. Wundt, Wilhelm, *Grundzüge der Physiologische Psychologie*, 3: Ch. XVII, § 2

³¹ Loeb, Jacques, *Comparative Physiology of the Brain and Comparative Psychology*, 7.

³² For a full discussion of 'instinct' and 'habit,' see below, Ch. IX, §§ III, IV.

We read or are told of a cure and proceed to try it. We think of food and set about to get some. James³³ gives an excellent account of this type of action, and it is practically the basis of Baldwin's theory of imitation.³⁴

When two situations cause us to hesitate in action, when two thoughts or systems of ideas come into conflict, we feel compelled to stop, think the matter over, deliberate, compare, weigh evidence, and select the course of action to be taken. Such action is called deliberative. All types of actions will be needed in the various processes in instruction and discipline.

The material with which the child is to concern himself, the concrete matter which he is to use in his activity will depend in general on environmental activities and the materials there used. As a guide in such selection are, (1) primitive activities basic of present conditions, and (2) present-day activities.

In all stages of savage life, no matter what be the stage, we find running through them all (1) home occupations, as cooking, brewing, weaving, sewing, matting, tanning, etc., (2) industries, as the building of tents and huts, the manufacture of tools, weapons, clothes, household articles, etc., the transportation of goods by water and land, etc., (3) social activities, as intercourse by language, sign, gesture, picture, illustration, writing, etc., as dancing, singing, playing games, dramatic performances, etc., (4) a certain ethical and spiritual development as shown by history, traditions, chronicles, poems, myths, etc., by painting and sculpture, by customs implying notions of right, of religion, of government, and so on. Such activities, it

³³ See James, W., *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. XXVI.

³⁴ See Baldwin, J. M., *Ment. Dev.*, Pt. III.

should be noted, run through all of the so-called stages, as hunting, fishing, etc.³⁵

Such activities give us simple forms of present-day activities. It is the present, however, which should determine selection. Home occupations now include selection and preparation of food, hygienic laws, and some knowledge of tools. Industries and trades have become so specialised that technical instruction is now necessary. The elements, however, are found in primitive culture. In addition to the industries themselves are such problems as that of the sweat-shop, of child labor, factory legislation, and the like. A knowledge of machinery and of scientific principles also plays an important part. Social activities demand habituation in conventional forms of address and an understanding of social and juridical conduct. They also include a knowledge and enjoyment of literature, music, and the drama, an appreciation of nature, and they imply conversational ability and a knowledge of the mechanical means of communication, as the telephone, the telegraph, the postal system, etc. Modern ethical and spiritual development has back of it a social heredity and a recorded culture which must be studied, since they direct and mold conduct. Further comparisons and amplifications of primitive activities can easily be made.³⁶

The practical means, then, which the child can use are, (1) his own tendencies and actions, and (2) materials and situations as nearly like the actual situations as possible. The latter will demand, in general, plastic materials, rigid

³⁵ See: Tylor, Edward B., *Anthropology*. Mason, Otis T., *The Origins of Invention*. Brinton, Daniel G., *The American Race*. Haberlandt, Michael, *Ethnology*, Eng. tr. by J. H. Loewe.

³⁶ See Small, Albion W., *General Sociology*, Ch. L.

materials easily manipulated, flexible materials, etc., tools and machinery, self-constructed if possible, materials for schematic representation, as paper, color, brush, pencil, etc., games, and the like. For specific means in conduct the child should have situations and institutions as nearly like the real as possible. Primitive culture will aid us in the selection of material and method. Secondary practical means are usually added, as text-books, literature, verbal suggestions, precept, advice, etc.

Ideal means we can hardly expect in the child. At the most they will be crude and simple. The finer shades of self-control and social endeavor it is the duty of the teacher to develop. Apperceptive systems, well-organised ideals, finished control, both theoretical and practical, come only after long instruction and discipline.

3. The emotional impulse or impelling feeling. — The child may be engaged in an occupation either because he likes to do it for one or another reason, or because he will thereby avoid punishment, disgrace, or some form of disapproval. The former is positive, the later is negative impulsions.

In the former case the whole child is engaged in the work. He not only is doing something but this something will lead to added satisfaction elsewhere. Every activity is in harmony with the other. The muscles are working under guidance of an aim, and there is in addition the suffused glow and satisfaction at the thought of what the completed action or object will bring forth.³⁷

In negative stimulation the case is far different. If the pupil is working merely to evade punishment, his whole being is split into a number of discrete and separate ele-

³⁷ See Dewey, John. 'Interest as Related to Will,' *Sec. Sup. to the Her. Yearbook*.

ments. In the first place, the work itself is objectionable and is done only because it is less so than some promised punishment or task. In the second place, it is associated with the more or less disagreeable presence of the tormenting person, and with the punishment which is threatened. In the third place, the work when finished brings no positive return to the child. He feels he has done his work for nothing. What is worse, he sees his work pass into the hands of the very one who has driven him on and whom he dislikes. If any good comes to the child in such a case it is a minimum, and it is acquired with a maximum of effort to both teacher and child. As Locke truly says,³⁸

Many children, imputing the pain they endured at school to their books they were corrected for, so join these ideas together, that a book becomes their aversion, and they are never reconciled to the study and use of them all their lives after; and thus reading becomes a torment to them which otherwise possibly they might have made the great pleasure of their lives.

The general biological principle that an organism will tend to repeat an activity which yields pleasure, ease, satisfaction, quiescence, applies to the child and should not be disregarded.³⁹ Allow activity and stamp the completion of such activity with a mark of approval, as personal commendation, exhibition of work done, artificial sign or mark of honor, and the like. The work itself need not be pleasurable so long as it leads to something more or less satisfying. It makes no difference whether stimulation is indirect or direct so long as the child sees something positive ahead of it. Even the most barren and

³⁸ Locke, John, *An Essay concerning Human Understanding*, Ch. XXXIII, § 15.

³⁹ See Morgan, C. Lloyd, *Habit and Instinct*, 41, 151, 152.

abstract subjects can be connected with something satisfying or pleasurable. Only in more advanced stages can the work in such abstract subjects be expected to yield satisfaction in itself. In addition direct stimulation may be possible if the work is connected with instinctive reactions and play-movements.

The impelling feelings in brief should be (1) satisfaction, ease, pleasure, quiescence, to be reached by the realisation of tendencies, impulses, instincts (a possibility only if the child himself does his school work), (2) anticipation of such satisfaction, ease, etc., from artificial means of approval, (3) feeling of unrest, etc., because some habit or tendency is not fully expressed or realised, and (4) feeling of unrest, etc., due to an ideal or motive which tends to impel active realisation. The last two are dependent upon the first and require a considerable basis of development.

Negative impulsion is at best an ineffective means of stimulating endeavor. It should be used rather to arrest such activity as is wrong or injurious. In the chapters on conduct I shall deal with it fully.

4. Immanence of the aim, means, and impelling feeling in the individual. — The general unity and continuity of the child's reactions should be preserved. The aim should be one within the child himself. It may exist only in a vague and indistinct notion of doing something or making something. This does not preclude guidance and systematic endeavor on the part of the teacher. But he should not interfere. He should stand by, suggest, show models, make corrections, give advice, and generally lend a hand.

The means should be in the control of the child himself. The child should not see the teacher do what he himself is impatiently waiting to attempt. He should not have his tendencies blocked and be compelled to sit up while

the teacher makes the map, explains the experiment, reads the lesson, or what not. This half-and-half process in which the child does a little and the teacher very much more reminds one of the meal made by David Copperfield and the friendly waiter. I can not forbear quoting.

"What have we got here?" he said, putting a fork into my dish. "Not chops?"

"Chops," I said.

"Lord bless my soul!" he exclaimed, "I didn't know they were chops. Why, a chop's the very thing to take off the bad effects of that beer! Ain't it lucky?"

So he took a chop by the bone in one hand, and a potato in the other, and ate away with a very good appetite, to my extreme satisfaction. He afterwards took another chop and another potato. When he had done, he brought me a pudding, and having set it before me, seemed to ruminate, and to become absent in his mind for some moments.

"How's the pie?" he said, rousing himself.

"It's pudding," I made answer.

"Pudding!" he exclaimed. "Why, bless me, so it is! What!" looking at it nearer, "You don't mean to say it's a batter-pudding!"

"Yes, it is indeed."

"Why, a batter-pudding," he said, taking up a tablespoon, "is my favorite dish! Ain't that lucky? Come on, little 'un, and let's see who'll get most."

The waiter certainly got most. He entreated me more than once to come in and win, but what with his tablespoon to my teaspoon, his despatch to my despatch, and his appetite to my appetite, I was left far behind at the first mouthful, and had no chance with him. I never saw anyone enjoy a pudding so much, I think.

Much material was used, but still poor David went hungry.

Finally, to keep the child together as a spiritual whole, the general movement of his efforts should be in a positive direction. So soon as the general movement is negative, child and teacher pull in opposite directions. This does not exclude all possible reproof or other signs of disap-

proval. But underlying any disapproval should be a firm basis of sympathy. Even when the child thinks that the stroke is heavier than usual he should feel through it all that the teacher is still his friend. But he should not be put to the test of Job.

§ IV. INDIVIDUALITY OF THE CHILD

1. **The self.** — The self of the child may be considered in its three aspects, (1) material, (2) spiritual, and (3) social.

(a) *Material self.* — At the beginning the material self of the child is somewhat restricted. His clothes, books, desk, etc., belong to him in a more or less personal manner. Later, the classroom and the school may be included in what the child calls 'Me.' The material self is rather something which the teacher should develop than a thing which is found full-blown when the child enters the class. This is an aspect of discipline taken up in the following chapters.

(b) *The spiritual self.* — In spiritual matters much the same is true. Some account of the raw material, however, will be helpful.

On the plasticity, imitation, play-movement, 'make-believe,' etc., of the child I have already touched. Other characteristics in general are worth noting. Concepts are more or less vague, unfilled, and inclined to verbalism.⁴⁰ Superficial resemblances are seized and may wrongly be made the basis of naming, identification, or classification. Reasoning may be based on the *post-hoc-ergo-propter-hoc* scheme of things. Children repeat the greatest nonsense without being disturbed by its absurdity. Tanner gives as an instance the following:⁴¹

⁴⁰ See Tanner, A. E., *The Child*, Ch. VIII.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, 154.

Dare to be a spaniel (Daniel)
 Dare to stand alone,
 Dare to have a purple spine (purpose fine)
 And dare to make it known.

Children, too, may read things which make sense to us but which are not understood by the children themselves. Words may also signify much to the child of which we may be ignorant. The following shows this:

When a child calls "Mamma," he has more than a mere presentation of her. If he were to give full [verbal] expression to what at that moment is going on in his mind, he would have to begin a whole story, and as he also goes through some action, he would have to present a whole scene. The mental process which he wishes to express would be somewhat as follows: I have noticed this or that, I am afraid of it, I need help. You have protected me so often; take me, and quiet me again.⁴²

In his definition of objects the child emphasises use, action, and purpose.⁴³ Thus, 'A horse is to ride,' 'A mamma is to take care of children,' or, 'A mamma is good to cook or to whip little children.'⁴⁴ It seems that Webster in his *Dictionary* emphasises use to almost the same extent as did the children. Other aspects emphasised in the general order named were, 'larger term,' 'action,' 'substance,' 'structure,' 'place,' 'form,' 'color,' etc.

Of the feelings and emotions which animate children, anger is by no means the one which is characteristic.⁴⁵

⁴² Wallascheck, Richard, *Psychologie und Pathologie der Vorstellung*, 5.

⁴³ See: *Studies in Education*, Edited by Earl Barnes, 'A Study of Children's Interests,' by Earl Barnes. Shaw, E. R., 'The Employment of Motor Activities in Teaching,' *Pop. Sci. Month.*, 50. Binet, H., 'Perceptions d'Enfants,' *Rev. Phil.*, 1890.

⁴⁴ See Barnes, E., *Stud. in Ed.*, 207-208.

⁴⁵ Misplaced emphasis is given on 'anger' as characteristic, in Dexter, T. F. G., and Garlick, A. H., *Psychology in the Schoolroom*, Ch. XV.

Children when properly treated show no more anger than do grown folks. Jealousy, bashfulness, sympathy, fear, a desire for being fondled and caressed are more natural emotions of the child.

(c) *Social self*. — Some tendencies in the child's social nature are significant. The importance of imitation has been shown, but some features are of interest in connection with social reactions. The influence of others on the imitations of the child are shown in the following tables.⁴⁶

PERSONS IMITATED

Adult85
Child10
Animal05

THING IMITATED

Action80
Speech }20
Sound }	

FORM OF IMITATION	1-5 YEARS	6-12 YEARS
Direct (instinctive)50	.20
Play50	.80

IMITATION -- INVENTION	1-5 YEARS	6-12 YEARS
With invention60	.75
Without invention40	.25

The influence of adults on the child's imitation corresponds with his clinging, dependent nature in his early years.

⁴⁶ These tables are based on curves plotted by Frear, Caroline, 'Imitation: A study based on E. H. Russell's Child Observations,' *Ped. Sem.*, 4: 382-386. See, also, Small, H., 'The Suggestibility of Children,' *Ped. Sem.*, 4: 176-220.

Most of these imitations, it seems, were of the teacher's speech and action.

In an investigation made to determine the children's ideals in the choice of occupation, the reasons for the boys' selections were, in order, 'money,' 'like it,' 'easy,' with 'philanthropy' trailing far behind. Girls emphasised, in order, 'like it,' 'money,' and 'easy.' On this Tanner remarks,⁴⁷ "It seems dreadful that as many children, not adults but *children*, should feel the need of earning money, as feel free to follow their own liking." To which the children would probably agree. But the matter is not really as bad as it seems. 'Money' is only a dominant aspect in a mass of complex ideals which would probably include position of respect, good clothes, pleasure, good living, means of supporting parents, helping friends, and the like.

The child's attitude towards punishment is of interest. When asked to tell what punishment they would inflict for a supposititious offence, the answers of two thousand children⁴⁸ indicated that the principle of reprisal swayed younger children more than it did the older ones, prevention by fear or terror did not seem to impress many of the children, and that reform was a means which would be employed more by older children. The act rather than the motive was emphasised. These results show the necessity of restricting the authority of children employed as monitors, guards, etc. They lack a proper appreciation of conduct and are not mature enough wholly to guide it.

2. **Personality.** — The child can not be expected to have a personality when he enters the school. The teacher, however, should appreciate the dynamic nature of personality and the necessity for social service and radiation

⁴⁷ Tanner, A. E., *The Child*, 132.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 200.

so that he may take effective means in developing the personality of the child in all its aspects.

§ V. RIGHTS OF THE CHILD

1. **Rights of the material self.** — Upon his entrance into the school and during his stay there the child carries with him certain rights which should not be infringed. It may seem strange to hear of children's rights in the school, but juridical and social practice outside necessitates some respect for them.

(a) *Right of person.* — One right of the child which is little respected in the school is the right of immunity from personal violence or hostile contact. The average child is in no need of the much-discussed incentive of corporal punishment. He should not be struck in any manner, he should not be roughly seized, he should not be grasped by the arm or elsewhere and violently propelled forward or in any other direction.

A child loses this right if he wilfully attacks the teacher, or if, in spite of the presence of the teacher, he endangers the person of another child or attempts violence on the person of another child or on school property. In such cases a teacher is justified in forcibly restraining him. Refusal to obey or to do work, however, is no justification for infringement.

The academic, symbolic, arbitrary, and inhumane manner in which the child is sometimes discussed may lead to false conclusions. In a recent book on *Management*, the following statement occurs:⁴⁹

Although the progress of the race is away from the brute, the individual who is born into the world is, biologically, no further

⁴⁹ Bagley, W. G., *Class Man.*, 119, 130.

away from the brute than was the infant who was born at the very dawn of human progress. . . . No matter how far civilisation may develop, civilised society must take the child, at the brute level, and raise him to the social level. . . .

The general principles of child development would indicate that corporal punishment has its chief sphere during the formative period of the child's life (eight to twelve).

We have in this statement an excellent example of the fallacy of reasoning by analogy. A close examination of a brute and the child will show its falsity. If I pass a wild dog in the woods I expect him to show his teeth. I may have to defend myself from being torn by a wildcat. A fox or wolf will relish me as he will dead carrion. But I can go into the vilest slums in the city and receive a willing response to any request I may make of the children. They will cheerfully show me the house I may seek, or do some slight favor upon simple request. Of course if I call them 'little loafers,' or if I throw them roughly to one side, I may expect to be derided or pelted and stoned. As regards brutes, moreover, even the little yellow dog will wag his stumpy tail if I pat him on the head or throw him a bone. The child no doubt resembles the puppy in many playful movements. But we need not on that account buy a rawhide whip nor feed him on dog cakes. So, too, the stomach of a pig is one of the brute organs which most resembles the human stomach. Yet we do not countenance human pigsties. Resemblances no doubt exist but the human element should not be ignored.

Implied in the right just discussed is the right of protection from interference by other pupils, whether in the class, on the stairs, in the yard, or elsewhere. The child should be protected against teasing, bullying, or any kind of annoyance from others. Nor should the position of monitor or guard justify infringement.

(b) *Right of property.* — Anything which is taken from the pupils by the teacher should be returned within the same week either to the pupils themselves or to their parents. This right should be respected even if the child has with him some instrument of annoyance or destruction.

The child should also have the right of adequate material surroundings, as seat and desk, a cheerful room, hygienic cloak-room, etc. This right should not be infringed even when a pupil is disorderly or insubordinate. Means of correction are possible other than that of denying to the pupil his right of seat, use of material, etc.

2. **Rights of the spiritual self.** — Rights of the spiritual self belong rather to the domain of instruction and discipline. A few, however, may be specially considered.

(a) *Self-realisation.* — A child has the right to full exercise of all his organs, parts of his body, and spiritual aptitudes. He has the right to such a seat as will enable him to see and to hear what is being explained. He should not be shut out of participation in gymnastic exercises, games, etc. He should not be compelled to go through any exercises detrimental to his health or bodily welfare. He should not be forced to unnatural restraint or internal pain or injury by being prohibited from leaving the room.

(b) *Personal freedom.* — The right of a child to absent himself with the knowledge of parent or guardian is usually recognised. He should also be allowed to absent himself on his own request if the teacher feels that his request is a legitimate one, and if the parent is notified the same day or sends notice the next day. Some discretion, however, must be exercised by the teacher in such a case.

(c) *Individuality.* — The right to the possession of indi-

vidual or racial idiosyncrasy, as race, creed, color, etc., without comment, molestation, or persecution, is usually recognised in theory, but in practice it is often infringed. The teacher should be careful to analyse his reasons and motives in dealing in a particular way with pupils who may be peculiar or different from himself.

(d) *Freedom of thought, speech, and action.* — This right should be enforced when not conflicting with school work or with social requirements in general. Usually such right is respected but at times the teacher will disregard it. The child has the right to express whatever opinion he wishes, outside of the school; he has the right to go where he desires after school hours; and he has the right to associate with whomever he chooses. Excessive and continuous detention is an infringement of this right. So, too, is an excessive demand upon the time or service of the child, as in requests to assist in school work, do menial service, and the like.

3. **Rights of the social self.** — When we consider that to-day the teacher is not received with the courtesy due to him as a human being it may seem like asking too much to insist on social rights of the child which the teacher himself may not be granted. Two wrongs, however, do not make a right. Even if the teacher is not treated with proper consideration by his superiors he should not on that account transmit a lack of consideration to the children.

(a) *Personal consideration.* — The child has the right to such courtesy and consideration as are common among cultured people outside of the school. The child should have the rights in conversation accorded to cultured adults. He should receive gentlemanly treatment even in the milder forms of disapproval. In fact if he is to be in-

structed in the ways of his betters, he can be so only when the ways of his betters are the ways of the classroom.

(b) *Appeal*. — The child should have the right of appeal at all times. If he wishes to protest against action by a monitor or even of the teacher himself he should be given a hearing. He should not be peremptorily suppressed and considered a rebel if he asks for redress or protection. This does not mean, however, that insolence or irrational faultfinding is to be allowed.

(c) *Free discussion*. — Similar to the right of appeal is the right of free discussion. The child should feel free to come to the teacher at all times and ask for further explanation of school work, or to express his own side of a question. Nothing is gained by shutting him off or refusing to listen to him. If he is not allowed free expression before the teacher, he will go elsewhere, with additions.

(d) *Social recognition*. — The right of adequate social response should not be denied to the child, especially when one considers that in school he is artificially isolated from the social environment to which his appeals are usually made. When a child is in school he has not his parents to whom he can talk or show his work; he is not allowed to converse with his neighbor, and no one other than the teacher remains. It is a species of cruelty to withhold from the child the return wave of social approval or acquiescence for which he hungers.

4. **Rights in instruction**. — Each child has the right to full use of whatever materials, supplies, books, etc., are provided by the public officials. This right should not be suspended for any great length of time. If it is suspended for a short time, the parent or guardian of the offender should be notified.

Similar in nature to this right is the right of equal participation with others in all the class lessons and employments. When classes are large such participation may require a series of lessons. The teacher should ask from time to time for children who may have been overlooked by him. This right implies that children are not to be excessively used as assistants in clerical work or as body servants.

Whenever possible, the child should be accorded the right to individual explanation, exposition, and aid. Such aid may be given during the lesson or after the session.

Each child should have the right to see his papers, work, etc., for mark, correction, etc. Marked papers and work should, if possible, be returned. If bad papers are kept by the teacher as evidence of the pupil's inefficiency, the child should at least be allowed to see them.

The child should receive notice of his proficiency in class work. The interval between such notices should be two weeks or a month. At least every quarter the child who is in danger of being conditioned or held over should receive special warning in addition to his regular rating. Such notices and warnings should be sent in written form to the parent or guardian.

As a corollary of the above each child who has received satisfactory ratings during the term has the right of promotion at the end of the term no matter how he does on final tests. If tests are a feature of the school they should be given quarterly and incorporated in the term work. In transition periods, as from high school to college, the higher institution has the right to fix its own requirements. But at least in the elementary school this right should not be infringed.

The child should have the right to full use of all school facilities up to whatever age he wishes to remain. No pressure should be brought to bear on pupils for the purpose of driving them out of the school. This sometimes occurs, (1) when a boy is objectionable to principal or teacher, as when he is weak in examination subjects, (2) when a pupil is too old and tends to raise the average age of a class, or (3) when a principal wishes to have a strong graduating class which will show up well at graduation.

5. Rights in discipline. — The child should have the right to the fullest exercise of his instincts and play-movements. This implies the existence of playground, gymnasium, workshop, library, etc., with adequate material. It also implies equal participation of all in the activities possible in such institutions.

A corollary of this right is the right to social contact and intercourse under guidance. Media for such intercourse are meetings, games, excursions, entertainments, and the like. Material surroundings should be of such a character as to further social emotions, as well-decorated rooms, clean yards, etc.

Each child has the right to receive a thorough drill and training in such conventional lines of conduct as are demanded by social usage. This he can not always get in the home.⁵⁰

Orderliness in general matters of school management is a right upon which it is unnecessary to insist. The child has the right to expect regular periods for school work, orderly entrance and dismissal, etc., care of clothing, uniformity in certain aspects of discipline, and the like. He

⁵⁰ See, for example, Riis, J. A., *The Peril and Preservation of the Home*, 172.

should not be submerged in disorder, lack of system, or rowdyism of any kind, whether in or out of the classroom.

In specific acts of discipline the child should have the right of an adequate hearing. The child should be allowed to present his side of the case whether he is charged by a monitor, the teacher, or the principal.

Unless a definite offence can be fastened on a child he should receive no punishment. This right precludes such questionable methods in discipline as disapproval of a whole class to insure correction of a few offenders, or correction for actions which are not really blameworthy.

The child has the right to expect gradation in the application of means of disapproval and certain congruity of such disapproval with the nature of the offence. The personal attitude of the principal or teacher should not result in infringement. Erratic or arbitrary procedure should not upset standards of effective and graded disapproval.

In general the pupil should receive that instruction provided for by the public officials; he should acquire standards and ideals by which he can form rational and ethical judgments; he should be allowed a certain latitude in emphasis on the subjects taught; and he should receive such treatment as he might reasonably expect to meet when he leaves school.

The child carries such rights with him no matter what be his stage of development. But his duties are aspects of conduct which require development by the teacher. Everything which we mean when we refer to volition, deliberative action, selected endeavor is included in the term 'duty.' Naturally the child can not be expected to have with him when he enters school such social and other control as is implied in the expression 'duty.' As Paley

says,⁵¹ "Children must be supposed to have attained to some degree of discretion before they are capable of any duty." On this account I have not devoted a section to the duties of children. The consideration of such duties is reserved for the succeeding chapters.

⁵¹ Paley, William, *The Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy*, 230.

CHAPTER VII

THE TEACHER

§ I. RIGHTS OF THE TEACHER

1. **Rights in instruction.** — The teacher has the right to expect that the natural ability, home training, previous instruction, size of the class, and material at hand should condition the principal's cooperation in instruction and supervision. The teacher should not be held to such rigid requirements that he is expected, without variation, to accomplish the same results under any and all conditions. Variations as above suggested should always be considered in the work of the teacher.

In all matters of development, review, drill, and test the teacher should have the right of full control. The principal may suggest, give model lessons, etc., but the teacher should be left free to pursue his own course. This does not mean that he is to be freed from responsibility. In fact this right increases his responsibility. Initiative and self-direction are necessary for effective work under such conditions. This right implies that there be no interference by the principal in classroom instruction, that there be freedom from direct orders in connection with method, that the teacher be consulted when tests are to be given, even if such tests are given immediately after consultation, and the like. It implies, also, a certain amount of trust and confidence of the principal in the teacher.

Each teacher should have the right of cooperation from the principal and to gradation in whatever disapproval be forthcoming. If a teacher is not succeeding, he should expect to receive effective cooperation between one expression of disapproval and any following. No teacher should be allowed to go the even tenor of his way, and then be confronted with an unsatisfactory mark, refusal of regulation increase in salary, etc. In fact silence by the principal should be taken as a sign of approval.

The criteria and standards used in supervision should be fully understood and appreciated by the teacher, as should the official mark given, with the reasons. No teacher should be allowed to work blindly along some path which may or may not coincide with the official route and then be suddenly confronted with the sign, 'No trespassing.' He should know what is required of him, what special methods and results are looked for, what official ratings are in use, etc. If he receives a mark which is not the highest possible, he should be told where improvement can be made, and what means should be taken for correction. If he has any objections to offer, they should be carefully considered, for he may give evidence which has been overlooked by the principal.

The teacher should have the right to participation in the selection of books, supplies, etc., which are to be used in class work. Since the teacher is held responsible for classroom instruction he should be allowed some freedom in the selection of the means with which he is to work.

In the matter of interpretation of the course of study, selection of topics and types, etc., the teacher should have the right to participation with the principal and the other grade teachers. Such participation is necessary if there is to be unity, continuity, and harmony in the department

in matters of instruction. Such participation implies that the teacher should have something to say in the matter of tests and examinations.

When a pupil falls behind in his work, the teacher should have the right to send some special note or notice to the parent or guardian concerned. To avoid personal remarks such notices should be printed with blanks for the names of the subjects to be filled in. He should also, at the discretion of the principal, be allowed to see parents who may call. The principal's discretion should be determined by the general condition of the parent when he calls.

Finally, in the promotion of pupils the teacher should have the right to decide in favor of a boy's promotion. Should he abuse such a right the children should not be made to suffer the consequences of the teacher's inefficiency. The teacher should be held accountable in such a matter as he is in other matters of instruction. Selection of pupils for promotion is one of the many aspects of effective instruction.

2. Rights in discipline. — As in instruction so in discipline the teacher has the right to expect that the natural tendencies, home training, previous discipline, and size of the class should condition the principal's cooperation in discipline and supervision. The children who have received most of their training from the street, or who have been under ineffective control, have not the foundation possessed by their more cultured brethren.¹

As regards general class discipline the teacher should have full control of all government, training, instruction, and selection of practice. Even when the teacher seems

¹ For a striking picture of such differences, see Bunyan, John, *Life and Death of Mr. Badman*, Edited by John Brown, 83-84.

to be losing control of the class, so long as he is in the room he should not be thrust aside. He should be aided as I have suggested but such aid as is given should leave him in full charge. His permission should always be asked when the principal delivers a lecture, gives a talk, or gives directions to the children for some general school movement.

In minor questions of discipline and in cases where yard or stair discipline may conflict with his class control there should be no arbitrary interference with his management. No monitor, teacher, nor even the principal should discipline a boy without first seeing the teacher. The teachers and principal may agree on some common method of control and discipline on the yard or stairs but each teacher should have something to say in such common procedure.

The teacher should have the right to adequate cooperation in discipline and also to effective supervision. If he is failing for the time in his class discipline the principal should give him prompt and effective aid. Should the principal finally employ means of disapproval he should not follow such disapproval with further disapproval till he has cooperated in the manner suggested. No principal should thrust a new teacher into the classroom and leave him to his fate.

Whatever may be the official standards and requirements of discipline these should be fully understood by the teacher. The principal should show him the blanks, headings, ratings, etc., sent by the school authorities. Such information may be given at a general or in individual conferences. Ignorance of the law in such cases may be a sufficient excuse for apparent inefficiency.

The teacher has the right to participation in the selec-

tion of the virtues to be developed, offences to be corrected, of methods which are to operate in control of halls, stairs, yard, and street, of forms to be followed in arrangement of papers, of whatever is to operate uniformly in the school as a whole.

In matters requiring communication with the parents or guardians, the teacher should have the right of direct notification. As in instruction, printed forms may be given to the teacher. But the teacher should feel free to write a friendly note of advice, caution, or warning, without interference by the principal. At times if relations between the teacher and the parent are friendly enough notes of a semisocial nature may be sent.

§ II. DUTIES OF THE TEACHER

1. **Duties in instruction.** — The teacher should carry out religiously the whole course of study to the best of his ability. So, too, he should follow all directions which come from his superiors. If he thinks them wrong or arbitrary he should do his best to carry them out and protest, if necessary, later.

When the principal has given a model lesson or has offered suggestions, advice, etc., the teacher should modify his instruction, for the time at least, so as to give the principal's suggestions a proper trial. He need not follow them slavishly, but he can not judge of their fitness or unfitness till he has carried them out.

When a teacher finds some device or method specially effective he should inform the principal of it. Inasmuch as the principal, if efficient, is doing his best to improve each teacher, the teacher in turn should give him the benefit of any improvements in instruction which he has effected.

The teacher should let the principal have a schedule of what he intends to do each day of the week. Schedules should be uniform in the scheme of arrangement but the distribution of subjects and the apportionment of time should be left to the teacher. The schedule may be arranged with the names of the days heading the columns and each of the five columns cut up into periods of instruction, or it may be arranged with the name of the subject heading the column and under each subject the name of the day and the period in which it is taught. The former arrangement, however, is more convenient for the principal.

Each month or so the teacher should let the principal know what progress he has made in the different subjects. He should indicate, (1) the subject, (2) type examples or problems, and (3) the stage of instruction reached, as development, drill, or what not. Such information should be arranged in topical outline if possible.

Several means may be employed for the purpose of indicating the progress made. In the first place the course of study might be utilised. The course of study should have the topics and subtopics of the subjects numbered and lettered. The teacher can then indicate by name of the subject, and topic number, exactly what has been covered. He might also indicate the stage of instruction reached, whether drill, review, or what not. For tests he might also send out a series of typical questions.

A somewhat similar method would be for the teacher to give an outline of his plan-book to the principal. If such plan-books are arranged in a series of topics divided into weekly periods, and numbered or lettered, the same method could be used as suggested in the preceding paragraph. Type examples, etc., might also be given.

The method of sending out a progress-book each month

finally ends in a mechanical copying of parts of the course of study, or of progress-books used on previous terms. It often is a perfunctory piece of clerical work at best.

As regards the children of the class the teacher should give them as effective instruction as possible in all the subjects as specified by grade requirements. Effective instruction implies, (1) that the teacher has studied up the subject-matter in standard authorities and by first-hand investigation and has blocked off and outlined his material so as to cover the grade work, (2) that he has carefully studied books, monographs, suggestions, etc., on method, and has selected effective means of presenting his logical outline, (3) that he has carefully planned each day's work and has before him on each day some sort of outline of the day's work with suggestions as to method, material, etc., and (4) that he goes through the complete cycle of development, review, drill, and test, before he is satisfied with his instruction. From the side of the children, effective instruction also implies, (1) that no discrimination is shown in the matter of books, supplies, etc., (2) that individual help is given to such children as need it, and (3) that the standard of efficiency in instruction as given in a preceding chapter is approximated.

It is the duty of the teacher to give the pupil a report of his general proficiency each month or at some stated interval. If a pupil is deficient his deficiencies should be noted. A child who seems to be in danger of falling too far behind in his work should be privately interrogated and cautioned and his parents should be notified. No boy should be allowed to sit in a class week after week without knowing where he stands in the different subjects, what his weaknesses are, and what are his chances of promotion.

When work is corrected it should be returned to the children or at least shown to them. Papers should not be thrown away in sight of the pupils. Such a method of procedure is not conducive to effort on the part of the children.

The teacher should keep some record of the progress of the children in the different subjects and should make such record the basis of his recommendation for promotion, etc. There should be no guesswork in this connection.

2. Duties in discipline. — In all questions of obedience, carrying out instructions, response to cooperation, and report on methods or devices in discipline specially effective, the teacher should follow the same course in his discipline as in his instruction.

The teacher should fill out and return promptly all blanks, requests, etc., sent by the principal for information on register, attendance, absence, lateness, truancy, disorder, etc., of pupils. He should also keep a record of supplies, books, etc., received, and he should have on file receipts from the children for all material which is to be returned by them.

In his management and control of the children in his charge the teacher should accord them such rights as I have indicated in the preceding chapter. He should consider that the pupils are as human as himself, that they have desires, impulses, and feelings, and that they inwardly resent suppression, injustice, and inconsistency.²

The teacher should always view his relation to the child as that of a guide, counselor, and instructor. He should not assume the position of the judge nor even that of the

² For good advice in this connection, see Taylor, Jeremy, *Holy Living and Holy Dying*, Bohn Library, 144.

outside world. No doubt the offences of a strange child on the street would call for police interference and little consideration. But that same child in the classroom is in the position of one who is still developing, and so requires kindly treatment and guidance. The teacher is paid to bring up the child in the narrow path and so should labor with might and main to train and govern the child and develop right action in him. If he has any dislike he should not express it in his position as teacher.

In his discipline of the class the teacher should not stop short at government. He should train the children in right habits. He should give them instruction in ideals and virtues. He should allow them adequate practice in conduct and should encourage such actions as are right and good. He should, in the words of Jeremy Taylor,³ 'so order the accidents of their lives, that by good education, . . . holy example, innocent company, prudent counsels, and . . . restraining grace, their duty . . . may be secured in the midst of a crooked and untoward generation.'

Since in this part of the book conduct is the subject of my story only a brief indication of the duties of the teacher in discipline is necessary. Full and explicit treatment will be given in the succeeding chapters. Since discipline is concerned wholly with conduct, it becomes necessary to consider what conduct really is, what lies back of it, what forms it assumes, and how it may be developed both generally and specially.

³ *Holy Living and Holy Dying*, Bohn Library, 158.

CHAPTER VIII

THE NATURE OF CONDUCT

§ I. CONDUCT IN PRIMITIVE RACES

1. **The child and the race.** — The development of the child in a serial order allied to the supposed graded stages of hunting, grazing, agriculture, etc., is based on a misconception of primitive life. When, for example, the periods of childhood are arranged in serial stages, as root and grub from birth to the fifth year, hunting and capture from four to twelve, pastoral from nine to fourteen, agricultural from twelve to sixteen, and shop and commercial from fourteen to forty, we have an academic arrangement which has no basis in fact.¹

In the first place, environmental conditions determine to a large extent the industry of a race. Nomadic races flourish in the steppes of Asia, agricultural tribes are found on level ground, fishers and hunters in the woodland or on the seacoast. Now the hunter and fisher, for example the Eskimo, can never develop into anything else. He can hardly become a tiller of the soil. Again, nomadic tribes do not develop agricultural propensities and found cities. It is by conquest that the nomad has seized fertile and rich lands, and then remained on the ground he has captured and given stamina to agricultural pursuits. Primitive history shows this.

¹ For such arrangement see: Chamberlain, Alexander, *The Child*, 59. Dopp, Katherine Elizabeth, *The Place of Industries in Education*. Horne, H. H., *The Phil. of Ed.*, 223.

The distinctly agricultural Chinese have been ruled first by the Mongols, then by the Manchus; the Persians by sovereigns from Turkestan; the Egyptians successively by Hyksos, or shepherd kings, Arabs, and Turks — all nomadic races. In central Africa, the nomadic Wahuma founded and maintained the stable states of Uganda and Unyoro, while in the countries that surround the Soudan every single state was founded by invaders from the desert. In Mexico the rougher Aztecs subdued the more refined agricultural Toltecs. In the history of the places in the borderland between the steppe and cultivated lands a series of cases will be found establishing this rule which may be recognised as a historical law.²

This is due to the higher political organisation and the more vigorous active life of the nomads. It is somewhat difficult, I think, to parallel this condition with a corresponding stage of 'development' in the child.

In the second place, the artificial arrangement of the culture-epoch scheme is shown by the activities carried on by primitive races. Commerce and exchange, for example, are not restricted to any stage of development, but are found with all savage tribes. The market is found throughout Africa, and the negro has a natural turn for trade. The rude Indians of Brazil trade arrow poison for spears and hard wood. The hunter will barter his furs for weapons, and so on.³

Again, the serial arrangement of the primitive industries into hunting, grazing, etc., seems to imply that the one stage, the hunting, for example, is a lower one than the agricultural. This also is contradicted by fact. The Eskimo is far superior to the Fuegian, though both hunt and fish. He is far above the nomadic Australian savage,

² Ratzel, Friedrich, *The History of Mankind*, Eng. tr. by A. J. Butler, 1: 28.

³ *Ibid.*, 2: 375. Tylor, Edward B., *Anthropology*, 285. *Handbook of American Indians North of Mexico*, Edited by Frederick Webb Hodge, 1: 330.

who in turn is of a lower grade than the North American Indian. The herdsmen on the steppes of Asia can not for a moment be put on a level, much less below, the agricultural negroes of Africa, as the Bechuana, Kaffir, Herero, etc., while the Bechuana is much below the races near the upper Nile. The industry, as such, gives no indication of the level of culture and is conditioned to a great extent by environment. The effect of environment on the industry of a people is shown in a modern instance. In England over 8,000,000 people are engaged in manufactures and only little more than 1,000,000 in agriculture, while in the United States, a limb of England as it were, over 10,000,000 people are engaged in agriculture.⁴

The fallacy of applying the culture-epoch theory in serial order to the stages of the child's development is due to a confusion of its logical nature with a notion of development. The so-called stages, hunting, fishing, grazing, agriculture, and commerce are a logical classification of the *food-getting* industries. They do not always indicate development, nor a serial order in which races progress from one stage to another. The hunter, for example, is not always inferior in civilisation to the agricultural worker, though conditions may force him to be.

When we examine the activities of the child himself, we see to how great an extent his environment determines the nature of his activity. If he is by a river, he will fish; if he sees a squirrel, he will chase it; if he goes through a field, he will pick flowers; if he passes through an orchard, he will pluck fruit; if he sees something possessed by a companion which he wants, he will barter for it; and so on. The stage in development in each case will depend upon

⁴ See: Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 342, 2: 432, etc. *Statesman's Year-Book*.

the age and training of the child, and not necessarily upon the activity as such. He will not, for example, fish and hunt with the same skill as the adult fisherman nor will he barter with the finesse of the cultured merchant. All modern Izaak Waltons must smile, I think, at the notion of restricting the age of fishing to the years of childhood.

The child, however, resembles in many ways the primitive savage. Such resemblance runs through *all* the activities of the savage, whether of food-getting industries, home occupations, social endeavors, or what not. The work itself of primitive man, no matter what it may be, should be taken as a basis of comparison. The age of the child, moreover, should be compared, not with any special primitive industry, but with the stage of development of the savage himself, regardless of his occupation.

2. **Social contact.** — Before individuals can mingle freely together, they must come together. There must be some form of social contact. Such contact often determines the direction of further social intercourse.

Various simple and unconventional forms of meeting are found in savage life. There may be rubbing of noses, rubbing of the face with the foot or the hand of the person greeted, smoking in common of cigar or pipe, hand-shaking, holding of hands, laying of palms together, clapping of hands, touching of finger tips, spitting on another, or what not. The general manner of greeting gives some indication of the attitude of the newcomer. Thus there may be holding out of twigs or grass, smiling, outstretched hands, and the like.⁵

Contact with higher personages is usually a more ceremonious process. In the presence of the king or chief the savage may bare his shoulders, strip altogether, smell

⁵ See Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 293, 2: 140, 211, 380.

the hands and feet of the king, throw himself into the dust, or perform similar acts which indicate inferiority.⁶

Contact with the gods and spirits is mediated by external objects. Fetish, idol, amulet, mask, omen, sign, medicine man, or priest is supposed to control events through the assistance rendered by the unseen spirit or god.⁷

The means of contact used by the child are similarly naïve and crude. It may be a cry, a slap on the back, a hand salute, a smile, etc. Older boys may have some secret cry, whistle, countersign, or what not. Such means of contact should be looked upon by the teacher as primitive and savage. They may appear 'cute' at times, but they should be refined into the more conventional modes of address.

3. Control of the individual. — After contact has taken place individuals usually engage in further intercourse. Certain lines of conduct are followed by them, a certain scheme of right and wrong operates through custom, a certain schedule of punishments tends to promote harmony among the members of a tribe. "The stronger savage does not rush into his weaker neighbor's hut and take possession, driving the owner out into the forest with a stone-headed javelin sent flying after him."⁸ Various preventive measures restrain him.

Crude and violent punishment is used by the savage to suppress offenders. Chastisement may take the form of a beating with a club, infliction of stripes, running of a spear through the arm or leg, thrusting of splinters into the flesh, infliction, in general, of great bodily pain and torture. Capital punishment is applied in a number of ways. "Twist-

⁶ See Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1 : 291.

⁷ See Tylor, E. B., *Anthropology*, 366. ⁸ *Ibid.*, 405.

ing the neck, hanging, throttling, breaking the neck, beating to death with clubs, impaling, throwing down precipices, are some of the most popular forms.”⁹ Fines may be accepted as atonement for trespass.

Ordeals may be used to determine the guilt of an accused individual. Pulling a ring out of boiling oil, licking a red-hot iron, etc., are some of the forms. In Africa, poisoned drinks play a large part. Often at the first signs of convulsions the victim is pierced with knives and hacked to pieces.¹⁰

Another form of restraint is the blood-revenge. Relatives of the injured person in such a case take up his cause, and exact a fine or inflict punishment. Even with races more civilised the blood-revenge held to quite modern times, and with some types of the so-called foreigner, it holds to-day.¹¹

A means of control partly religious are the laws of taboo. Everything upon which the power of taboo rests is *moa*, or sacred, all else is *noa*, or common. Originally of priestly character, the taboo is also used by kings and princes, medicine men or priests, and the wise men. It is a means of preserving property, restraining excess in times of drought, etc. Crops may be tabooed if there is fear of famine. Certain kinds of food may be tabooed. Personal property may be secured. Ratzel tells of a king ‘who laid a taboo on a mountain near Honolulu because he took the quartz crystals found there for diamonds.’ The taboo, it is seen, works through fear of imagined or real punishment.¹²

⁹ Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 293, 377, 450, 451, 2: 444, 3: 14.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 1: 451, 2: 369.

¹¹ See: *Ibid.*, 1: 450, 2: 133, 212, 492. Tylor, E. B., *Anth.*, 415. Westermarck, Edward, *The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas*, 1: Ch. XX. ¹² Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 284-288.

The various penalties, punishments, laws of taboo, etc., are usually preserved in what Bagehot calls the 'cake of custom.' Such custom works both by itself through the force of habit and training, but it has a strong support in the tribal suppression of any individual who diverges too much from the average. He may be considered 'bewitched' and tortured or burnt. Tradition of a tribe must in fact be respected to a great extent by the king himself.¹³

In addition to the means of control mentioned we find in most savage tribes a despotic government. Leadership is necessary in war. In peace the king may combine priestly with legal functions. In some cases ceremony and insignia are reserved for him as for a god. Often not one man, but a family, a group, or a council of wise men direct affairs. Even these rulers must keep within the limits of tribal custom and usage.¹⁴

Control of the individual as thus far presented may be considered *direct*. The individual is forced to yield to custom or to the wishes of others by punishment or torture, is compelled to respect property by infliction of pain, by blood-revenge, etc. Another form of control, however, is necessary for more peaceful intercourse. Control in such cases is *indirect* and proceeds by way of barter, exchange, or service. One controls another by appealing to his desires and wants. He can not directly force another to give up property, but indirectly he brings this about by barter and exchange.

Various means of exchange are used. There may be disks of shell, teeth, feathers, stones, bits of glass, porcelain, beads, wooden vessels, products of the chase, as skins,

¹³ See Westermarck, E., *Orig. and Dev. of the Mor. Id.*, 1: 159.

¹⁴ Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 133, 231, 2: 339, 343.

etc., and the like. Manufactured goods may be exchanged for raw products, and the reverse. All kinds of finished articles are made, as bowls, pots, basins, mats, ornaments, bracelets, stools, weapons, statues, musical instruments, pipes, tools, masks, clothing, etc.¹⁵

Two other indirect means of control influence the individual, approval and imitation. The tribe exists no doubt for defence and warfare. But the social need of the individual is also an important factor. As Darwin points out, 'the rudest savages feel the sentiments of glory, as they clearly show by preserving the trophies of their prowess, by their habit of excessive boasting, and even by the extreme care which they take of their personal appearance and decoration; for unless they regarded the opinion of their comrades, such habits would be senseless.'¹⁶

Imitation is the individual side of custom. Under normal conditions each individual does as the rest and each in turn thus helps to mold custom. By slight variations, which become adopted by the social whole, progress and change are possible. In savage races imitation operates strongly.¹⁷ Imitation, however, is a world-wide process, as Baldwin and Tarde have shown.¹⁸

In comparing the child with primitive man in connection with individual control a caution should be noted. The savage is prone to inflict pain and torture. This implies, not that control of children is possible most effectively by infliction of pain, but that the child, like the savage, is

¹⁵ Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 238, 436, 2: 89, 117, 3: 37.

¹⁶ Darwin, Charles, *The Descent of Man*, 1: 164, Pt. I, Ch. IV. See, also, Tylor, E. B., *Anth.*, 409.

¹⁷ See: Bagehot, Walter, *Physics and Politics*. Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 2: 326.

¹⁸ Baldwin, J. M., *Ment. Dev. and Soc. and Eth. Int.* Tarde, Gabriel, *The Laws of Imitation*, Eng. tr. by Elsie Clews Parsons.

ever ready to enforce his demands by a thrust or a blow. A child will slap or beat another, pull his hair, kick him, inflict pain in the most tender parts of the head or body, and show little restraint in respecting the person of another. This is why it is not safe to allow children to act as guards or monitors without considerable restriction of their authority and continual supervision.

The ordeal remains with children in the form of the 'fight.' Occasional fisticuffs are good things if used to uphold the right, but they should be directed into more humane means of control in impersonal matters which can better be settled by arbitration and discussion. Boxing, however, should be a feature of school work, as Hall points out.¹⁹

Blood-revenge is seen in brotherly or other interference when a child is wronged. A boy will threaten to 'get his big brother' after some one who misuses him, or perhaps the whole family will take the matter up. Many minor points of ethics are settled in this manner outside of court.

Taboo operates to a limited extent with children. A boy may have a 'bunk' for apples or nuts, or he may preempt some particular part of a stream for fishing or bathing. Newsboys usually taboo the competition of strangers on selected street corners. An effective use of taboo for school purposes is an *esprit de corps* which considers some actions 'good form,' and others 'bad form.' A vigorous public opinion will then exist to enforce respect of certain customs.

Custom operates more strongly on children than on adults. Adults usually have a basis of experience, an inner self with which they can commune, while children, like savages, must depend upon their surroundings and social

¹⁹ Hall, G. S., *Adol.*, 1: 217.

environment. Unless a child does as the others he is thrust aside and derided.²⁰

The unquestioning obedience shown by the savage to the chief or medicine-man, his willingness to live in a despotism, is paralleled by the clinging dependence shown by preadolescent children and by their ready obedience to command. It is because of this dependence and yielding nature that the child will sit for hours in a rigid and strained position, a position which would not be tolerated by an adolescent or an adult.

Indirect control is appreciated by children in their attempts at barter or exchange. A boy will 'swap' and also employ suggestion and insidious wheedling to obtain what he wants from another.

The tribe with its customs and means of approval is almost the same thing as the street 'gang'. If the 'gang' smokes, it behooves each member to do likewise. The propensity of individuals to associate, seek company, form crowds, is one which can be easily directed by the school. For the 'gang' should be substituted the club or association, for the 'gang' leader, the teacher, for pranks, riotous destruction of property, and similar activities, school athletics, excursions, games, social gatherings, and the like.

4. **Control of spirits and gods.** — The savage lives in a world of doubts and fears. Anything diverging from the routine of experience fills him with terror. Untoward events, strange phenomena, exceptional natural happenings, fill him with alarm. He feels unable to cope successfully with the mysterious and wonderful forces about him,²¹ and so he appeals to spirits and gods still more wonderful.

²⁰ See Bagehot, W., *Phys. and Pol.*, 101.

²¹ See: Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 303, 468, 2: 91. Tylor, E. B., *Primitive Culture*. Fynn, A. J., *The American Indian*, Ch. VIII. Spencer, Herbert, *Principles of Sociology*, 3: Pt. VI.

No direct control of gods is attempted. As the spirits are considered as superior forces only indirect control is employed. Usually a priest or medicine-man assumes that duty for the tribe. Rites, ceremonies, offerings, sacrifices, are signs of respect which the individual wishes to show, and by which he aims to control the aid of the gods. The general principle of the whole thing is that of barter and exchange. The savage wants help and is willing to pay for it. To make sure that he will not be misunderstood, he plainly asks for what he wants. The following prayer is an example:

Wohkonda, pity me, I am very poor; give me what I need; give me success against mine enemies, that I may avenge the death of my friends. May I be able to take scalps, take horses!²²

A study of savage control of the gods will result in an appreciation of effective means of social control. The savage does not threaten his god nor try to impose his will upon the spirit. Instead he approaches with respect and reverence, goes through the proper conventions, offers what he has, and awaits the results. Now this is an excellent form of social control. We effect little by trying to bend others to our will regardless of their own desires, and can work on them better by appealing to their desires and instincts, by offering service of some kind.

Certain resemblances are found in the child. He will hold various superstitions and beliefs which may cling to him when he grows older. He has strong faith in objects which will give 'luck' to himself and 'roots' to his competitor. He will trust to the efficacy of signs made by himself to affect the actions of others. He has a dim reverence for the unknown and makes crude attempts to explain phenomena which are awe-inspiring and mysterious.

²² Tylor, E. B., *Prim. Cult.*, 2: Ch. XVIII.

From such inchoate bases may be developed respect and reverence for true worth, loyalty to ideals, and belief in more spiritual things. In a more intellectual direction may also be developed an appreciation of the forces of nature, and a scientific study of natural phenomena.

5. **Moral characteristics.** — The right of life is protected by blood-revenge, by penalty, or by the individual's own ability to defend himself. The sanction is chiefly external. A savage would probably feel little compunction in knocking a stranger on the head if he could benefit himself thereby. The raids for pillage and plunder also show this. Human sacrifice, cannibalism, and the ruthless destruction of infants also go to show the small value which a savage places on human life.²³

The right of person depends to a great extent on the person. Wives, children, and slaves may be beaten. In general, however, the right of person is respected within the tribe and subject to custom. The right of property and to good name are similarly embedded in custom. Very seldom do these rights hold outside of the tribe.²⁴

Individual characteristics of the different tribes usually differ. The Melanesians will steal anything, going so far as to plunder graves. Negroes will steal and lie, and in some tribes the man who can lie plausibly is regarded as a clever fellow worthy of admiration. The Fijians are given to vanity and swagger. With some North American Indians gambling amounts to a passion. The Malay shows suspicion and a lack of frankness. Cruelty and the spirit of revenge are found in most of the races. Smoking is one

²³ See Westermarck, E., *Orig. and Dev. of the Mor. Id.*, 1 : Chs. XVII, XIX.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, 1 : Ch. XXII. Tylor, E. B., *Anth.*, Ch. XVI.

of the savage virtues, while cleanliness is a matter of small account.²⁵

In almost all of the primitive races we find a lack of persistence and steadiness, and a certain indolence and apathy which is a bar to effective progress. The Indian is indolent, the Negro is versatile, superficial, and lazy, the Oriental lacks energy, the Hindu is apathetic, the Abyssinian is indifferent to labor, and the nomad in general is fatalistic. Great energy may be shown for short periods, but that quiet persistence and even, systematic labor characteristic of the white man is lacking.²⁶

Some social virtues stand out in the midst of the general ignorance and weakness shown by the savage. Hospitality is usually extended to strangers visiting the tribe. A native may lie to another and visit a different village to see what he can steal, and still receive a stranger with welcome. Westermarck considers that a certain selfish element here enters. The stranger is a bearer of news, his blessing and good wishes are silently desired, and he tends to break the monotony of home life. So, too, the host may in turn become a visitor, and probably expects treatment similar to his own.²⁷

Children may be permitted to live, and if so, the mother brings them up. Sick members of a tribe are carefully tended in the light of what savages consider careful tending. A certain family spirit exists, though this again depends upon the family concerned.²⁸

In battle great physical courage is shown. Loyalty, devotion, and enthusiasm are often manifest. But such courage has not always the persistence exhibited by more

²⁵ See Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 219, 398, 2: 24, 324.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, 2: 16, 325, 442, 3: 102, 221, 229, 364.

²⁷ Westermarck, E., *Orig. and Dev. of the Mor. Id.*, 1: Ch. XXIV.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, 1: Ch. XXIII.

civilised races. Savages readily break in first attacks if they are not successful.

Parallel traits are painfully evident in the child. Children are very easily led to steal, gamble, smoke, etc., by evil companions. Often children show a tendency to lie, and in general lack application and persistence in their work. Cleanliness is also disregarded by children. In this connection the child should be studied and treated in a more or less impersonal manner. He should be looked upon as a more or less savage individual, as a problem to be solved. This attitude will relieve the teacher of much worry and unnecessary labor in trying suddenly to effect changes which can be only slowly developed.

6. **Ornament.** — All tribes, no matter how lowly, indulge in some ornamentation. The lowest form seems to be mutilation of the body by incisions and tattooing. Slashed scars on the breast or head, holes in the lips, plugs of bone pressed into the lips, braids woven into large holes in the ear-lobes, painting and tattooing in gaudy colors, are common. Teeth are sometimes filed, a tooth may be removed to improve the appearance, or bones may be suspended from the nose.

When clothes are worn they always receive decoration. Feathers, flowers, or ornamental caps may be worn. Necklaces, arm rings, bracelets, and knee rings are common. Belts of bead work, cloth, or skin are worn, and designs are woven into cloth.

Even household utensils show decorative effort. Vessels may be colored, carved, or ornamented with fancy handles. Mats may have a fancy border or design. Head-stools and cushions receive artistic additions. Pipes may be carved or colored. Even the rafters of the hut, tent, or house may be carved or colored.

Weapons are often most elaborately ornamented. Spear shafts may be carved and may have gaudy streamers hanging from the end. Dagger sheaths are usually carved, or the handles ornamented with metal. Masks are carved or colored. Shields have a more or less symmetrical form, and may be colored, or have flying streamers attached.

The figures carved or colored may be copies of man or of animals. Sometimes the designs are painted or woven, and at times the tribal symbol is worked into fabrics. Spirals, curves, zigzags, crescents, etc., may be carved along some axis or outline. Colors are usually used without much blending. Reds, blues, yellows, and greens predominate.²⁹

Ornament in savage life probably serves to give material for eye play and visual activity, and takes the place of the ideas and images which will occupy a more cultured mind. Images, fetishes, and paintings also serve as reminders of ancestors, valiant deeds, etc., and so are a sort of external system of ideals. Moreover, the general effect of ornament is to excite an attitude beneficial to conduct and to keep the feelings and emotions in a semiconscious state, in a waking condition, as it were, ready for effective use.

The child revels in color and ornamentation as does the savage, if not more so. Strong colors appeal to him and he works more willingly if the media given to him are colored or ornamented with design. In instruction he should therefore be allowed to work in color as much as possible. Drawings should be made with colored pencils,

²⁹ Groos is wrong in his statement, *Play of Man*, 58, that 'blue decorations are extremely rare.' The colored plates in Ratzel's volumes, **1**: 65, **2**: 97, 145, 193, 241, 427, 481, **3**: 100, 162, 326, 392, show a great deal of blue. In addition, one has but to inspect the exhibits in a well-equipped museum to see the free use of blue with the other colors.

scissor work should be done with colored paper, models should be colored, space as required for arithmetical problems should make use of coloring, and so on. In discipline, too, the general classroom atmosphere is more wholesome and conducive to right action if there is artistic decoration on the four walls. What the savage craves should not be denied to the child.

7. **Song, music, and dance.** — Almost all races show a great liking for song, music, and dance. Some tribes chant the moonshine and sunshine, forest and liberty, and the heroic deeds of the chiefs. Songs may be of a monotonous and dragging character, with shouts and yells interspersed, they may be spiritual hymns or songs of love, they may be sung individually or with a chorus, they may consist simply of roaring and screaming. Usually they are accompanied with music and dancing.³⁰

The popular instrument of music seems to be the drum. This may consist of a hollow bamboo or tree trunk or stem split on one side and struck with a stick on the thin edges. Sometimes a skin is stretched across a hollow stem or across a pot with water. Similar instruments are tom-toms, gongs, bronze disks, and sounding or resonant pieces of wood. Stringed instruments are also used. One or more strings may be stretched across a skin-covered gourd or hollowed wood. Shell instruments and horns are common, as are flutes, reed-pipes, pan-pipes, and pipes arranged together harmonica fashion, as many as twenty-three in a row. Occasionally a number of instruments are combined to form a band. There is no special harmony when such a band begins to play. It has been compared to a 'raging of the elements let loose.'³¹

³⁰ See Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 194, 346, 457, 2: 22, 213, 329, 3: 11, 218.

³¹ *Ibid.*, 1: 403, 404, 480, 2: 329, 3: 11, 371.

Dancing is the third member of the trilogy. It usually consists of more or less violent individual arm, leg, and body movements, or there may be a more concerted action among the members of the group. There may be bowings and swayings from side to side, running and chasing in circles or backwards or forwards, bendings, twistings, and facial grimaces. Weapons or torches are sometimes shaken, or dashed to the ground. Pantomime and primitive drama go with the dance.³²

The value of song, music, and the dance as socialising influences can not be overestimated. The song sung with others will, when repeated or heard again, rouse the memories and recollections of former social standards and customs held by the group. Ideals as represented by the words in the chants or songs become closely welded with the emotional nature of the individual. The touch and body contacts in the dance, moreover, tend to stamp each person as 'brother' and to breed respect and toleration for his ideals, while not to be overlooked are the excellent leg and body exercises and the deep breathing necessary.

Resemblances in the child need only be mentioned. The drum in the hands of the child has become an instrument of torture, while the childish love of noise is well known. Music and the dance are now recognised institutions in the school. I would again point out the necessity of looking upon the child as a savage in this connection, and not as one who intentionally makes noises or acts riotously.

8. **Games.** — Dancing, pantomime, and dramatic representation are a form of savage games. More specialised

³² See: Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1 : 223, 246, 403, 2 : 22, 274. *Hand. of Amer. Ind.*, Edited by F. W. Hodge, 1 : 381. Fynn, A. J., *The Amer. Ind.*, Ch. IX. Matthews, Brander, *The Development of the Drama*, 10, 11.

games are also found. Of the more common games are war and weapon games, wrestling, boxing, the chase, ball games, hide-and-seek games, guessing games, and the like. Less creditable to the savage are his gambling games. In a game called 'lala,' for example, a wheel-shaped stone is thrown for stakes by the Hawaiians, and they will risk everything on the farthest throw,—their property, their wives and children, even their arm and leg bones to be delivered after death.³³

From an educational standpoint, the games of savage children are of interest. For the most part they are imitations of the activities and industries of their parents. Thus, the children play at wife-catching where that is the custom. The young Indian will have his bow and arrow or his little reed spear. The pastoral negro child has a little goat and he models oxen and cows in clay. Racing and swimming matches are held and toy boats sailed.³⁴

9. Race levels of satisfaction.—The great difference between the uncivilised and the civilised races is due only in part to the environment. As Malthus says,³⁵ "If hunger alone could have prompted the savage tribes of America to such a change in their habits, I do not conceive that there would have been a single nation of hunters and fishers remaining." Present conditions show the same thing. The pastoral Zulu is superior to the pastoral Bechuana, while the Boer is above both. Even when the white race offers the products of civilisation the savage

³³ See: Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 194, 405, 2: 24, 212, 327, 3: 330. *Hand. of Amer. Ind.*, 1: 483.

³⁴ See: Tylor, E. B., *Anth.*, 305. Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 1: 194, 2: 416. Fynn, A. J., *The Amer. Ind.*, Ch. VI.

³⁵ Malthus, T. R., *An Essay on the Principle of Population*, 31.

will reject those that make for progress. He has been quick to assimilate the white man's rum and to adopt the European rifle, but he has not carried such imitation to other fields. In addition to the environment, the idiosyncrasies of the race are determining factors.

A characteristic of the savage is the low level of satisfaction which spurs him on. He does not want much, and anything which calls for steady and persistent effort he will reject. For example, the Kaffirs in the Orange Free State will live in the neighborhood of the white settlements, work till they have procured sufficient cattle to purchase a wife, and then, supremely satisfied, will go back to the interior, disdaining to work for the white man thereafter.³⁶

It is true that custom and habit work strongly in keeping the individual or the race in a rut, in making them accustomed to surrounding conditions, in finally causing them to remain satisfied with their present state. Custom, however, works on all people. The savage race and his more civilised neighbors are both affected by habit. The great difference between them is the energy which the one shows in breaking through the crust of custom, the willingness to suffer the lack of rest and quiescence present with customary procedure, and the inner restlessness which pours out in a steady and persistent stream of effort.³⁷

It is evident how important it is in discipline to create artificial levels of satisfaction during childhood by habituating the individual to certain actions, certain needs, certain environments, etc. If, then, the disciplined individual

³⁶ Ratzel, F., *Hist. of Man.*, 2: 321, 442, 3: 221, 365. Murphy, Edgar Gardner, *Problems of the Present South*, Ch. VI. Thomas, William Hannibal, *The American Negro*.

³⁷ See Bagehot, Walter, *Phys. and Pol.*, 190.

comes into a lower stratum, his natural tendency will be to struggle to go elsewhere or change the environment to suit himself.

§ II. LEADING RACIAL FORCES

1. **Greek.** — In no race other than the Greek do we find that inquiring curiosity, that love of investigation, of truth for its own sake, which looked 'with unflinching eye on all that met it, on man and the world, on life, and death.' In the theology and cosmology of Homer and Hesiod, we find primitive questions asked, 'Who rains?' 'Who thunders?' 'Who produces the earthquake?' Later philosophers took up similar questions in a more impersonal manner and sought first causes and principles.³⁸

The work of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle reaches to us even to-day. Socrates' inquiries, 'What is law?' 'What is piety?' 'What is democracy?' and his well-known 'Know thyself,' are stimulating investigation in all fields of thought. Plato outlined work on ethics, jurisprudence, and politics, and tried to explain the goal towards which the search for truth tends, *i.e.*, knowledge or cognition. Aristotle has given us an inductive and a deductive scheme for inquiry; he has handed down categories of thought, as quantity, quality, relation, activity, passivity, matter, form, cause, etc.; he has defined the cardinal virtues, wisdom, courage, temperance, justice; in his treatment of property, definition, genus, accident, etc., he has given the basis of the five predicables of the later logicians, genus, species, difference, property, and accident. In short, he has delivered to us full-blown a metaphysics, a

³⁸ See: Butcher, S. H., *Some Aspects of the Greek Genius*, 2. Grote, George, *Plato and the Companions of Sokrates*, 1: 2, 86. Benn, Alfred William, *The Greek Philosophers*, 1: Ch. I.

logic, an ethics, an economics, a poetics, a rhetoric, to name only a few of his surviving works.³⁹

Greek influence is formal, schematic, ideal, theoretical, and intellectual. We have with us Greek categories and forms of thought, methods of reasoning, and the spirit of inquiry and scientific research. But the content to-day is of a nature different from that of the Greek. Aristotle is called 'practical' because he based his investigations on concrete data. His work, however, is purely theoretical, ideal, schematic, and definitive. 'Scientific' would be a better term to apply to Aristotle than 'practical,' for science has its theory as well as its practice.

The stimulating effect of the questions put by the Greeks can not be denied nor can the value of their theoretical schemes, definitions, and classifications be questioned. When a man is slapped in the face by a stinging question he can hardly fail to respond if he is built of the right stuff. When, in addition, he is given the tools with which to work, he is enabled to answer in a form already built which he himself could have developed only at a great expense of labor and time. It was the refined Greek modes of thought which the rough northern tribes were able to use during the Middle Ages and which we are using to-day.

A great weakness in Greek ideals and practice is the disregard for human life, and their professed indifference to human rights and personality. The slaughter of the Helots during the eighth year of the Peloponnesian War and the *Krypteia* are an indication of this.⁴⁰ According to the

³⁹ See: Grote, G., *A History of Greece*, 4: 23, 8: 298. *Ibid.*, Plato, 1: 396. *Ibid.*, Aristotle. Draper, John William, *History of the Intellectual Development of Europe*, 1: Chs. IV-VI. Rogers, Arthur Kenyon, *A Student's History of Philosophy*, § 21.

⁴⁰ See: Grote, G., *Hist. of Gr.*, 2: 376, 378. Mitford, William, *The History of Greece*, 3: 18. Bury, J. B., *A History of Greece*, 131.

laws of Lycurgus, only well-formed and vigorous children were to be preserved. The ideal and poetic Plato would dismember the family,⁴¹ while Aristotle, after his study of over one hundred and fifty constitutions, has nothing better to suggest than this:

As to the exposure and rearing of children, let there be a law that no deformed child shall live, but where there are too many (for in our state population has a limit), when couples have children in excess, and the state of feeling is averse to the exposure of offspring, let abortion be procured before sense and feeling have begun.⁴²

We must not on this account undervalue the positive work accomplished along more strictly intellectual lines. But we must go elsewhere for other things which they lacked.

2. **Roman.** — The genius of the Roman is essentially practical, concrete, and particular. The Romans are the representatives of system and order in the ancient world. How well they succeeded in binding their provinces into a system is shown by their roads. From the northwest to the southeast of the Empire, from the wall of Antonine to Rome, and thence to Jerusalem, there were 4080 Roman miles of roads.

The public roads were accurately divided by mile-stones and ran in direct line from one city to another, with very little respect for the obstacles either of nature or private property. Mountains were perforated, and bold arches thrown over the broadest and most rapid streams. The middle part of the road was raised into a terrace which commanded the adjacent country, consisted of several strata of sand, gravel, and cement, and was paved with large stones, or in some places, near the capital, with granite. . . . Houses were everywhere erected at the distance only of five or six miles; each of

⁴¹ *The Republic*, Bk. V.

⁴² *Aristotle's Politics*, Eng. tr. by Benjamin Jowett, 295.

them was constantly provided with forty horses, and by the help of these relays it was easy to travel an hundred miles a day along the Roman roads.⁴³

When we compare the Roman ethics with the Greek, we find the same love of order, rule, and direction. The Greeks sought principles, categories, all-embracing definitions. If, however, we read Seneca's *Minor Dialogues*, for example, we find, not abstract definitions, but directions for soothing anger, rules of behavior in consolation, advice on clemency, discourses on how to bestow and receive benefits, and the like.⁴⁴

A lasting momento of Roman order we have with us to-day in our systems of law and jurisprudence. The *Digest* or *Pandects* and the *Institutes* collected by jurists in the reign of Justinian have helped to shape the laws of England and of the countries of Europe. One recognises this especially if one makes a comparison between the laws of England, France, and Germany with those of Rome as set forth in the *Institutes*. Modern jurists all acknowledge modern obligation to the laws of Rome.⁴⁵

As with the Greeks, so with the Romans, the individual as such was little respected. Slaves were kept and after Rome's expansion into the surrounding portions of Europe and Africa their numbers rapidly increased. The institution of slavery reacted on Rome with evil consequences. With labor degraded in the eyes of the free Roman and in fact often impossible because of its preoccupation by slaves,

⁴³ Gibbon, Edward, *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, Ch. II.

⁴⁴ Compare, also, Cicero's *Three Books of Offices*.

⁴⁵ See, for example: Holland, T. E., *El. of Juris.*, Tenth edition, Preface. Schuster, Ernest J., *The Principles of German Civil Law*, Preface. *Outlines of the Science of Jurisprudence*, Eng. tr. by W. Hastie, xxviii, *Note*. Maine, H. S., *Ancient Law*.

no sober and industrious middle class could be developed to serve as a check to the riotous excess and ostentatious vice of the higher classes and to replenish the wasting vitality of the Empire. The disregard of individual rights was also shown in the corruption existing in the government of the provinces and the treatment of the Teutonic and other tribes.⁴⁶

3. **Hebrew.** — Like the Roman, the Hebrew was practical, energetic, proud, and austere. Like the Roman, the Hebrew influence is still with us in the shape of law. But it is moral rather than civil law which he has delivered to us. The laws or *toroth* of Moses and the priests have to do with religious ceremonial, civil, and ethical matters. Of the Hebrew Code, however, it is the Decalogue and the Law of Holiness which work most deeply with us. The conception of sin as impurity and respect for the duties of humanity and justice are Hebrew conceptions, while the religions of monotheism, which fix belief in One God, are based on conceptions found in the Old Testament.⁴⁷

The Hebrews of the Bible suffer from social restrictions much like those of the ancients. 'Neighbor' is not so much mankind as the individual of the particular race. 'Holiness' is only for the selected tribes. Throughout Genesis the same narrow conception is seen. God is looked upon as a special protector of the race who is to lead them in battle, deliver them from evil, and make them triumphant over their enemies.⁴⁸ It is only fair to state that more could not be expected of a people struggling with

⁴⁶ See: Lecky, W. E. H., *History of European Morals*, 1: 262. For a picture of Roman depravity, see, also, Gibbon, E., *Dec. and Fall of the Rom. Emp.*, Ch. XXVI.

⁴⁷ See, for example, Leviticus xvii-xxvi.

⁴⁸ See Ottley, R. L., *A Short History of the Hebrews*, 67.

idolatry. The development of a religion is ever from small to larger circles. A passage will show this tribal conception :

Thou shalt not avenge, nor bear any grudge against *the children of the people*, but thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself.⁴⁹

It is seen what a splendid heritage was left to the Western nations. A monotheistic religion improved later in Christianity, and moral laws higher than any existing in previous religions, a highly organised system of law and jurisprudence, and models of inquiry, categories, and tools of thought were given full-blown for their use. That the barbaric northern tribes have responded as they did shows that they were composed of raw material of the proper quality. In it all, however, we fail to find the individual, we look in vain for the neighbor. Christianity recognised him first. But the race which has developed this aspect most thoroughly is the Teutonic.

4. **Teuton.** — By the Teuton I mean those people in England, Germany, America, and Australia who have come from a common stock. It is of interest to examine the characteristics which have enabled the Teuton to assimilate the best which has been offered to him by the Greek, the Roman, and the Hebrew, and to carry to the four quarters of the globe the Christian virtues, faith, hope, and charity.

One characteristic of the Teuton is his love of individual freedom, and his initiative and independence. In the forests of northern Europe the Teutonic tribes had their popular assemblies, as do the Swiss in their cantons to-day.⁵⁰ In war the king took no more than his share of booty and plunder, and it was a warrior who, at Soissons, had the courage to step up and deny the king's right to the vase.

⁴⁹ Leviticus xix : 18. Italics are mine.

⁵⁰ See Freeman, Edward A., *The Growth of the English Constitution*, Ch. I.

The Witan, the English Parliament, and the American Congress are results of such initiative and independence.⁵¹

A second characteristic of the Teuton is his vitality, his energy, his steadiness, and his capacity for continued work. It may manifest itself in the laborious products of German thought, in the colonising and commercial achievements of British energy, in the productive and industrial activity of the people of the United States. It may seem absent in the stolid Englishman, the phlegmatic German, or the drawling Yankee. Strenuous tests and critical occasions, however, call it forth and show its quality. Added to these advantages is the ability to learn, to break through the crust of habit, to modify conduct by past experiences, to try new methods, to test new situations. Much of present-day progress is due to it.

With the Teuton's strong love of independence and individual freedom goes a great respect for law and order. A striking instance of strong individuality and respect for law is Hampden's resistance to the imposition of ship money. He refused to pay, but his refusal was conditioned by the decision of the twelve judges sitting in the Exchequer Chamber. Strong individuality, in fact, is capable of greatest realisation only in a domain regulated by law. With a love of individual liberty is present a respect for the rights of others, and a strong sense of duty. And in some way bound with the vitality and physique of the Teuton in his sympathy and fellow-feeling for his neighbor, be he white, black, or yellow. The interference of the United States in Cuban affairs, and the attitude of England towards slavery, the Armenian atrocities, etc., are examples of the action of such sympathy.⁵²

⁵¹ See Gummere, Francis B., *Germanic Origins*, Ch. X.

⁵² See Waldstein, Charles, *The Expansion of Western Ideals*.

In the Teutons we find a race which is able to rival the Greeks in literature and abstract thought, to excel the Romans in government, commerce, and industry, to absorb Christianity and spread its doctrines, and as a contribution of its own, to offer an example of individuality and a sympathy for others which is without a parallel in the ancient world or even in the modern.

If one restricts one's notion of conduct to the four walls of the classroom, much of the above may seem irrelevant to questions of discipline. But conduct is a problem so old and so universal, reaching to us as it does from the Greeks, the Romans, and the Hebrews, and present in all parts of the world where man is found, that no treatment of it can be too thorough. Moreover, there is no act of a cultured individual which does not have in it some traces of ancient ideals and conduct. We might say that the Greek element stands for the ideal and the formal in conduct, the Roman for the practical and the concrete, the Hebrew for the religious and the ethical, and the Teutonic for the humane and the social. Or, from a different standpoint, the Greek may be considered as representing the intellect, the Roman as standing for the will, the Hebrew as contributing the feeling element, and the Teuton as enforcing the social aspect of conduct. This division, however, I give as suggestive only, and not as rigidly logical.

§ III. CONDUCT IN THE INDIVIDUAL

1. **Control of one individual by another.** — Conduct, as discussed in the above sections, has been shown to be a form of control. Such control is much the same whether it is primitive or more refined. In either case it acts either indirectly or directly. In its more civilised stages insti-

tutions are developed to mediate the control of one individual over another, and convention assumes a more important part in the process. But the basic process is much the same.

(a) *Indirect*. — It is most easy to see the workings of indirect control in trade, commerce, and industry.

Man has almost constant occasion for the help of his brethren, and it is vain for him to expect it from their benevolence only. He will be more likely to prevail if he can interest their self-love in his favour, and show them that it is for their own advantage to do for him what he requires of them. Whoever offers to another a bargain of any kind, proposes to do this. Give me that which I want, and you shall have this which you want, is the meaning of every such offer; and it is in this manner that we obtain from one another the far greater part of those good offices which we stand in need of.⁵³

Exchange may be of values of the same kind, of values of different kinds, or of expected or mutual kind. Thus, for the pleasure accruing from the words, 'You are a fine little fellow,' Franklin ground an ax. Exchange visits, dinners, etc., proceed on the same basis. Even the polite request operates in part through the pleasant agitation excited because of the courtesy, and in part because of expected service for similar requests on the part of the giver.

In more complex relationships a third party or institution is called into service, for which service either of the individuals brought together may give compensation. But there is an exchange of benefits as in more simple cases. Thus, one individual may employ the mail system to facilitate contact with another whom he wishes indirectly to control. Mail service as controlled in particular situations requires individual service of some third party who must be paid for the benefits which he bestows. The same

⁵³ Smith, Adam, *The Wealth of Nations*, Bohn Library, 1: 15.

holds true of other institutions, no matter how complex. The concrete workings of such institutions are realised only in specific situations and by means of individuals.

(b) *Direct*. — In more civilised conditions, control outside of the school or the family is hardly ever direct. When it does become direct, there usually enter legal or other institutional aspects of conduct.

To prevent infringement of the rights of person, property, etc., control of an offending individual is usually direct. Even when not in process of realisation the law, in its negative aspect, says in effect, 'If you do thus and so, you must take the consequences.' In this case the warning stands for the actual realisation in controlling an individual and so acts directly. In return for his part of the bargain, on the other hand, the individual receives protection, etc., against infringement of his rights, in addition to other more positive services. Such control demands mediation of an institution which in particular instances is realised by individuals who must be rewarded for their services.

(c) *Relative*. — Whether direct or indirect, control is never absolute. At no time do the benefits accrue only to one individual and not to the other. To take an extreme instance, when a slave is working under the lash, he controls the actions of the overseer in so far as he does his work. He gains at least by his service some release from torture by the lash. It is seen that if an overseer continued beating the slave, it would make little difference to the slave whether he did his work or not. The same holds true in cases of torture.

Conduct as thus presented would seem to be essentially selfish. It becomes selfish only when the benefits accrue to particular individuals and not to the social whole. But when the benefits do accrue to society at large, such social

reference may exist side by side with individual satisfaction. So long as society is benefited it usually does not concern itself with the inner condition of the individual. None the less he may profit or feel satisfaction at the same time that the social whole is benefiting. The two aspects, social and individual, do not necessarily conflict.

The educational implications of this conception of conduct are of considerable importance. In the first place, it behooves the teacher to emphasise before the child the necessity of offering social service of some kind, and in the second place, it behooves the teacher himself to offer a benefit of some kind, whether approval or what not, to stimulate response in the pupils. Action or service on the mere say-so of another can not be expected.

2. **Self-control.** — If an individual is to offer service, he must be able to do something which is appreciated and desired by others. As a rule the social individual must use indirect control and for this some service is necessary. He can not, with effect, sit down like the child and say, 'I want this or that.' He must be able to do something; he must be good for something, in a specific way. In the last analysis, therefore, social control resolves itself into an individual's control of himself, *i.e.*, into self-control.

A seeming exception is the beggar. The beggar, however, uses direct control. He threatens us with pain by his possible condition. We do him a service, and in return receive the satisfaction and relief resulting from the beggar's improved condition. In this regard the beggar is much like the robber. He holds up the pedestrian in much the same way. In fact many people would prefer the pain of an actual 'hold-up' to the unrest and distress caused in themselves by the misery and destitution of others.

3. **Individual levels of satisfaction.** — Differences in individuals will be found similar to those existing among the different races. The effort which an individual can put forth will depend upon many things. He is born with a certain vitality with which he will be able to reach a certain level. Should he strive to climb higher, the stress, strain, and distress resulting because of drain on his vitality will compel him to remain satisfied with his present position.

Given a number of individuals with equal vitality, however, the level of satisfaction of each will be conditioned by other factors. Habituation to a certain environment will stimulate an individual to keep himself within the limits of such environment. If he is removed from it, the resulting unrest will excite in him a struggle to get back. An individual with sufficient energy and persistence to reach higher levels may not seek so to do either because he knows no better or because he has been habituated to lower levels. One who never has had a taste of better things, who, in fact, considers them outside of his sphere, will hardly strive to reach them.

The school in general, and the teacher in particular, therefore, should consider that nothing is too good for the child, that no levels are too high for him to reach. No expense should be spared on this account to steep the child in the best which has been thought and done, and to instruct him in the ways by which he may continue to remain in the sphere of such levels. It must be remembered that social advance is possible only through the individual, and that well-trained and instructed individuals, on the average, mean an enlightened and progressive social whole.

§ IV. CONDITIONS OF CONDUCT⁵⁴

1. **Institution or situation.** — Conduct, service, control, in the abstract, mean nothing. Before these are possible an individual must come into contact with another in some definite situation or by means of some specific institution. The simplest social institution is the immediate communication between two individuals, while more complex control may require the assistance of numerous intermediaries. To facilitate contact and intercourse among individuals more or less conventional institutions exist, as state departments, the church, the home, etc., while less conventional means are the dinner, the society or club, and the like.

That conduct is impossible without the existence of some definite situation which involves at least two individuals is very evident. It seems all the more strange therefore that classroom practice should consider government as the greater part of discipline, and an isolated rigidity and untutored silence as a large portion of conduct.

2. **Standard and ideal.** — With the existence of an institution or situation in civilised society conduct assumes a more or less conventional form. Certain standards are rigidly set and certain ideals emphasised which must be more or less closely followed.

Standards of conduct are more or less external and are concerned with the form and manner of conventional expression. The different kinds of polite request, excuse, etc., come under this heading. So, too, do the various standards used in the conduct of business, law, and the like. In such cases nothing can be done unless certain formal

⁵⁴ See: Lieber, F., *On Civ. Lib. and Self-Gov.*, Chs. XXV–XXXI. Small, A. W., *Gen. Soc.*, Ch. XXXIII, § 7. Mackenzie, J. S., *Man. of Eth.*, Bk. III, Ch. VII, § 2.

requirements are complied with. Such requirements often necessitate the assistance of individuals technically trained in the manipulation of business, legal, and similar forms.

The ideal refers to the inner, guiding light which points out the right path of action, to the internal criterion by which conduct may be judged as right or wrong. It may consist in an all-embracing imperative, 'Do right though the Heavens fall.' It may be simply a series of rules which serve as guides for right action in different situations. It may be a type of character, a model of personality acquired either by intimate contact with others, by reading, by instruction, and the like. Whatever form it takes, it is concerned chiefly with the rectitude of conduct.

A standard may be *correct* or *incorrect*, an ideal may be *right* or *wrong*. The individual, for example, who holds up another in the dark and politely requests his money or his life may be following correct standards of expression, but we judge his action wrong. On the other hand, the youth who slaps a man violently on the back and shouts, 'Hey, mister, you dropped your pocketbook,' is ethically right but conventionally incorrect. The latter, however, is always to be preferred.

3. Automatic responses.—To facilitate contact and social control the individual must relegate to habit many of his expressions and actions. He can not well proceed effectively if he must hesitate because he is uncertain in what manner next to proceed. He may be placed in awkward and embarrassing positions if he forgets the right method of conventional procedure, or if he is ignorant of them altogether. It may be noted that habituation in such conventional procedure should be begun in the early years of childhood, the sooner, the better. **Late in life**

it becomes difficult to acquire the *savoir faire* so necessary in the make-up of the cultured individual.

4. **Sanction.** — As first used technically the term 'sanction' was one of jurisprudence and referred to the vindicatory or punitive aspect of law.⁵⁵ In ethics the term refers in addition to the impulsion which excites an action, to the positive aspects, as pleasure, satisfaction, etc., which stimulate endeavor.⁵⁶ A sanction in brief is a spring of action.⁵⁷ It may be the pleasure, ease, quiescence, or satisfaction, real or ideal, which excites appetite towards control of a situation, or it may be the pain, unrest, excitation, or dissatisfaction which excites aversion from control of a situation. In the last analysis all kinds of external sanction, political, popular, religious, or what not, can be resolved into these two.

§ V. DEFINITION OF CONDUCT

In the light of what has been said in the preceding sections, it is fairly evident that,

Conduct in an individual is his control of his social environment.

Such control may not be complete, it may be bungling and awkward, but so long as there is conduct there must be control of some kind, whether direct or indirect.

⁵⁵ See: Blackstone, William, *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, 1: 56. Ward, Lester F., *Dynamic Sociology*, 1: 40. Bentham, Jeremy, *Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*, 24. Austin, John, *Lectures on Jurisprudence*, Fifth edition, rev. and ed. by Robert Campbell, 1: 89-96.

⁵⁶ See: Baldwin, J. M., *Soc. and Eth. Int.*, Pt. IV. Martineau, James, *Types of Ethical Theory*, 1: Bk. I, Ch. V. Mackenzie, J. S., *Man. of Eth.*, Bk. II, Ch. VI, § 5. Duprat, G. L., *Morals*, Eng. tr. by W. J. Greenstreet, § 169.

⁵⁷ For a number of good definitions of 'sanction,' see *The Century Dictionary and Cyclopaedia*.

It is also seen that, since control of others is essentially the result of a proper control of the self, conduct may, from the individual point of view, be defined as follows:

Conduct in an individual is his social self-control.

A few more definitions may here be in order:

Discipline is the process by which the individual acquires and develops social self-control.

Discipline from this point of view is an aspect of education on a *par* with instruction. Instruction and discipline thus constitute the process of education. Discipline has to do with the essentially social side of the environment. Industry, commerce, etc., involve control and are more or less social, but other elements enter to exclude them from the essentially social side of control. They imply instruction as well as discipline. They are concerned with material aspects as well. If then we consider the material and the social (religious) aspects of the environment, we can define education very briefly.

Education is the process by which the individual acquires and develops control over his material and social environment.

'Education as adjustment' must give way to a more dynamic view of the process going on in the individual. The tendency to interpret motor activity in terms of the old English association formula has led to the more static view of education as adjustment. The mind as a blank tablet has been paralleled by the body as a set of muscles which do nothing more than work to fit the organism into the environment. The process in fact is much different.

When, for example, an individual comes to a forest, he does not wholly adapt himself, become arboreal, or live on grass. He proceeds vigorously to mold his environment to suit himself. He does not aim to adapt himself wholly to his environment. So, too, in social matters the individual does something more than check himself here, or adjust himself there. Adjustment at times is necessary, but it is a secondary process and leads to more perfect control.

CHAPTER IX

THE SANCTIONS OF CONDUCT

§ I. SANCTION OF FEELING

1. **Nature of feelings.** — Pleasure-pain as a stimulus to action has always been recognised by savage and philosopher alike. Some consideration of feeling then becomes necessary.¹ As 'pleasure-pain' is an expression used somewhat loosely, some analysis is necessary to determine the facts to which it refers and to differentiate it from sense excitation and emotion. Pain as a felt sensation sharply localised is due to an injury to the epidermis or to excessive muscular contraction. Excessive or intense stimulation of any end-organ may reach through to epidermis, mucous membrane, striped muscle or bone, and stimulate the free nerve endings, producing pain. In this sense, pain is a sensation allied to sensations of temperature and pressure. There is nothing then which corresponds to it as sensation of pleasure.²

In another sense, pain, unpleasantness, etc., refer to the general feeling-tone which accompanies impressions and ideas. It is then contrasted with pleasure, pleasantness. Thus, a hard seat, a jarring noise, a sharp reproof, may

¹ See: Bentham, J., *Princ. of Mor. and Leg.*, 29-31. Morgan, C. Lloyd, *Animal Behavior*, 286. Spencer, H., *Principles of Psychology*, 1: 279.

² See: Titchener, Edward Bradford, *An Outline of Psychology*, § 21, and, *The Psychology of Feeling and Attention*. Ebbinghaus, Herman, *Grundzüge der Psychologie*, 1: § 31.

excite displeasure. Objects or memories may also give pleasure or pain. We then speak of pleasure-pain, pleasure-displeasure, pleasantness-unpleasantness, as feeling.³ It is this point of view which underlies Wundt's classification of feelings⁴ into those of (1) pleasure-displeasure, (2) excitation-depression, and (3) tension-relaxation; and Royce's classification⁵ into (1) pleasure-displeasure, and (2) restlessness-quietness, as ground forms of feeling.

It is highly probable that any feeling other than pain sensation is an incipient form of emotion. We usually call a state an emotion when we give it a specific name, as anger, fear, love, etc., and as a feeling or an affection when we refer to it in a general way as pleasure or pain. The general organic expansion, renewed vitality, etc., color one series of emotions, while the organic disturbance, blocking of expression, etc., color the other. So, too, we speak of feeling when we refer to the exciting cause, as pleasures of home, etc., and of emotion when we refer to some specific subjective state, as joy, pity, etc.

2. Classification of feelings. — The feelings which stimulate action may be called positive, and those which arrest action may be called negative. Again, from a subjective standpoint, they may be classed as feelings of pleasure, or as feelings of pain. Finally, they may be classed according to the exciting causes, as individual or social. The latter classification allows of the greatest amplification and is one of value for educational purposes. It may be subsumed under the general classification of feelings as pleasure-pain feelings.

³ *Ibid.*, 1: § 51. Jodl, Friedrich, *Lehrbuch der Psychologie*, 2: Ch. VI.

⁴ Wundt, Wilhelm, *Grundzüge der Physiologischen Psychologie*, 3: Ch. XVI, § 3, b. ⁵ Royce, Josiah, *Outlines of Psychology*, § 65.

Of the beneficial pleasures ⁶ which appeal to the individual as such are (1) pleasures of the senses, (2) pleasures of the imagination, (3) pleasures of thought, (4) pleasures of health and motor activity, and (5) pleasures of contemplation, reverie, and possession. The last two are really forms of the first three.

Of pleasures of the senses the most important are those arising from pleasing colors, pictures, art, designs, etc., from pleasing tones, music, singing, etc., from touch, as of fur, etc., from tastes and odors, from health, and from general motor activity and self-expression.

Pleasures of the imagination include those of memory, fancy, etc., as sung by the poets.⁷ Imagination may be agreeably stimulated by great, uncommon, or beautiful natural phenomena, architecture, art, music, tales of fancy, stories of adventure, history, allegory, poetry, etc. In addition to pleasures of the imagination may be added those of hope or expectation, of memory, and of the 'make-believe' world of the child.

The pleasures of thought and of possession come from the resulting achievement, real or expected, and not always from the process itself. As Addison remarks, 'thought is often attended with too violent a labor of the brain.' The joy of discovery and the feeling of power are necessary increments.

From the social side there may be the pleasures of social intercourse, of friendship, of social cooperation, as in work, dancing, games, etc. Such social pleasures are intensified by many of the individual pleasures above enumerated.

⁶ See Bentham, J., *Princ. of Mor. and Legis.*, Ch. V.

⁷ See Addison, Joseph, *The Spectator*, ed. by Henry Morley, Nos. 411, 412, 416-421. Addison devotes several papers to a discussion of the pleasures of the imagination. His treatment is taken bodily by Akenside and woven into the *Pleasures of the Imagination*.

As pleasures have been classified into (1) pleasures of the senses, of health, of movement, and expression, (2) pleasures of the imagination, of hope, and memory, (3) pleasures of thought, of contemplation, and of possession or control, and (4) pleasures of social contact and cooperation, — so pains may be classified into (1) pains of sense, of ill-health, and of restraint, (2) pains of the imagination, of hope, and of memory, (3) pains of thought, of contemplation, of privation and depression, and (4) pains of social isolation, of indifference, of disapprobation, and of ignominy and contempt.

Pains of the senses may be excited by gloomy, glaring, or dirty and monotonous surfaces, by grating, harsh, sneering, or loud tones, by excessive stimulation of the skin, by evil odors, disagreeable tastes, dry throat, and by ill-health, restraint, lack of activity, etc.

Pains of the imagination, etc., result from a lack of imaginative matter, from disturbing images or ideas, from anticipated pains, from monotony of material, and the like.

Pains of thought may be due to inability to control ideas, problems, etc., failure to succeed in mental work, etc. Pains of contemplation are caused by bare, bleak, untidy prospects, lack of harmony and rhythm in decoration, lack of decoration, etc. Pains of privation, etc., are due to loss of objects, deprivation of objects, interference with full control of objects, and the like.

The social pains of isolation, segregation, indifference, ignominy, contempt, disapproval, etc., explain themselves.

3. Development of feelings. — In the development of feeling, three points of view should be kept in mind. In the first place, the teacher may seek to provide an agreeable, furthering atmosphere in the classroom and to prevent what

is disagreeable or inhibiting. In the second place, he may employ the various feelings in a positive manner to stimulate action one way rather than another. This aspect I shall consider in a following chapter on the general development of conduct. In the third place, he may seek actively to develop the proper feelings in children. As this point of view involves the others it deserves careful consideration.

The general method to be followed in developing a feeling is as follows: (1) Supply situations or facilitate contact with situations which will produce feeling; (2) Analyse such situations and emphasise the feeling-producing aspect by calling attention to it, etc.; (3) Do not check naïve joyousness or expression by supercilious comment or impatient criticism; (4) Allow of full expression and control of the feeling-producing situations by the children themselves; and (5) Revive pleasing memories of such situations in correlation, verbal reference, etc. In developing any particular feeling, special application of these rules is necessary.

In vision, saturate the child with color. Contrast colors, rich with gaudy, mellow with glaring. Fill door panels with uniformly tinted paper. Hang pictures properly mounted, place statues in central positions, and arrange decorations with symmetry. Direct the child's attention to unity and harmony in decoration. Let the child use color in map-drawing, in sketching, in number work, in design, etc. Go with him to the museum and the art gallery. Use his knowledge in correlation with literature and history.

In connection with sound accustom the child to clear, soothing tones. Give the children practice in singing. Give musical entertainments and have him hear and sing some of the prettier classical selections. Throw the mantle of ridicule around the noise, brassy sounds, and the untutored element associated with cheap amusement places.

The sense of taste usually remains clean so long as children are content with candy and do not turn to tobacco. Chewing of pure candy should be encouraged, though not in the school. Smoking should be discouraged by showing the cheap vainglory which usually stimulates it, and by emphasising the evil effects, as by drawings, charts, etc. The same is true of drinking. The uselessness of the habit, its expense, its filthiness, and the character of those having it, should be pointed out again and again.

Pleasures of health can be increased by providing hygienic environmental conditions, by tending to ventilation, etc., by explaining the function of nutrition, food values, etc., by allowing free exercises between lessons, and by talks on physiology, care of the body, and the like.

Pleasures of the imagination are cultivated by steeping the child in nature, art, and music, by bringing him face to face with scenes of historic interest, by calling his attention to the great events honored by holidays, by directing him and accompanying him at times to the museum, to plays of real worth, and to cheap operas which may be within his comprehension. Such pleasures may be recalled and corrected by letting the child illustrate in color what he has seen and heard, by allowing him to represent great personages in pantomime or dramatisation, by directing him in the construction or modeling of historic monuments, scenes of interest, battle-fields, machines which have revolutionised industry, etc. In addition, informal talks and discussions should bring out the full meaning of events, scenes, monuments, personages, and the like.

Reading of standard literature should also be encouraged. Read or relate to the children interesting stories or incidents from Grimm or Andersen, Poe or Stevenson, Scott or Dickens. Base compositions on exciting incidents, heroic

deeds, or noble actions read by the children. Direct the child in his choice of books and have a list of interesting books which the child should read. The same holds in the case of poetry. Poetry should be read with emphasis upon harmony and rhythm. A few authors should be selected and the best poems read in part by the teacher and in part by the class. Tennyson, Poe, Shelley, Keats, Longfellow, Scott, Shakespeare, to name only a miscellaneous few, have much in them which will interest children.

Pleasures of contemplation, possession, etc., can be developed by bringing the children to the green fields and running streams of the surrounding country. Encourage excursions, games, outdoor parties, and the like. Ask children to contribute specimens, as of leaves, wood, stones, etc. Return such things as the children have made and such specimens as they wish to keep.

Social pleasures can be developed only by allowing free social intercourse among the children. The Roman *penthalon*, borrowed from the Greek, namely, running, wrestling, leaping, throwing, and boxing, may be used for such a purpose. Ball games, athletic meets, informal entertainments, luncheons, etc., are also helpful. Groups of children may be organized to visit places of interest, gather specimens, work on some common object, as large relief map, scientific apparatus, etc. Associate with the children in their small endeavors. Revive such pleasures by songs, school cry, meetings, etc.

By following the general outline at the head of the section a teacher can develop any of the feelings. I have indicated a few of the more specific devices necessary. Others can be worked out by the teacher himself.

4. **Arrest of feelings.** — Arrest of feelings may be considered from two points of view, either (1) there are

present painful feelings which should be removed, or (2) there are pleasures which delight the children, but which are injurious to them or socially harmful. In the former case an analysis of the situation and a substitution of pleasurable situations will aid in remedying the matter. In the latter case more specific action is necessary.

In the first place, do not attempt to suppress childish pleasures without at the same time substituting others for them. When, for example, a child shows pleasure in gaudy colors or loud noises, the best we can do is to give him the same thing but in a different brand. So, too, the club, association, or meeting may replace the 'gang,' games and excursions, the petty nuisances on the street, and so on. With such substitution should go an analysis of the situation producing the pleasure wrongly sought by the child. Its actual worth in the eyes of the world at large, the associations which cling to it, its aimlessness, folly, and childishness should be publicly shown.

Since substitution or disuse of a feeling should be replaced by a positive development of similar or other feelings, the discussion in the above section will apply in this connection. The same general principle may then be applied and the same specific action taken.

§ II. SANCTION OF EMOTION

1. **Nature of emotions.** — It might be well to show the difference between sensation, feeling, and emotion. A sensation, whether of sight, touch, pain, or what not, is external, definite, local, and correspondent with a special end-organ. Feeling is more subjective, diffuse, general, and correspondent with a general body state. It may accompany local sense excitations but its effects seem to

radiate and affect the organism as a whole. When there is open expression of feeling by word, action, or attitude, the more intense and complex state is an emotion.

The order in the series of changes leading up to emotional expression are, (1) stimulation of the organism by external or ideal means, (2) reflex disturbances in the internal organs, viscera, glands, etc., (3) a feeling-consciousness of the emotion, (4) motor expression and activity either to continue the stimulation, or to remove it, escape from it, or compromise with it, and (5) further conscious changes accompanied by a pleasure-pain tone.⁸

The differentia of emotion are the visceral elements which are due to instinctive reaction. When these are present, the 'feel' of the emotion already exists and is followed by further motor activity. An emotion is different from a more quiet feeling in that it is more complex, is due to reflex visceral changes, and is accompanied with open or attitudinal expression of some kind. Such expression may escape the eye, but it can always be measured by laboratory means.

2. Classification of emotions. — If we consider an emotion as due to stimulation of or interference with the activity of an organism, we can readily classify emotions on this basis.

If the activity of an individual is suddenly blocked, thwarted, opposed, hindered, suppressed, restrained, misdirected, etc., there results the emotion variously called anger, resentment, indignation, hate, or revenge. Such activity may be mental. A man who is called a 'cur' has his opinion of himself suddenly contradicted, has his ideal

⁸ See: Morgan, C. Lloyd, *Habit and Instinct*, Ch. IX. James, W., *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. XXV. Stout, G. F., *Man. of Psych.*, Bk. III, Ch. IV, and *Anal. Psych.*, 2 : Ch. XII.

realisation of himself violently checked or misdirected. In the emotions of the 'anger' group some distinctions may be made. When opposition comes from a person, the emotion is called anger, indignation, or resentment. Continued opposition or continued thought of such opposition results in hate. In revenge there are added feelings due to tendencies to inflict harm on the obstructing individual. Indignation carries with it a moral tinge.

If on completion of an activity, the objective results fall short of the guiding aim, if there is a lack of fulfilment, the resulting emotion is called disappointment, dejection, chagrin, or if success appears hopeless, despair or resignation. Lack of fulfilment may be due to ignorance, to inability in the individual, to the material employed, or to the action of outside forces not provided for, as of natural phenomena, failure of a person to carry out his promise, interference by another person, etc. Anger may often accompany the disappointment.

If some sudden change or stimulation comes upon an individual and causes him to lose control over his activity, to become violently excited or incoherent, we have terror or fright. In milder forms such commotion may be produced by the idea of approaching evil, and is manifest in fear. In weaker form we have surprise or consternation.

Comparison by an individual of the results of his activity with those of another may produce envy or jealousy if he feels inferior, or if he feels superior, contempt. There is also present a strong element of dislike. When pleasure is taken in the misfortunes of another who is compared by us to ourselves, or when such misfortunes are actively sought in a small way, we have malice. Malice refers chiefly to the pleasure felt in the accidents, lack of success, etc., of another with whom we are acquainted.

When activities have suddenly subtracted from them those habits of social response developed among friends, we have grief, sorrow, etc. Such emotions seem to arise from the painful efforts to react habitually to persons who are no longer with us. The lack of social response causes these tendencies to recoil within the self. Objects which have a certain personality, as with children, may give rise to grief or sorrow if destroyed. Sorrow and grief, when reflected in others, may give rise to sympathy.

Pleasurable emotions result when activity succeeds in its realisation, whether aided or not. We then have the emotion of joy. When aid is given by others there may be added the emotion of gratitude. Activity can be no more than realised. Therefore we have but one emotion, that of joy. But it can be blocked and hindered in so many different ways that different negative emotions are possible. Joy in general results from full completion of activity, realisation of the situation aimed at, or the sudden possession of an object without the effort or activity thought necessary.

Finally, an emotion may be reflected. Expression in one individual may cause imitative organic response in another. There may be an imaginative realisation, a contagion of feeling, as it were. We then have sympathy, compassion, or pity. As sympathy is due primarily to reflected responses, we may have it derived from some of the negative emotions, as from sorrow, fear, grief, and the like. The general tendency of sympathy, however, is social.

The emotions act most forcibly as sanctions of action. It is biologically impossible for the individual shaken by an emotion not to suffer some change in expression or attitude. It might be noted that, since emotions are based essentially on the internal changes excited, such states

as respect, reverence, etc., are not feelings nor emotions, but highly developed virtues. So, too, emulation, love of approbation, etc., are not feelings, but forms of instinct.

3. **Development of the emotions.** — The emotion above all to be developed by the teacher is *sympathy*. The general development of sympathy as an organic response proceeds somewhat as follows. There is observation of the expressions and movements of another who is suffering. External signs are cries, looks, gestures, movements, etc., indicating pain. In the second place, there must be an imaginative interpretation of such expression. In the third place, there accompany the above-mentioned processes an organic response and imitative attitudes or expressions. Finally, due to the tinge of reflected emotion, there is felt a tendency to relieve the suffering individual.⁹

The development of sympathy is arrested to some extent by the condition or action of the suffering individual. We usually show no sympathy with a person in anger, but rather feel resentment. So, too, when an individual shows resentment or hatred, our sympathy is divided, flowing partly to the one, partly to the other, of the two who are at odds. Loud lamentations rouse curiosity rather than sympathy. The expressions of selfish interest or feeling, as liking for food, pleasure, etc., repel rather than attract. So, too, excessive expressions of sorrow for the loss of property or at personal injuries do not tend to excite sympathy. Mean-spirited actions, tame submission, and the like rouse resentment or ridicule, while spirited resistance calls forth approval. Finally, the expression of generosity, humanity,

⁹ See: Smith, Adam, *Theory of the Moral Sentiment*. Sully, James *The Human Mind*, Ch. XV, (c). Giddings, F. H., *Inductive Sociology*, Pt. II, Ch. III.

kindness, compassion, friendship, etc., excites sympathy in others.

In the development of sympathy in the classroom the teacher may try (1) to rouse sympathy between himself and the pupils, or (2) to cultivate in the pupils a sympathy for others.

In trying to develop a sympathy between the pupils and himself the teacher should show sympathy towards them. Pleasant looks, a kindly word, a friendly touch, break the ice. Help given when needed and kindly inquiry from time to time tend to unite pupil and teacher closely. Respect for the rights of the pupils, courteous consideration in his treatment of them, patient attention to childish complaints or tales of woe, will aid the teacher greatly in the development of sympathy.

Some negative directions should also be followed. Whining complaints by the teacher against trivial actions, lamentation over some personal pain or distress, and weak-spirited acceptance of insolence or misbehavior will lower the teacher in the eyes of the pupils. Vigorous suppression of blatant offences will generally receive class approval. But a wise toleration should be shown for the errors of childhood, and positive means of stimulation should be used wherever possible.

To insure an adequate organic response, the teacher should see that the children are fairly comfortable. Physical conditions, as ventilation, warming, and lighting, should be tended to. So, too, in spiritual matters the children should not feel unnecessary distress. This implies that the room is well decorated, that instruction is effective, and that approval is used to stimulate effort.¹⁰

A second development of sympathy is of that in the

¹⁰ See Grove, Henry, *The Spectator*, No. 601.

children for human suffering and endeavor. Expressions of sympathy should be allowed when occasions arise. The pupils may be induced to visit another who is sick, send him flowers, aid him in his work, and the like.

In addition to such contact with sympathy-exciting situations, indirect means of stimulating sympathy exist in literature, history, and art. Graphic and vivid descriptions of hardships, heroic deeds, acts of generosity, may be given in oral story or read narrative. Pictures may be used for similar purposes. Pupils may be given the 'feel' of such situations in pantomime and dramatisation. Their imaginations may be stimulated by having them give instances of situations similar to the ones presented. As suggested above, the organic response should be facilitated by having physical and spiritual conditions properly cared for.

An obstacle in the way of development of sympathy may be greed, selfishness, and a want of gratitude. Gratitude may be developed by having pupils go through the forms of it, as expression of 'Please,' 'Thank you,' and the like, by inducing one to say a few words to another who has bestowed a benefit, or by letting such pupils come together after hours for friendly conversation. The child may be led to grant some return favor for the benefit he has received. His action should be rewarded by approval and commendation. The pains of giving should be balanced in part by the pleasures of social approval. Literature, dramatisation, etc., should be employed as in the development of sympathy.

Finally, the teacher's own efforts in directing the sympathy of the class towards himself will be influential in developing in the children a sympathy for one another. His actions in this connection will unconsciously be imitated by the children.

4. **Arrest of emotions.** — Of the negative sanctions among the emotions, *anger* is most common with both old and young. Since we are continually active in some manner, and since conflict is unavoidable either with persons or things, it is easily seen why this is so.

Conflict with the activity of the child may take many forms. He may be interfered with by the teacher or by his neighbor, his material may prove stubborn to his control, his work may not receive the approval expected, etc. Personalities, sarcasm, nagging, vituperation, sneers, etc., usually produce anger in the children attacked. When anger is present expression usually follows. The child may cry, sulk, throw things about, stamp, or tremble in a paroxysm of frenzy. Scowls, downcast sullen looks, grunts, or muttered threats may accompany anger.

In preventing unnecessary anger in the children, two rules should be rigidly followed by the teacher: (1) Do not excite the children to wrath by arbitrarily suppressing or interfering with childish activity, as above suggested; and (2) Do not show signs of anger at trivial incidents or untoward events. In addition, have materials and methods so well prepared that unnecessary checks and hindrances will not arise in the course of the day's work.¹¹

In correcting anger already present, the methods to be followed are those (1) of arrest of the existing anger, and (2) of development of a disposition opposed to angry expression. When anger is present, the cause should if possible be removed and the expression of anger suppressed or directed into other channels. Thus, a sulking child may be asked to clean the board, get a drink of water, read a book, and the like. The teacher should also lead the child

¹¹ See, for example, Seneca, L. Annæus, 'Of Anger,' *Minor Dialogues*, Eng. tr. by Aubrey Stuart, Bohn Library.

to tell of his wrong and so express himself. Delay of expression and action should be urged. The expression itself should be subdued. The child should be induced to breathe deeply, hold his hands more quietly, or, as Seneca suggests, look at himself in a glass. If, however, the child exhibits fits and sulks of the 'domineering sort,' to use Locke's phrase, he should be ignored and allowed to cry his fit out. So, too, if a child resents kindly interference by the teacher he should be allowed to 'cool off' before the actions above suggested are taken.

The teacher should try to develop in children a disposition unfavorable to violent and hasty expressions of anger. The uselessness of such manifestations and the irrelevance of many angry actions to later efforts should be shown. The habit of delay should be urged. Children should be led to view situations from a number of standpoints so as to see possibilities of failure. Any shock coming in such a case will not be felt so keenly. The evil effects of angry expression should be shown in literature, biography, and history. Dramatisation of scenes involving self-control under provocation are of much value.¹²

In all such arrest of anger room should be left for virtuous indignation. Discussion, delay, analysis of the unjust or wrong act, careful weighing of reasons for and against, dignified and emphatic expression, controlled action, should be cultivated by example, selected practice, and precept.

Of the forms of anger, *revenge* is most common. If the emotion of revenge is expressed by a child, the teacher should suppress movements of hostility. He should inquire into the matter and show the affair in its true light.

¹² See, on 'anger': Seneca, *Ibid.* Plutarch, *Morals*, Eng. tr. by A. R. Shilleto, Bohn Library. Montaigne, Michael, *Essays*. *The Spectator*, No. 438.

If the child has a real ground of action, the teacher should disapprove the offender and force restitution, if necessary. The children may at times be brought face to face after the emotion has died out, and allowed to talk the matter over. A class jury might be called to decide the matter. Appeal should be made to a higher law than that of arbitrary might. Use should be made of literature and history. A good antidote for the feeling of revenge is the feeling of sympathy. The more a social spirit is developed the less will be the opportunity for the existence of feelings of revenge or hatred.

Disappointment may be due to a number of things. The child may not succeed in his efforts. His work may not receive the approval expected. The materials may not be ready or they may be inadequate. Instruction may be ineffective, or neglect may be shown by the teacher. Expression of disappointment is usually somewhat subdued. A slight hand or body movement, gloomy or downcast looks, or tears may express the emotion. Sometimes there is verbal expression or open protest.

Preventive means should be taken first. The child should not be given tasks which are beyond him. The teacher should have work carefully planned and adequate material ready in sufficient amount. He should carry out promises even when made only to children. The development of the attitude which one should take towards one's work will tend to lessen disappointment. The teacher should show that first attempts are usually unsuccessful, that failure is to be expected, and that several attempts are necessary before effective work can be done. This attitude should be impressed upon children in all subjects, arithmetic, spelling, drawing, etc. Literature, biography, and history should be used to show the truth of this. The

struggles of inventors, of business men, of leaders, etc., should be used as examples. Work showing the different stages before completion should be exhibited to show the number of attempts needed to bring it nearer to perfection. Children should be led to see how others work, and what efforts they put forth before reaching success. When anger accompanies the discontent, the latter should be treated first. Usually the anger will melt away of itself.

The anger group of emotions and the discontent group are usually those most common in the school and most vexatious to the teacher. Other emotions, however, may arise and require treatment by the teacher.

Fear or terror is manifested chiefly by young children. It may be caused by strange or uncommon objects, new situations or experiences, sudden, sharp, or intense stimulation, and the like. Ideal means may also give rise to fear, as the idea of approaching punishment, of the consequences of an act, or mere childish imaginings. Fear is expressed by trembling, twitching, as of the hands, lips, or face, with an accompanying chilly depression, as shown by cold extremities. There may be violent and incoordinated movements, wild body motions, outstretched arms, rolling eyes, etc. In addition there may be present tendencies to escape by running, cowering, crouching, shrinking, and the like. There may also be monotonous reiterations of expressions of helplessness, entreaties for aid, or loud cries and shrieks.

When fear is present, its arrest may be facilitated by calming the child, by supporting him with one's presence, by soothing him, etc. The harmless character of the situation may be shown by going to the situation, or by accompanying the child to it. An explanation of it may show its real character. Attention should be directed to

other activities. The situation may be removed, or the child taken elsewhere. Some occupation should be given to the child to divert his mind. After his fear has subsided, an attempt should be made to acquaint him with the fear-inspiring object by bringing him into gradual contact with it.¹³

A mild form of fear should be preserved as a negative sanction. Fear of hell-fire, for example, has kept many in the narrow path. Fear is useful at times in preventing pain and injury. Thus, the dangers of swimming, of reckless tree-climbing, etc., should be pointed out. The condition of one who is ostracised, of one who is distrusted, of one who is shunned or justly punished, may be set forth with good effect. The teacher may, when necessary, let the child experience disapproval, so that he will hesitate afterwards when contemplating mischief or when preparing to shirk his work.

Grief is an emotion with which the teacher is not so directly concerned as in the above-mentioned cases. It is usually caused by loss of some kind, as of a loved one, or of contact with such a one. It is expressed by pale, drawn face, sad, dignified silence, sighs, tears, or by cries of woe and loud lamentations.

Sometimes the best thing to do with a deeply grieved person is to leave him to himself for a while. A word or two showing sympathy may be all that is needed. Silent companionship is sometimes effective in soothing the grieved person. Occupation is always effective in turning the individual's thoughts into another direction. The teacher should take a personal interest in the children by inquiring after their health if they seem fatigued or ill,

¹³ See Locke, John, *Some Thoughts concerning Education*, Edited by R. H. Quick, 98.

and by asking about the condition of a child's relative who may be sick.

The teacher may make use of grief in a negative sort of way. If he develops a strong sympathy between himself and the children, if he associates freely with them, and binds himself closely to them with ties of friendship, he can cause a feeling similar to grief in the children if he withholds from them the responses which they have been accustomed to receive. Such disapproval can be used when children misbehave and fail to act properly.

Envy and jealousy are caused in children by the success of others, by the possession by others of objects, rewards, etc., by partiality shown by the teacher, and so on. Expression usually takes the form of verbal complaint, sneers, tale-bearing, fault-finding, or in petty annoyances of the envied person.

Preventive means should be taken to arrest the growth of envy. The teacher should not lavish all his favors on a few pupils. He should be fair in his marks, and should allow of the greatest publicity in this connection. He should develop sympathy and social feeling by bringing the children together, and by employing the means suggested above. Good work in any line should be praised.

If jealousy or envy is present, the teacher should try to show that no grounds for it exist. Success may be shown to be the result of repeated effort which the disaffected child has not put forth. He may show that while the envious child is not so good in some subjects, he is far better in others. He should induce the child to work harder by pointing out that his lack of success is really due to a lack of effort which the child can easily put forth. Exhibition of work in its stages of development should be used to stimulate such endeavor. It can also be shown

that the effort put forth in belittling others can be well expended in a more positive direction. Any petty annoyances, however, should be rigorously suppressed by all the means of disapproval which the teacher has at his command.

§ III. SANCTION OF INSTINCT

1. **Nature of instincts.**¹⁴ — Scientific study of instincts may be said to date from about the time of Darwin's works, and contributions since then have come chiefly from close investigations of animal life. Their importance in education is now without dispute.

Reflexes and instincts are responses of an organism to external stimulation. Reflexes, however, are single and localised, whereas instincts involve a larger area or even the entire body. The reflex action, as winking, for example, corresponds to local ganglionic activity while the instinct, as seizing, for example, involves a wider area of central coordination. In reflex action a sensory stimulus causes excitation only of the spinal column and automatically produces an immediate motor discharge. The process is a purely physiological one. The instinct is more complex.

¹⁴ On 'instinct,' see: Darwin, Charles, *The Descent of Man*, Chs. II, III, and *The Origin of Species*, Ch. VIII. Lindsay, W. Lauder, *Mind in the Lower Animals*, 1: Ch. II. Romanes, George John, *Mental Evolution in Animals*, Chs. XI–XVIII. Morgan, C. Lloyd, *Habit and Instinct*. Loeb, J., *Comp. Phys. of the Br. and Comp. Psych.*, Ch. XIII. Baldwin, J. Mark, *Development and Evolution*, Chs. V, VI. James, W. *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. XXIV. Kirkpatrick, Edwin A., *Fundamentals of Child Study*. Preyer, W., *Senses and Will*, Chs. X, XI. Hobhouse, L. T., *Mind in Evolution*, Chs. III, IV. Marshall, Henry Rutgers, *Instinct and Reason*. Weismann, August, *Essays upon Heredity*, Eng. tr. by E. B. Poulton, S. Schönland, and A. E. Shipley, 2: 24–26.

The greater complication of instinctive actions, as compared with simple reflex actions, is due to the fact that in the instinctive action we have to deal with a chain of reflexes in which the first reflex becomes at the same time the cause which calls forth the second reflex. The taking of food by the frog is a good illustration of this. The motion of the fly causes an optical reflex which results in the snapping motion. The contact of the fly with the mucous membrane of the pharynx sets free a second reflex, the swallowing reflex, which brings the fly to the esophagus.¹⁵

Certain characteristics of instincts are worth noting. Instincts *lack individuality*. They are more or less uniform within a group of the same kind of organisms, the nature of the action being determined by the kind of stimulation and the particular environment involved. Thus, the moor-hen will swim when in the water, will take its chicks under wing while on land, etc.

While they are more or less uniform within limits, instincts *admit of variations* according to the peculiarities of the situation calling forth reaction. Thus, swallows will change their manner of nest-building to suit domestic changes of architecture, while town birds build differently from country birds of the same species. So, too, a child at birth will learn one language as easily as another.

There is a certain *plasticity* of instincts which allows of *domestication, substitution, vicariousness of function*, or even of *inhibition or suppression* by the formation of habits. The domestic dog, for example, did not always have the restraint which he shows in the barnyard or stable. The child's tendency to seize and grasp may be developed into numerous useful occupations, as writing, modeling, hammering, and the like.

Instincts are often *latent*, and appear only during certain

¹⁵ Loeb, J., *Comp. Phys. of the Br.*, 178. Loeb uses the term 'tropism' to designate the simple physiological reflex process.

periods or under certain conditions. At some stages certain instincts may predominate over others. This *latency*, *transitoriness*, and *dominance* are well shown in the child. Such tendencies as those for reading, play, travel, companionship, etc., may, if not seized and developed during the period of prominence, fade away, never to be recalled.

Perversion or derangement of instincts may take place under unnatural conditions. If some instincts become stunted through lack of exercise, the energy of the individual will be able to find an outlet only through a restricted few. The city child, blocked in by stone walls and shut from green fields or roomy yards, may become sedentary, overacquisitive, or thievish. Overdevelopment of some instincts at the expense of others may produce perversion.

In general it may be said that instincts are *definite only within limits*, that they are more or less *imperfect*, and that they are *not always infallible*. Often the form which they assume is conditioned by the environment and the ends which they subserve.

A point strongly to be emphasised is the social significance of instincts. Instincts at first are *morally indeterminate*.¹⁶ A child, for example, indiscriminately seizes objects of others as readily as those which are his own. Such a process in the developed individual is called stealing. Since a single situation may excite a number of reactions, some good, some bad, social selection and arrest are necessary.

The value of instincts as sanctions is seen in their automatic and almost necessary character, in their general indefiniteness and plasticity, and in the high stage of develop-

¹⁶ See MacCunn, John, *The Making of Character*, Ch. IV.

ment to which they can be educated. Take, for example, the instinct of grasping or seizing. This can be excited simply by the presentation of some object or situation. The number of reactions possible, and their vague and general character render it possible to select, mold, and develop them almost without limit.

2. **Classification of instincts.** — Instincts may be classified on the threefold basis, (1) physical, (2) spiritual, and (3) social. Each class is capable of further amplification.

The basic physical instincts are those most closely connected with individual preservation and the sense of existence. Such instincts are those excited by hunger and thirst, by pleasure-pain, by shelter, clothing, and physical comfort, by play and sport, by the weather, and by locality. Reactions called forth are somewhat general and may take a number of forms as already suggested in the above section. Such actions usually seek to preserve or maintain stimulation, or to avoid, or destroy, or get away, from stimulation.

Spiritual instincts are those of (1) destructiveness, constructiveness, and acquisitiveness, and (2) curiosity and imitation. The former imply a certain degree of motor activity, and all presuppose the existence of some stimulating object or situation.

Finally, there are those instincts inhering in the individual by virtue of his twofold nature as a *socius*. If we emphasise the individual aspect at the expense of the social, we have the instincts of selfishness and secretiveness, of freedom and liberty, and of defiance and combativeness. If we emphasise the social side of the individual, we have the instincts of trust and benevolence, of dependence and expression (verbal or motor), and of companionship and sociability.

3. Development of instincts. — The general development of instincts demands (1) that some situation be presented to the child, (2) that free expression be allowed, (3) that proper copies and models be shown, constructed, or explained, and (4) that responses which are right or correct be approved and stamped with pleasure, ease, or satisfaction.

The purely physical instincts, *i.e.*, those of appetite towards situations producing pleasure, ease, satisfaction, etc., and those of aversion from situations producing pain, unrest, dissatisfaction, etc., are means of motivation in instruction and discipline and lead to more refined actions in these fields. They are used as a means of development in this connection.

The more spiritual instincts motivate reactions in instruction. Effective instruction, as explained in preceding sections, is then necessary. Social instincts, likewise, are used to motivate reactions in discipline, and so demand effective discipline, as already set forth. In fact, development of instincts involves all processes of effective education, those of instruction, and those of discipline.

4. Arrest of instincts. — The arrest of instincts usually takes one or more of the following three forms, (1) substitution, (2) suppression, and (3) disuse. Substitution refers to an emphasis and development of one form of instinctive expression over another. Suppression may be effected by disapproval or by the positive development of a contrary instinct. Disuse results when exciting situations are persistently and continuously absent or removed. A few directions may make the process of arrest more clear.

In the process of substitution we do not literally replace one instinct by another. We simply restrict its

expression and develop into a habit those forms of expression which are individually and socially serviceable. Thus, a child may seek to manipulate and control whatever objects are before it. Total suppression is not desirable, so we select, correct, modify, and make habitual some forms of the reaction to the exclusion of others. The instinct, however, is practically the same.

With the process of substitution there may be necessary a suppression or negation. Some actions actually harmful may have to be disapproved and suppressed. Thus, 'crap-shooting' requires suppression by strong disapproval. At the same time similar social activities should be substituted, as ball games, excursions, and the like.

Disuse of harmful instincts is brought about by removing the stimulating objects or situations, or by bringing the child into contact with another environment. The importance of good company is here evident. If, for example, a child has a ruler in his hands, he will probably beat a tattoo on the desk. If the ruler is removed, he will be unable to do so. Isolation of offenders is similarly a means of arresting actions which are not socially serviceable.

The development and arrest of specific actions in the school are problems of discipline, and so will be treated fully in the last chapter.

The physiological processes which take place in the development and arrest of instincts may be mentioned. In the simplest form of development the stimulation causes an excess motor discharge. A number of reactions are excited, some serviceable, some not so. When one or more of these reactions is successful, it tends to repeat itself, and by repetition, to form a habit. Such success is facilitated by the setting of models and copies. If dis-

approval is used in the case of wasteful reactions, and approval in the case of economical and successful reactions, a habit will be still more rapidly formed. It should be noted that waste discharges¹⁷ can always be expected, and that mistakes should be taken as a part of the whole process and not as intentional disorder.

§ IV. SANCTION OF HABIT

1. Nature of habit. — Habit is simply the tendency in an organism to repeat an action which it has already performed. As the repetition increases, the action tends to become more automatic, till it may at length proceed without attention, often with little marginal consciousness of the act. The characteristics of a habit, as given by Stout,¹⁸ are (1) uniformity, (2) facility, (3) propensity, and (4) independence of attention. Uniformity refers to the sameness of the response, facility to its ease, accuracy, and rapidity, propensity to the greater efficacy of the stimulus to excite it, to the resistance offered to disturbance or change, and to the feeling of desire or restlessness which follows inhibition, while independence of attention refers to the automatic and mechanical nature of the act.

Habit works as a sanction both negatively and positively. When an action has been developed into a habit, arrest of such an act will produce dissatisfaction, unrest, or pain, and so will tend to excite action in the old way. Habit works positively as well. The ease and surety of an action gives rise to a feeling of pleasure and satisfaction which will tend to produce repetition of the action.

2. Classification of habits. — Following the basis of

¹⁷ See Baldwin, J. M., *Ment. Dev.*, Ch. VII, §§ 1-2.

¹⁸ Stout, G. F., *Anal. Psych.*, 1: Ch. IV, § 4.

classification thus far employed, we may have (1) physical habits, (2) mental habits, and (3) social habits.¹⁹

Of the physical habits those of most importance are habits of exercise, of cleanliness, of eating and drinking in moderation, of care of the body, sense organs, and the like.

Mental habits include those of observation, of memory, of imagination, and of thought. By such habits are not meant any general powers, but rather formal methods of procedure which may be applied to different contents. Habits of observation imply inspection from all sides before handling, careful handling, manipulation and dissection if necessary, and attempted reconstruction. Habits of memory are not so much habits as they are practice in formal aids, as use of all the senses, repetition properly distributed, practice, use of written notes and memoranda, and the like. Habits of imagination include a love of reading, an appreciation of music and art, and a sympathetic attitude toward nature. The habit of correct thought necessitates (1) careful, intense, thorough, and accurate observation of particular basic instances, whether these are acts, things, expressions, words, types, or single situations, (2) systematic recording in writing of the points of importance noted, (3) search for a reason, cause, rule, principle, formula, etc., by means of comparison, grouping, classification, analysis, etc., (4) formulation and expression of a conclusion with specific instances or types which give such reason, cause, etc., validity.

Social habits or habits of conduct need here be only outlined, as the next chapter is wholly concerned with them. I may briefly classify such habits of conduct, as far as the school is concerned, as (1) habits of school con-

¹⁹ See Blackie, John Stuart, *On Self-Culture*.

duct, (2) habits of social conduct, and (3) habits of juridical conduct. Habits of will include all such social habits, and in addition expression of any kind, whether in instruction or in discipline.

3. **Development of habits.** — The most effective way to develop a habit is to give it practice. Of the rules of practice we have (1) focalisation, (2) strong and decided initiative, (3) avoidance of exceptions, (4) expression on every possible occasion, (5) gratuitous expression, and (6) proper distribution of time and effort.

Focalisation implies selection, simplification, and adaptation of the act which is to be trained into a habit. Some particular act or line of conduct should be chosen, brought within the reach of the child's powers, and kept within the focus of attention.²⁰

Bain emphasises the importance of starting a habit with all the initiative and external accessories possible.²¹ Vivid picturing of the resulting benefits, encouragement and approval from others, examples of success achieved by others, scorn and disapproval of hesitation, some objective symbol keeping in mind the habit to be formed, selection of a furthering environment, etc., will encourage the first act which is to become a habit. Too much should not be attempted at first.

Another rule emphasised by Bain is never to allow of a single lapse. Any act conflicting with the habit is especially dangerous, because such a conflicting act may bring to the surface an entire system of tendencies or a chain of old habits which will kill all chance of the formation of a new one. The exception, too, is a sort of precedent which may encourage more exceptions later.

²⁰ See Bagley, W. C., *The Educative Process*, Ch. VII.

²¹ Bain, Alexander, *The Emotions and the Will*, Ch. IX.

James adds two more rules to the above.²² Any prompting or tendency to action which is to become habitual should result in expression of some sort. If it is allowed to fade without some kind of reaction, the habit will tend to become weaker, will, in time, die away. Moreover, a little gratuitous exercise of the habit each day should be indulged in so that the habit may not become stale.

Finally, practice should be properly distributed. It should not be lumped within a short period. Steady, persistent, and continuous practice yields better results than short and intense practice. Thus, if there are to be allowed 36 repetitions, a distribution into groups of 4, 6, or 9 will give a better result than 36 repetitions all at once. Work of the same kind on alternate days will effect more than work on successive days, if the number of days is the same in each case. When the nerve cells or the muscles are well rested, impressions leave a deeper mark than when the cells are fatigued or clogged with waste matter. Therefore periods of rest should come between periods of activity in the same subject.²³

It should be noted that all such practice should be gone through by the children. Proper situations should be provided, and artificial and other means of approval should be used so that the activities of the children will yield pleasure, satisfaction, ease, or quiescence.

4. **Arrest of habits.** — When a habit has already been formed, its arrest becomes a matter of difficulty. It is a matter somewhat different from that of an arrest of instinct. With instincts, actions are at first vague, unsettled, indeterminate, and the fixing of one mode of action shuts

²² James, W., *Princ. of Psych.*, Ch. IV.

²³ See Jost, Alfred, 'Die Assoziationsfestigkeit in ihrer Abhängigkeit von der Verteilung der Wiederholungen,' *Zeit. f. Psych.*, 14: 1897.

out for good any possible competition of the others. But in habit a groove has been formed. Any situation, therefore, which is more or less correspondent, will excite activity along the lines of the same old path. The problem in arrest is to shunt the activity into a new groove.

Substitution of another habit should be attempted in the arrest of a bad habit. The new habit should yield approximately similar feelings, etc., as did the old habit. The excitement of 'crap-shooting,' for example, may be obtained by ball games, checker games, and the like. Pleasure of 'gang' association can be produced by more social organisations. Often bad habits may be anticipated by the formation of beneficial habits which will yield the special kind of pleasure, excitement, etc., engendered by more pernicious ones.

Suppression or negation and disuse may be employed. Means of negation are disapproval, punishment, comparison of the child with others having the same bad habits, analysis of the effects of the habit, emphasis upon such analysis by appeals to literature, history, and art, and the employment of school or class spirit against the habit in question. The teacher and the whole class should express scorn for the bad habit.

Disuse may be effected by bringing the child to another environment, or by creating a different environment right where he is. Disuse, negation, and substitution usually work together. With the blocking of the old habit the new habit should be started according to the directions given in the above section.

In the development and arrest of habits the teacher should be careful not to emphasise a restricted system of habits to such an extent as to shut out the possibility of further development. The danger in such a case lies not

so much in the habits themselves as in their restriction and overemphasis.

§ V. SANCTION OF MOTIVE

1. **Nature of motives.** — Little experience is needed to change the pristine purity of instincts, feelings, sensations, etc., and to effect modifications and combinations of them. Repeated experience with an object gives it some meaning, correspondent to which is a residual accumulation in the psychophysical system of the organism. If control of the object or situation has resulted in pleasurable or satisfying feelings, the object or situation when seen again will call up similar tendencies and anticipations and will tend to produce some action. There will be present an impression or image or idea of the situation, and with it a feeling element which impels action. Such a combination of cognitive and feeling elements is called a motive.

Those combinations of ideas and feelings which in our subjective consciousness are the immediate antecedents of the act, are called *motives* of volition. Every motive may be divided into an ideational and an affective component. The first we may call the *moving reason*, the second the *impelling feeling* of action. When a beast of prey seizes its victim, the moving reason is the sight of the victim; the impelling feeling may be either the unpleasurable feeling of hunger, or the race-hate aroused by the sight. The reason for a criminal murder may be theft, removal of an enemy, or some such idea, the impelling feeling the feeling of want, hate, revenge, or envy.²⁴

The simplest form of motive is a *motive of perception*. The moving reason in such a case is some object or situation immediately before the child. Thus, a boy may see a

²⁴ Wundt, W., *Outlines of Psychology*, Eng. tr. by Charles Hubbard Judd, § 14.

toy and desire to play with it. The feeling element may be a thrill due to experienced pleasures, an anticipation of pleasures felt before, etc.

When the moving reason is an image or an idea, we have a *motive of memory*. With such motives the imagination may take part to influence revival of some guiding idea. The child may recall some toy possessed by a comrade, improve on it in his imagination, and express a desire for the idealised toy.

If a number of ideal motives is present, conflict at times may arise. In such a case conscious selection of one is made in preference to another. The resulting motive is then *one of reason*. Some motive is then emphasised at the expense of the rest, and selected to guide action. A child, for example, may decide to study his lessons and not to go swimming, to do as his mother says, and not to follow the example of his companions, and the like. At a higher stage, deliberation is necessary to establish a harmony among different motives and to weave them into a system.

At first, motives are more or less flitting and transitory. As they grow in prominence and distinctness, as they become consciously selected as proper incentives, and as their persistence increases, they become ideals. An *ideal* is some motive which has become distinct, prominent, and persistent. According as ideals are based on motives of perception, of memory, of imagination, or of reason, we have ideals of the same kind. Perceptions may give rise to ideals in the form of types of personality. Imagination may develop ideals. Stories of heroic action, tales of self-sacrifice, etc., may result in an illumination and rectification of our own motives.

Ideals of a contradictory nature may exist side by side

in the same individual. A man may act one way in his business, another way in his home, and still a third way when he is with his boon companions. This accounts for inconsistencies which can be explained in no other way.

Motives rise to the focus of consciousness in the process of deliberation and action. When they are not in the foreground of consciousness, however, they exist as *dispositions*. The disposition on its physiological side consists of residual accumulations and modifications in the organism which, when excited, tend to direct conduct in one way rather than in another. On its mental side the disposition is a tendency, a manner of appreciation, a spiritual twist which gives cognitive direction and emotional impulsion in a specific direction. The term 'psychophysical disposition'²⁵ may be conveniently used to cover both aspects of the motive. From the individual point of view we have dispositions as just explained. When, however, such dispositions are judged by others, when they receive social approval or disapproval, we have *virtues* or *vices*.

Finally, the sum total of dispositions or virtues and vices, whether existing in a series or in a well-developed system, constitute the *character* of the individual. Character may be restricted to some particular universe in which the individual moves. A person's 'character' in business means something different from his character at home.

In character, virtues and vices are emphasised. Actual habits and actions are called *conduct*, and actions which ought to be done because they are right are called *duties*.

²⁵ See: Stout, G. F., *Anal. Psych.*, 1: 23. Mill, James, *Analysis of the Phenomena of the Human Mind*, 2: 259. Mackenzie, J. S., *Man of Eth.*, Bk. III, Ch. IV.

Conduct may roughly be considered as the average of actions which an individual manifests in social intercourse and control.

The cognitive element, the purely intellectual aim or guiding reason, is called the *intention* of the act. An intention is a picture of the will which directs action, and which, with an impelling feeling, constitutes the motive.

Due to a lack of proper viewpoint, much confusion usually exists in the conception of these aspects of the motive. Motive is sometimes taken for sanction in general and confused with emotion and instinct. So, too, virtues are mistaken for acts of conduct or confused with duties. Duty, however, refers to specific action as does conduct also.

2. Classification of motives. — The great division of motives may be made into those of (1) desire or appetite for situations giving pleasure, ease, satisfaction, quiescence, etc., and (2) of aversion to situations giving pain, disturbance, dissatisfaction, unrest, etc. By following the classification of feelings and instincts (upon which motives are based) we shall have a good basis for a classification of the different motives.

(a) *Dispositions.* — Dispositions may concern (1) the self, (2) the self in relation to objects, and (3) the self in relation to others. Each in turn embraces a number of specific desires.

Dispositions dealing with the self include (1) desire for sense pleasures, (2) desire for health, (3) desire for motor activity and play, (4) desire for pleasures of the imagination, of memory, and of thought.

Dispositions dealing with the self in relation to objects include (1) desire to contemplate objects, (2) desire to

manipulate objects, construct, destroy, or control them, and (3) desire to possess objects.

Dispositions dealing with the self in relation to others include (1) desire to communicate with others, (2) desire for approval or acquiescence from others, and (3) desire for friendship from others.

As positive motives of appetite exist for the pleasures, etc., so negative motives of aversion exist for the pains, etc. Negative dispositions also may concern (1) the self, (2) the self in relation to objects, and (3) the self in relation to others.

Negative dispositions dealing with the self include (1) aversion to sense pains, (2) aversion to ill-health, (3) aversion to restraint and inactivity, and (4) aversion to pains of the imagination, of memory, and of thought.

Negative dispositions dealing with the self in relation to objects include (1) aversion to contemplate certain objects, as disagreeable, ugly, monotonous, etc., objects, (2) aversion to repression, and (3) aversion to privation.

Negative dispositions dealing with the self in relation to others include (1) aversion to isolation, (2) aversion to disapproval or indifference, and (3) aversion to contempt, enmity, or hatred.

I would note that such dispositions are a more active and developed form of the feelings, etc., which have been classified above. The teacher does not have to develop them, but he should recognise their existence that he may regulate his discipline in the classroom.

(b) *Virtues*. — We may have virtues or vices of (1) the self, (2) the self in relation to objects, and (3) the self in relation to others. Such virtues from the nature of the case are closely related to the desires above mentioned.

Of the self, desire for sense pleasures may be toned down

into temperance, moderation, self-denial, etc., or it may become greediness, excess, indulgence, etc. Desire for health may develop into hardihood, courage, etc., or it may become effeminacy, cockering, cowardice, etc. Desire for activity and play may become industry, application, diligence, persistence, etc., or it may degenerate into sauntering, fickleness, idleness, remissness, neglect, etc. Desire for mental pleasures may be elevated into sentiments of truth, of beauty, or of rectitude (love of the true, the beautiful, and the good), or it may become diletteism, affectation, or cant.

Of the self in relation to objects, desire for manipulation and control of objects may develop zeal, prudence, foresight, care, etc., or it may result in indifference, folly, heedlessness, recklessness etc. Desire to possess objects may develop economy and thrift or it may be hindered by waste and extravagance. Actual possession may give rise to reserve, quiet manner, unobtrusiveness, etc., or it may occasion ostentation, boasting, parade, pride, etc. From still another point of view possession may go hand in hand with generosity and liberality, or it may result in greed, cupidity, and covetousness.

Of the self in relation to others, desire for social intercourse may develop three great classes of virtues, (1) of toleration and charity, as forbearance, humanity, kindness, benevolence, etc., (2) of justice, as fairness, openness, etc., and (3) of honesty, as sincerity, truthfulness, candor, frankness, etc., — or it may degenerate into three great classes of vices, (1) of bigotry and selfishness, as brutality, irritability, impatience, indifference, severity, hardness, etc., (2) of injustice, as favoritism, partiality, iniquity, discrimination, etc., and (3) of dishonesty, as hypocrisy, deceitfulness, guile, sham, etc. From the individual side of the

socius we may have the virtues of self-respect, self-esteem, dignity, independence, and self-reliance, or the vices of diffidence, self-distrust, meekness, or timidity.

Desire for approval may develop virtues of (1) emulation, rivalry, etc., (2) docility, obedience, tractability, etc., and (3) humility, respect, reverence, etc., or it may breed vices of (1) indifference, apathy, etc., (2) obstinacy, contumacy, stubbornness, etc., and (3) assurance, self-sufficiency, presumption, arrogance, license, etc.

Finally, desire for friendship may bring forth the virtues of loyalty, faithfulness, devotion, etc., or it may give rise to the vices of enmity, fretfulness, treachery, etc. For the sake of further clearness the reader might tabulate the above-mentioned virtues.

Such a host of virtues and vices should not be taken by the teacher and developed one at a time. The list should rather be used for *purposes of reference*. It may be that only a few of the virtues need development, or that a few of the vices need correction. In such cases it is helpful if the teacher can trace back the virtue or the vice to the disposition from which it probably arose, and ultimately to the basic feeling or instinct.

Negative dispositions or aversions can not develop virtues while they frequently breed vices. Constant presentation of pain-producing or dissatisfying situations will result in struggles to avoid or remove them in some way. Nothing is gained since the individual does not desire the situation in such a case. If pain comes from a social medium, as from social disapproval, the individual will seek other social backgrounds where he is sure of getting approval or at least acceptance. More directly, aversion to sense pains may lead to indulgence and excess; aversion to restraint and inactivity, to violent fits of destructive activity, tan-

trums, etc.; aversion to pains of the imagination, to reading of improper literature, visitation of exhibitions of doubtful character, etc.; aversion to repression, to extravagance and waste; and so on. I refer especially to such aversions as are imposed by parents and teachers in spite of surroundings which may easily rouse appetitions of the right kind. It is natural to suppose that such aversions are not the result of the child's own wishes in the matter.

3. Development of motives. — In the development of motives the general process is from motives of perception to motives of memory, and from motives of memory to motives of reason. Dispositions and virtues should then grow into ideals and ideals into character. Whether or not such motives as motives of perception should be further purified and analysed before becoming virtues depends in great measure upon the perception. A child, for example, who sees an elder whom he believes in shun a certain action, may act in a similar manner when opportunity presents itself. Later analysis and reflection may show him the worth of the action and may give it a place in his system of ideals. While, therefore, any order of motive may become a virtue and even an ideal, it requires reflection, analysis, selection, and systematisation for the evolution of the highest type of character. Vices may be similarly organised, but then we have the consummation of evil.

Since motives imply traces left by previous actions, the development of motives requires actual endeavor in concrete situations. Proper environmental conditions should be provided. The child should be led to do something under favorable circumstances. Furthering environmental conditions include a sympathetic relation between the pupils and the teacher, attractive surroundings such as a well-decorated and tidy room, a good school spirit, and

proper social and material associations. Contact among the children should be allowed in meetings, excursions, athletics, games, dances, and the like; while in the process of instruction the children should be allowed to do most of the actual work themselves.

To encourage right action and to facilitate its realisation, a model or copy should be shown. Such copy may work in a purely incidental manner without any special reference to it as a model. Thus, the example of the teacher, incidents read in history, literature, etc., may work in the child their own way. Direct instruction and precept may at times be necessary to insure responses of the proper kind. Material for instruction may be found in literature, art, history, and in accounts of contemporary happenings.

Actions of the children should be capped with approval so that the impelling feeling of pleasure, satisfaction, etc., may be present. It must be remembered that the act itself is not the motive nor is it in the beginning caused by the motive. Other sanctions operate at first to produce the act. The result of the act, the psychophysical trace left, — this is the basis of the motive. Motives are acquired sanctions and thus must be based on natural reactions. On this account the actions of the child should be stamped with approval of some kind so that they may give the pleasure, satisfaction, and ease necessary to stimulate repetition of the act. The rules for the formation of habit at times may apply.

Further refinement and organisation of virtues may be attempted along with this development. The teacher should show the relations between different virtues and should try to bring them under a wider category. Informal talks, 'experience' meetings, comparison of classroom

actions with actions outside of the school, or of present-day occurrences with past events as related in history, will be helpful in this connection. With older pupils a systematic discussion of right and wrong and of the basic rights and wrongs will be effective. Contemporary problems in international relationships, government control, city government, etc., may be discussed in the light of justice and injustice, right and wrong.

The high school should take a hand in the development of the pupils' characters. It is an error to restrict the development of character to the elementary school and to assume that the high school has no further share in that side of the pupils' education. The adolescent period is a critical one in the child's career and may receive a set in one direction or the other, may result in a character good or bad. In a vague and unconscious way the schools recognise this need with their athletics, debates, dramatisations, and the like. A more definite and systematic endeavor, however, should be made.

4. **Arrest of motives.** — As with habits, arrest of motives may proceed by way of (1) substitution, (2) disuse, and (3) negation or suppression.

Substitution may be employed as a means of prevention. If the child is taken in hand early enough, filled with proper ideas, trained into right ways, and stimulated by elevating feelings, his levels of satisfaction will be such as will shut out demoralising influences. In another way, substitution may be used to check a vice which may show itself. If possible, a reaction calling forth similar tendencies, and producing similar feelings, should be stimulated. Reading of 'dime libraries' (which are usually purchased for two or three cents) may be arrested by reading of Stevenson or Poe, by joining a circulating library, etc. Tendencies

to pilfer from fruit stands may be combated by excursions into the suburbs for leaves, specimens, and the like.

Disuse may be effected by bringing the child into a new social environment, by keeping him from evil companions, and by surrounding him with new ones. Selected children may be induced to associate with the others in clubs, excursions, and the like. The teacher should make himself a companion of the children and so lend his influence in molding conduct. Verbal warning, caution, and advice should be given to direct associations outside of the school.

Wrong tendencies should, if necessary, be checked by sharp negation. If the act is followed by disapproval or if the pleasure or satisfaction of a wrong action is overbalanced by pain or dissatisfaction, the tendencies thus disapproved will tend to die out. Warning, caution, appeals to literature and current happenings will aid in arresting vices which appear. With preadolescents an emphatic command, and with adolescents a face-to-face talk and an open analysis of the situation, will have effect in checking wrong tendencies.

§ VI. SOCIAL SANCTIONS

Sanctions must in some manner exist for the individual and work within him. External agencies can affect an individual only by the mediation of one or more of the sanctions discussed above. In this light sanctions can be only individual.

When external conditions and situations are closely associated with certain feelings, mental states, etc., when they consistently and persistently stimulate action by appealing to individual sanctions, we call such external agencies, social sanctions. Such social sanctions are govern-

ment, law, the home, custom, public opinion, and religion of the church. As sanctions such sanctions mean for the individual the particular experiences within him which they are able to produce or are believed able to produce. The mere idea of violation or opposition causes in the individual sufficient disturbance, fear, distress, etc., and so will effect further action.

When the sanctions of an individual's actions operate regardless of social requirements, or when they are in harmony with social standards and ideals they are called inner or internal sanctions. An individual in such a case does something because he believes it to be right whether or not others think that he is right. When, however, social sanctions compel action by arousing anticipations of unrest, dissatisfaction, distress, or pain, they are called external sanctions.

The function of the home and the school is to place what were external sanctions within the individual and cause them to work as inner sanctions. In specific actions this is not always possible nor is it desirable. Progress is possible only by means of individual variations and so individuality should always be respected. In the broad level of social endeavor, however, there will be found virtues and duties which must coincide with individual virtues and duties. In such a case the individual must be developed up to social requirements, or, if possible, beyond them. Social sanctions must then harmonise with individual motivation.

To develop the proper ideals and feelings, conditions in the school should be as nearly like external conditions as possible. If the child lives in a school environment similar to the world outside, it is reasonable to suppose that his ideals and motives will be such as will receive approval

outside of the school. The teacher should use means of approval and disapproval similar to those used by the social body. If the child receives approval only when his actions are socially serviceable or acceptable he will tend to react in a way which will correspond to social requirements. The residual traces resulting in the form of habits, dispositions, etc., will insure responses motivated internally. The motives, ideals, and duties should be such as are emphasised in the outside world. There should be less emphasis upon the so-called school virtues, and more on the social and juridical virtues.

Inasmuch as the individual is a *socius*, has a social side, and instinctively feels sympathy, a development of sympathy in the manner suggested will tend to make discipline moral rather than wholly prudential. Literature, history, biography, etc., should also be used to expand the social self of the child, and show him the essentially similar nature of others outside of his immediate sphere.

This process of making social sanctions internal should go on side by side with the development of motives, as suggested in the preceding section.

§ VII. SANCTION OF SUFFICIENT REASON

Very often children may in a perfectly harmless and innocent manner act a certain way, do things with an individual turn, play to suit themselves, or engage in pursuits for which, to the adult, there may seem no reason. A parent or teacher may be annoyed or distressed by the actions of the children simply because they seem so unreasonable. Even though the children may be getting results, enjoying themselves, etc., he may not quite see the sense of their actions. In such a case and until the exact sanction

of the action can be found, the mere self-motivation of the activity is a sufficient reason for it.

The sanction of sufficient reason may be considered as that complex of instincts, feelings, and emotions which turns action somewhat aside from routine without interfering with the individual's efficiency or threatening in any way the social whole. Further analysis may show us the 'Why' and 'Wherefore' of the act. Sometimes we can not explain and name the whole, 'talent' or 'genius.' Sometimes we are unable to enter into the child's spirit. But whatever be the case, so long as good work is accomplished, right action practised, and no harm done, self-motivation should be taken on trust and properly respected.

In classroom practice the teacher should make use of sanctions in a secondary manner and should follow the above suggestions only in connection with the development or arrest of conduct. It must be remembered that a sanction is a spring of action and not the complete act. Development and arrest of sanctions should be used when necessary in connection with the specific development of conduct. It may be that the suggestions given for the specific development of conduct (in the last chapter) cover those just presented. In a general way sanctions should be considered in the development of class atmosphere and spirit, in the prevention of disorder and wrong action, and in the analysis of specific acts of children. At times reference to the above classifications and suggestions will be all that is needed.²⁰

²⁰ For a number of suggestions in connection with the above chapter, I am indebted to James E. Lough, Professor of Psychology, New York University.

CHAPTER X

THE KINDS OF CONDUCT

§ I. CLASSIFICATION OF CONDUCT

1. **Need of proper classification.** — In both practice and theory we find a somewhat hazy notion, not only of conduct, but of the relative importance of the different kinds of conduct. School conduct alone is often the only kind which receives attention. We have an emphasis upon the much-regarded 'school virtues,' and perhaps a hurried reference to other social virtues. In theory we potter about in a mess of verbiage in which motives are confused with sanctions, virtues with duties, and almost everything with conduct. Legal requirements are overlooked as an aspect of conduct, as such. No doubt the school virtues are important, but they should not be developed to the exclusion of other more social duties. Government in discipline, too, is a needed factor, but rigidity and silence should not on that account be the sole aim of the teacher who is sometimes called a 'disciplinarian.' I do not wish to cast aside the old landmarks. I wish only to show their function and position in the whole scheme of discipline.

2. **Juridical conduct.** — The one division which I wish to add as a part of conduct as emphasised in the school is based on jurisprudence and civil law. It seems reasonable to suppose that a child going out into society as an individual having rights and duties and as one who is to lend a hand in shaping governmental policies, should receive a proper

training in those lines of conduct which have been selected by governments since the time of Rome, and to which all must conform. We cry out against corruption in city or state politics. Yet we measure a child's conduct by his ability to sit straight and remain quiet. We emphasise highly abstract ethical virtues outside of the school, yet in it we neglect those duties the violation of which will put to use the prison cell.

Juridical conduct, moreover, should receive consideration because law is an institution which forms a part of the child's environment and which is enforced if necessary by the police club and the bayonet. It should not be picked up at random by the child on the street, from relatives or from newspaper reports. Especially with the child of ignorant parents is this the case.

3. **Social conduct.** — Social conduct is that social control which is indirect and which lies between the field of juridical and that of school conduct. It refers to those acts and duties which are sanctioned by contemporary usage no matter whether the sanctions are external or internal.

The two main divisions of social conduct are (1) conventional and formal conduct which emphasises the manner and form in which actions are expressed, and (2) moral and ethical conduct which looks solely to the content of the action and to the individuals who are affected. In the light of the one the other may appear useless and absurd, but each should be judged by the function which it subserves. Convention is simply a method of social contact and intercourse which is recognised by cultured people. In itself it means nothing. It is a kind of social shorthand by which contact and intercourse are facilitated.

4. **School conduct.** — By school conduct I do not mean conduct in the school, for it is evident that so long as the

child is in the school his general conduct may be any one of the three classes given. I refer rather to conduct which is necessary by virtue of the conditions demanded by collective education, such as distribution of supplies, attitude in instruction, etc. Many acts of school conduct are paralleled by those in adult life. But a certain local color is spread over some of them which makes them distinctive of school life.

The difference in the three kinds of conduct lies chiefly in the nature of the sanctions which motivate them. Juridical and school conduct are similar in that the sanctions are external, that is, certain antecedent conditions stand for realisation of the external sanction. In juridical conduct such sanctions consist in the results of state action; in school conduct, of school action. In both, control may be direct. Moral action of the highest kind, however, is motivated solely by internal sanctions of which external antecedents are merely the expression. The kind of control operating makes then no difference in the action resulting. As soon as juridical and school conduct become motivated by internal sanctions they fall into the great class of moral actions. The general aim of discipline should be to bring about such realisation.

§ II JURIDICAL CONDUCT

1. **Law.** — Law may be considered in its four aspects, (1) scientific, (2) mathematical, (3) moral, and (4) legal.

Scientific law may be considered as a description of the routine of experience.¹ It refers to uniformities in the laws of nature, to formulations which correspond to natural phenomena, to the results of inductive inquiry. Laws

¹ Pearson, Karl, *The Grammar of Science*, Ch. III.

of science may be considered as the simplest expressions of uniformities which exist among natural phenomena in their qualitative aspects.²

A law differs from a theory in that it refers to a single generalisation or principle, while a theory refers to a system of laws and principles. A theory is wider and embraces more than does a law. An hypothesis is a tentative formulation of a theory which is not yet sufficiently well established to insure accuracy of correspondence of actions with external objects or situations. As soon as it become established by application and test we have a law or a theory.³

A law is empirical when it is based on experience but without the analysis necessary to give experience a reason. A rough outline of experience is drawn so that further action may be possible. An empirical law is valid only within the domain from which it was drawn and lacks the universality of law or theory which covers all known cases.⁴

Mathematical law deals with the quantitative side of nature. According to mathematical law we count, measure, and weigh. It deals with quantities and relations, such as whole and part, continuity and discreteness, and the like. In mathematical laws we start with fixed quantities and values which undergo no change in value, and in which the whole is always equal to the sum of its parts. With qualitative changes this is not the case.⁵

Moral law deals with human conduct and with rules of behavior. It exhorts and advises, it is prescriptive and categorical. Its general formula is, 'Do this or that,'

² See: Mill, J. S., *System of Logic*, 1: 364, 367, and 2: Bk. III, Ch. XVI. Whewell, William, *The Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences*, 2: Ch. IV. Whately, Richard, *Elements of Logic*, Appendix I, xiii.

³ See Welton, J., *The Logical Bases of Education*, Chs. X, XIII.

⁴ See Whewell, W., *Phil. of Ind. Sci.*, 2: Ch. IV.

⁵ See Ormond, A. T., *Concepts of Philosophy*, 49.

rather than the more scientific formula, 'Thus and so is the case.' It is concerned with duty and moral obligation. Moral law, it may be noted, may be studied in a scientific manner, just as are other natural phenomena. The results in such a case give us a system of ethics which we need not necessarily follow.

Legal law is a rule of conduct enforced by the state. Of the parts of a law, according to Blackstone, we may have, (1) the *declaratory*, whereby the rights to be observed and the wrongs to be eschewed are clearly defined and laid down, (2) the *directory*, whereby the subject is enjoined to observe those rights and to abstain from the commission of those wrongs, (3) the *remedial*, whereby a method is pointed out to recover a man's private rights or redress his private wrongs, and (4) the *vindictory* or *sanction*, whereby it is signified what evil or penalty shall be incurred by such as commit any public wrongs and transgress or neglect their duty.'⁶

The aim of legal law, theoretically at least, is the realisation of the greatest well-being of society. Just how far this is possible depends in great measure upon the social levels of satisfaction which exist, upon the civic consciousness which lies back of and enforces the law.

Finally, we may consider the sources from which legal law may arise. The sources of law are (1) custom and usage, (2) common law or the law of the land, (3) precedent as preserved in reports or customs, (4) legislation, and (5) the court of equity which aims to secure justice according to moral laws and to redress grievances to which the law does not apply.

2. **Rights and obligations.** — A right is that capacity for social control which is supported by law. If necessary,

Blackstone, W., *Com. on the Laws of Eng.*, 1: 53, 54.

an individual may call upon legal sanctions for justification or redress. The existence of a right implies (1) the person entitled or the person of inherence, (2) the object, (3) the act or forbearance, and (4) the person obliged, or the person of incidence. Some consideration of 'person' and 'thing' is necessary, for there often exists a woeful disregard for personalities which from the legal point of view must be respected.⁷

Persons may be natural or artificial. A natural person (1) must be a living being, that is, he must be born alive and must be no monster, and (2) must be recognised by the state as a person. "'Artificial,' 'conventional,' or 'juristic' persons, are such groups of human beings or masses of property as are in the eyes of the law capable of rights and liabilities, in other words, to which the law gives a certain status."⁸ Chief among juristic persons are incorporated societies, and sometimes the fund or trust itself, trading corporations, as share companies, partnerships, cooperative societies, mutual insurance societies, etc., and some unincorporated societies, as partnerships, etc.⁹ A thing or the object of a right may be (1) a material, tangible object, as a house, tree, horse, etc., or (2) intellectual objects and artificial things, as patent, trade-mark, copyright, etc.

An act in the law is 'a manifestation of the human will intended to create an effect recognised by law.'¹⁰ Of the kinds of manifestation are (1) written or spoken words, (2) outward action, (3) deliberate acquiescence, or (4) deliberate silence. As regards intention, ignorance of the law is no excuse, ignorance of fact is sometimes

⁷ See Holland, T. E., *El. of Jur.*, 87, 88.

⁸ *Ibid.*, 91-93.

⁹ Schuster, Ernest J., *The Principles of German Civil Law*, §§ 48-70.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, § 89.

excusable, while suspension of intelligence through sleep, drunkenness, mental aberration, etc., may modify the status of the manifestation.¹¹ A right may be suspended by waiver, by contributory negligence, on grounds of public policy, or it may be forfeited by misconduct.

Each right corresponds to a duty, but the reverse does not always hold. Thus, the right to property corresponds to the duty of others to respect such property. But one's duty not to become intoxicated, for example, has no such corresponding right in others. A duty becomes an obligation when it is available against some particular person.¹²

3. Absolute rights. — Rights which are inherent in an individual by virtue of his being an individual, and which are available against any one of all individuals, are known as rights *in rem*, or better as absolute rights. A right *in rem* is an antecedent right, that is, it exists antecedent to any infringement.

(a) *Person.* — Every person has the right to personal safety. This implies that he has the right '(1) not to be menaced by gesture, (2) not to be touched, pushed, or struck in a rude or hostile manner, (3) not to be wounded or disabled whether by deliberate assault or by negligence, (4) not to receive injury from any dangerous substance or animal kept by another, (5) not to be injured by the negligent exercise on the part of others of their own rights.'¹³

Every man has 'the right to go where he pleases so long as he does not interfere with the rights of others.' This is the right of personal freedom.

'He has the right, as against the world, to his good name, that is, he has the right that the respect, so far as it is well-

¹¹ See Holland, T. E., *El. of Jur.*, 102-119.

¹² See Markby, W., *El. of Law*, 185.

¹³ Holland, T. E., *El. of Jur.*, 164-166.

founded, which others feel for him shall not be diminished.' Truth can not infringe on any such right.

(b) *Property*. — 'The owner of a thing may, in so far as the rules of law and the rights of third parties admit, deal with a thing as he pleases and restrain the interference of others.' A person may lose possession of an object and still retain ownership of it. He may also retain ownership of property without necessarily being in possession at all times. This distinction is often confusing to the youthful mind.¹⁴

In the rights just mentioned infringement can take place only against the will of the person of inherence. The right to immunity from fraud, however, may suffer infringement with the person of inherence a consenting party to his loss. This right implies that there shall be no representation made either untrue or not believed in as true for the purpose of determining the will of another to a decision harmful to his interests. The representation must not be '(1) untrue in fact, (2) made with a knowledge of its untruth, or without belief in its truth, or with recklessness as to its truth or falsehood, (3) made for the purpose of inducing another to act.'¹⁵ The right holds even if the maker of the statement should act in good faith or if the statement is not addressed in particular to the person injured.

4. **Obligatory rights.** — Obligatory rights arise from agreements made between two parties, as from the creation of fiduciary positions, from family relations, etc. They are called rights *in personam* and are available against a particular person.

Outside of contract the most important of these rights are (1) domestic, as parent-child, guardian-ward, etc.,

¹⁴ Schuster, E. J., *Princ. of Germ. Civ. Law*, §§ 311, 323.

¹⁵ Holland, T. E., *El. of Jur.*, 230.

rights, (2) fiduciary, as trusts by treatment, etc., (3) meritorious, as the claim for compensation arising from voluntary service or assistance necessary to business in the absence of the owner, as salvage, etc., and (4) official, as the claim of any member of a community 'to call upon an official to exercise his function on his behalf.'¹⁶

A contract is an agreement of several parties with mutual communication of such agreement and with an intention of creating a legal relation between the parties. Obligatory rights are then created on both sides. There must be (1) the parties, (2) an offer and acceptance, (3) an agreement possible and legally permissible, (4) a purport to produce a legally binding result upon the mutual relations created. Expression of agreement may be in writing, by words, by signs, or merely by a course of conduct. Acceptance must correspond unconditionally with the offer and it must be contemporaneous with it. Contracts are void if fraud or duress can be shown.¹⁷

The most important kinds of contract are (1) purchase and sale, (2) letting and hiring, (3) loans of money or other movable things, (4) work and services, (5) partnership, (6) suretyship or guarantee, (7) abstract agreements, as money orders, promissory notes, etc., and (8) public offers of reward.¹⁸

The obligation inherent in a contract becomes discharged or extinct by (1) performance as *per contract*, (2) events excusing performance, as death of one of the parties, destruction of a necessary object involved, change in the law, outbreak of war, etc., (3) substitute for performance, as payment or tender, compromise, set-off or balancing of claims, and substitution by mutual consent of a new obli-

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, 238-249.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, Ch. XII.

¹⁸ Schuster, E. J., *Princ. of Germ. Civ. Law*, §§ 184-283.

gation for the old one, (4) mutual release, and (5) non-performance, which puts an end to the rights enjoyed by the one not performing his part, and which may give rise to remedial rights.¹⁹

5. Remedial rights. — The infringement of a right gives rise to another, a remedial right. If the enforcement of a right is in danger of being frustrated or of being materially hindered by the omission of immediate measures for its protection, and if public authorities can not be effectively appealed to in time, the right of self-help may be exercised. Self-help should not be confused with self-defence. The latter is not really a remedial right. The function of self-defence is 'to cut wrong short before it is done.' The function of self-help, however, is to restore property, to put an end to conditions producing wrong, or to put pressure on the wrong-doer or on one interfering with a right.²⁰

Judicial redress usually takes the form of an action for damages. Damages may be nominal, to test the nature of a right only when an absolute right has been infringed. Ordinary damages may be claimed as a compensation for loss sustained. Exemplary damages imply that, besides the violation of the right, there has been added insult or outrage. Instead of compensation restriction may at times be claimed.

6. Private wrongs. — The classification of wrongs follows in the main the classification of rights. We may have wrongs (1) to the person, (2) of defamation, (3) of fraud, bad faith, and oppression, (4) to possession and property, (5) of nuisance, and (6) of negligence.²¹

(a) *Person.* — The chief personal wrongs are (1) assault

¹⁹ Holland, T. E., *Et. of Jur.*, 306.

²⁰ Pollock, Frederick, *The Law of Torts*, Ch. V.

²¹ *Ibid.*, Chs. VIII–XIII.

and battery, and (2) false imprisonment. "The least touching of another in anger is a battery; for the law can not draw the line between different degrees of violence, and therefore prohibits the first and lowest stage of it; every man's person being sacred, and no other having a right to meddle with it in any the slightest manner." Assault is an inchoate battery, but generally is made to include battery. The essence of the wrong of assault is 'putting a man in present fear of violence.'²²

False imprisonment is not restricted to prison walls. Forcible detention of any kind, whether in the street or in a private house or in a common prison, may constitute the wrong. Obstruction must be in all directions if the wrong is to be recognised. Reasonable means of escape, if left open, will prevent existence of the wrong.

(b) *Defamation*. — This wrong may be committed by way of speech or by way of writing or its equivalent, as gesture, drawing, printing, engraving, etc. Slander refers to the former means, libel to the latter. Slander is a spoken, libel a written, defamation. Slander may be said to be the utterance of words imputing (1) a criminal offence, (2) a contagious disease which would result in social exclusion, (3) unfitness, dishonesty, or incompetence in an office of profit, profession, or trade, and prejudicial to one's calling.²³

(c) *Fraud and oppression*. — 'The wrong called deceit consists in leading a man into damage by wilfully or recklessly causing him to believe and act on a falsehood.' The following conditions must concur, (1) the statement is untrue in fact, (2) the person making the statement or the person responsible for it either knows it is untrue or is recklessly and consciously ignorant of its truth or untruth,

²² *Ibid.*, Ch. VI.

²³ *Ibid.*, Ch. VII.

(3) it is made in a manner fitted to induce action, and (4) action in reliance upon the statement results in damage.²⁴ Wrongs of oppression include malicious abuse of process, annoyance and coercion, intimidation, corruption, maintenance or aid in malicious prosecution, etc.

(d) *Trespass and conversion.* — Trespass includes entry on another's grounds and taking another's goods. A person in possession may wrong the owner by exceeding his rights of possession, as by burning wood, grinding corn, spoiling or altering the property, etc. Such wrongs are called injuries to reversion. The wrong of conversion arises when the one in possession deals with another's goods as owner for however short a time. Qualified refusal to deliver goods, however, is not conversion. If the one in possession is not certain he may refuse to deliver pending proof of ownership.²⁵

(e) *Nuisance.* — Nuisance exists when one is unlawfully disturbed in the enjoyment of his property or in the exercise of a common right. A nuisance arises when anything endangers the lives, safety, health, property, or comfort of the public. The usual kinds of nuisance are (1) interference with the rights of a possessor through incommodity, as when rain water is discharged upon neighboring land, (2) obstruction of rights of way and other rights over the property of others, and (3) continuous doing of something which interferes with the health or comfort of another in the occupation of his property. The common modes of annoyance are smoke, noise, offensive vapors, ringing of bells, loud music, shouting crowds, etc.²⁶

(f) *Negligence.* — The wrong of negligence is the omission to do something which can reasonably be expected, or

²⁴ Pollock, Frederick, *The Law of Torts*, Ch. VIII.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, Ch. IX.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, Ch. X.

the commission of an act which in the ordinary conduct of human affairs is unreasonable. The contrary of negligence is diligence. Common cases of negligence are manifested in accidents from vehicles on the highway, in injury received from improperly built scaffoldings, loose building material, etc. If harm results through a person's own contributory negligence, the wrong can not be said to be due to reasonable action of another. Diligence is legally required in (1) keeping in cattle, (2) keeping dangerous animals, (3) dealing with fire, firearms, explosives, corrosives, etc., (4) safeguarding tenants or customers in buildings, (5) carriage, passenger service, (6) building, repairing, handling goods, etc.²⁷

7. **Public wrongs.** — Public wrongs, or crimes and misdemeanors, belong only in an indirect way to such juridical conduct as is involved in school discipline. Brief mention of them is all that is necessary.

Private wrongs or torts imply violation of absolute rights. Breach of contract is not a tort, since the rights have been fixed by the parties themselves. When violation of a right affects the community as a whole, the wrong becomes a public one.²⁸

Of the various crimes we have (1) offences against the government, as treason, rebellion, resistance to authority, etc., (2) offences against public justice, as embezzling, receiving stolen goods, perjury, bribery, etc., (3) offences against the public peace, as rioting, unlawful hunting, tumultuous petitioning, etc., (4) offences against public trade, as smuggling, usury, illegal combination, etc., (5) offences against the public health, as adulterating food, vagabondage, public nuisance, as offensive trades or manufactures, obstruction of the highway, etc., (6) offences

²⁷ *Ibid.*, Ch. XI. ²⁸ *Ibid.*, Ch. I. Blackstone, W., *Com.*, 4: 3.

against the persons of individuals, as assaults, batteries, false imprisonments, kidnapping, etc., and (7) offences against private property, as larceny, either by private stealing or open stealing (robbery), malicious mischief, forgery, etc.²⁹

In some cases both civic and criminal action may be possible. A tort may coincide with a crime when violation of an individual right coincides with a public wrong and affects the community at large.

§ III. SOCIAL CONDUCT

1. **Duty and offence.** — Duty refers to some specific action. Several characteristics are worth noting. In the first place, it is essentially social. Few questions are asked concerning the individual sanctions which give rise to an act, so long as the act is socially serviceable and ethically right. The philanthropist who finds a real pleasure in doing good receives no more recognition than one who does so from the habits of his youth, or than one who does so after inner conflict.

In the second place, a duty has a necessary and impelling character. The imperative nature of duty may be individual, social, or both. On the social side is the imperative, 'You ought to do thus and so,' with an implied, 'Or you must take the consequences.' Such consequences may vary from verbal comment to tar and feathers. On the individual side the impelling nature is felt as a feeling of unrest, dissatisfaction, or even distress when an action is not done. Duty may give pleasure to the person doing it. Kant is wrong when he restricts duty to such cases as necessitate conflict and strain. In fact, duty is in a bad way if it is always accompanied with conflict.

²⁹ Blackstone, W., *Com.*, 4: Chs. VI–XVII.

Finally, a third characteristic of duty is the assumption which the act carries with it that, if necessary, it can be subsumed under some moral law or judgment. Such law may be the Biblical, 'Whatever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them,' the Kantian imperative, 'Act only on that maxim thou canst at the same time will it should become a universal law,' or the ancient, 'Do right though the Heavens fall.'

We may define duty as an act, necessitated by any of the various sanctions, which may be subsumed under the moral law of the individual, of society, or of both. Thus, an individual may perform an act which from the social point of view is right and from his own standpoint wrong. He may do something which is judged right by himself and wrong by society. Finally, he may do something which is right as judged both by himself and by others. Often the actions which are judged right by contemporary society have been condemned by generations following.

An offence is an act which receives the disapproval of society. The individual side of the act is not considered. It is evident that an act both primarily and secondarily offensive to the individual himself will not of its own account be persisted in. Whether an offence has a proper individual sanction or not makes little difference as far as the social judgment is concerned. Usually the social background can enforce its claim. If there arises a conflict, and both judgments, the one, 'It is right,' and the other, 'It is wrong,' are supported by groups of equal size, they may have to fight the matter out. This happens in civil wars. Might then makes right in a truly moral sense. For morality is nothing if not social.

Certain pedagogical truths may be drawn from the

above discussion. In the first place, the school should develop (1) those duties recognised by the average social background, and (2) those duties recognised by the element in society which controls and develops the sources of sweetness and light. Bourgeois duties are good. But just as necessary are those duties heralded by the leaders of thought and action, those who can look ahead and outline conduct as it will be for the growing generation. In the second place, the importance of a proper social background of response is seen. One who grows up among thieves can hardly consider as right the actions of others in a different sphere. In the third place, habit should be strengthened by analysis of human action and by wide social intercourse so that the natural springs of sympathy may have an opportunity to develop, and that the individual judgment of right may correspond with a wide social judgment. Finally, such levels of satisfaction should be developed that the judgment, 'It is right,' will be passed only on acts which are socially and individually serviceable and right.

As regards the question of heredity and environment, it is evident that for normal and average duties the environment is practically the determining feature. For exceptional cases, as of the genius or the degenerate, environments may be specially sought or constructed, and development may go one way or the other in spite of the normal environment. Natural tendencies can not be grafted on an individual. He is given to us for better or for worse. All we can do is to supply the proper environment, material, spiritual, and social. On the average, the individual will respond properly. Heredity, because of its uniform action, then becomes a negligible quantity as far as discipline is concerned. But after we have given proper

stimulation and direction, and have provided a fitting and adequate environment, we can do no more. God alone can then dispose.

2. **Duties to the self.** — Of the duties to the self we have (1) duties to the material self, (2) duties to the physical self, and (3) duties to the spiritual self.

Strictly speaking, we can have no duties to objects. It is only when an object affects others through an individual's action on or through them that duties to the material self can be said to exist. Whole forests, for example, may be cut down to make way for the advance of civilisation. But when their destruction endangers the water-supply, it becomes our duty to preserve them. This social limitation is implied in a presentation of duties to the material self.

Of duties to the material we have (1) the careful handling of objects, (2) the care and preservation of objects, (3) economy in the use of objects, and (4) serviceable contact with objects, or work.

Of duties to the physical self we have (1) care of the sense organs, (2) care of the health, (3) physical exercise, and (4) cleanliness.

Of duties to the spiritual self we have (1) the development and perfection of such mental ability as is possessed, (2) the formation of habits of correct thinking, and (3) the cultivation of the powers of expression, both conventional and formal.

Duties to the self are not on that account selfish duties. For in so far as an individual observes such duties he becomes positively capable of greater social service and negatively less of a burden on the social body. Individual duties may, of course, be perverted. But so, too, may social duties.

3. Duties to others. — The classification of the social duties which may be made are (1) conventional duties, and (2) social and ethical duties.

Conventional duties are (1) formal, as expression of 'Please,' 'Thank you,' etc., and (2) those which relate to breeding, such duties being marked by a lack of roughness, censoriousness, raillery, contradiction, captiousness, excess of ceremony, interruption, and dispute.³⁰

Of the higher social and ethical duties the most important are (1) courtesy and consideration, (2) toleration, (3) respect, reverence, and humility, (4) truthfulness, honesty, and fairness, (5) respect for the self of another, (6) obedience, (7) self-reliance, and (8) social service.

A fuller treatment of these duties will be given in the chapter on the special development of conduct.

4. Offences against the self. — The same general division used in the classification of duties may be followed in the treatment of offences. Offences may take place against (1) the material self, (2) the physical self, and (3) the spiritual self. Offences against the material self are possible only when the objects have social implications.

Of offences against the material self we may have (1) rough and careless handling of objects, (2) failure to preserve or protect objects, (3) unnecessary waste or misuse of objects, and (4) idleness or laziness.

Of offences against the physical self we have (1) neglect of the sense organs, (2) neglect of the health, (3) lack of exercise or excess of play, and (4) lack of cleanliness or acquiescence to conditions of filth and dirt.

Of offences against the spiritual self we have (1) lack of application or misuse of mental energy, (2) loose thinking

³⁰ See Locke, John, *Some Th. Con. Ed.*

and partisan judgment, and (3) slovenly and unconventional expression.

5. **Offences against others.**—Social offences may be those either of convention and breeding or of more ethical conduct.

Offences of convention and breeding include ignorance of the conventional modes of address, roughness, censoriousness, raillery, contradiction, captiousness, excess of ceremony, interruption, dispute, and in extreme cases, cursing and swearing.

Social and ethical offences include (1) discourtesy and insolence, (2) lack of toleration, (3) disrespect and irreverence, (4) lying and dishonesty, (5) disrespect for the self of another, (6) disobedience or half-hearted acquiescence, (7) timidity or lack of dignity, and (8) selfishness.

§ IV. SCHOOL CONDUCT

1. **Behavior in the school building.**—In the school building outside of the classroom pupils should behave properly in the halls, on the stairs, and in the yard or playground. Good conduct in relation to the premises demands that the pupils should use them properly. When we consider that the functions of the building in all its parts are support, shelter, and esthetic satisfaction, it is seen that the pupil conducts himself properly towards the premises as such when he walks quietly along, uses only his eyes to appreciate whatever art is in sight, and save grasping handles or railings built for his support, keeps his hands strictly to himself.

Common violations of such good conduct are chalking or marking the walls, cutting initials into the woodwork, chipping the edges of the stone or brick, breaking windows,

destroying locks, breaking or bending tin cups, swinging on gas-jets or iron supports, throwing paper, food, or refuse about the yard or stairs, squirting water about the yard or spilling it on the stairs, pasting papers or labels on the walls, driving nails into the woodwork, tearing down exhibition work, etc.

Good conduct towards one another demands that when pupils pass through the halls or on the stairs they walk quietly in line close to the wall, going in one direction upon entering and in another when departing. Each child should always proceed along the right-hand side of the wall. When in the yards or playgrounds pupils may talk quietly or play in an orderly manner.

The usual cases of misbehavior in passing into and out of school are pushing, going out of line to get ahead, breaking through lines, fighting, making loud noises, as by shouting, quarreling, whistling, singing, banging sheet-iron partitions, etc. Further examples of the pupils' misbehavior towards one another are throwing one another's caps, books, or papers about, teasing, bullying, interfering with games or play, hiding books, calling names, etc.

2. Behavior in the classroom. — In the classroom we may consider behavior as conditioned by the material, the other pupils, and the teacher.

What has been said in connection with behavior towards the school premises applies with equal force to the fixtures and material within the room. Specially noticeable among acts of misbehavior are scratching, marking, or cutting the desks, standing upon them, and throwing paper, etc., upon the floor. In the use of material pupils sometimes abuse their books by bending, tearing, or marking the pages, throwing the books about, or strapping them too tightly. Sometimes pens are used as spears and

wantonly stuck into the floor, ink-wells are stuffed with paper, etc., tools are misused or broken, and material generally wasted through indifference or carelessness.

In their conduct towards one another, pupils should let their neighbors strictly alone during school hours, and should learn to depend upon themselves. The usual forms of misbehavior are taking or borrowing material, asking for answers, information, etc., or in a malicious spirit prodding or tickling others, throwing spit-balls, hiding books or hats, and the like.

During a lesson, or when the teacher is talking, the pupils should hold up their heads, listen carefully, and ask questions when they do not fully understand what is being said or done. The kinds of misbehavior which are usually most aggravating are talking, copying, turning, or squirming about, chewing, playing under the desk, drumming, or banging a ruler or pencil against the desk, jumping out of the seat, answering out of turn, etc.

Towards the teacher the pupils should act in a respectful and obedient manner. They should do what they are told, and if necessary protest in a gentlemanly manner afterwards. The usual acts of misbehavior are impudence, sulks, refusal to obey, and open defiance.

Truancy and lateness are acts which affect not only the class but also the whole school. The principal is here concerned and should cooperate with the teacher.

3. Behavior outside of the school.— In going to and from school pupils should pass along in an orderly and quiet manner. This, however, does not preclude normal play, running, games, etc. The usual nuisances committed by children outside of the school are blocking house entrances, throwing things at or calling after passing carts or wagons, snowballing passers-by, overturning

cans, barrels, or boxes, pilfering fruit, etc., breaking windows, 'shooting crap,' smoking, fighting, etc.

All kinds of conduct, juridical, social, and school, should be considered in school discipline, and if necessary, a regular course outlined for discipline as courses are mapped out for instruction. Conduct is not something living only within the school walls and non-existent elsewhere. Nor is conduct as commonly conceived the part which is of the greatest consequence. This is evident by a consideration of the various kinds of conduct above enumerated.

CHAPTER XI

THE GENERAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONDUCT

§ I. APPROVAL

1. **Function of approval.** — Approval may be defined as the response of some social background from which an individual receives pleasure, satisfaction, ease, or quiescence. This response may be simple acquiescence, or it may be the more active commendation, praise, applause, laudation, or positive reward.

The function of approval is to finish off an individual's action by the social stamp marking the action as one socially beneficial and serviceable. In addition, its use is to cap an individual's efforts with pleasure and satisfaction so that he will feel impelled to continue his work for the social whole. His action, ending in pleasure or satisfaction, will leave traces which will tend to realise themselves because of the satisfying or pleasing terminus to which they lead, and so will stimulate further endeavor.

It might seem that because of his dependence upon some social background an individual would lose his nature as an independent being of equal worth to others. Too often he does. The monotonous level of conservative mediocrity is a warning commentary on this fact. But it need not be so. The individual as a *socius* has not only the social aspect but the individual also. That his work is social in its nature need not rob it of its individual aspect. The work is the individual's whether society

takes it as its own or not. If the two coincide, so much the better for him. Should he choose to restrict his social background of response to some narrow circle, the individual usually has time enough left after he has satisfied social demands to work out his inner being his own way. He may then develop into a genius or he may become an erratic crank.

The school should recognise this social side of the child. If the school is to be a proper and adequate agency of mediation between the individual and society it should in a purified and refined way work upon the individual as does society. As the degenerate, the idiotic, and the insane are usually kept out of the public school and in special institutions, the school can dispense with the equivalents of the jail, the reformatory, and the asylum.

2. **Social approval.** — Because of its universal appeal, social approval is a strong incentive to action. It is especially valuable because it wipes out in part any individual differences between persons which would otherwise tend to mar the completeness of the social response. Thus, even though a pupil may dislike his neighbor or be at odds with the teacher, even if his work is exhibited in public in company with his neighbor's by means of the teacher, the fact that his work is before others in a public manner will give him satisfaction and pleasure. Such satisfaction and pleasure may tend to soften or even remove his dislike of the teacher.

(a) *Exhibition of work.* — Exhibition of work is a means of approval which appeals to all without any necessary discrimination. Everybody can have his work exhibited or his actions brought before the public without detraction from the work or the actions of others. Written and manual work may be exhibited by being hung on the

walls of the room or on the school walls. Various devices may be used to facilitate such exhibition. Picture wire attached to top and bottom moldings and crossed horizontally with wire might be employed. Better still is a border of green burlap three feet wide fastened at top and bottom by molding and set three or four feet above the floor. If stretched loosely, such burlap could hold papers, etc., fastened simply with pins. Blackboards at the rear or sides of the room could be replaced with such burlap. Work done at the board can be done just as well on paper. Moreover, work on paper is the usual means of doing writing, etc., outside of the school, and causes less strain of the eyes and arm muscles. Drawings, pictures, etc., look much better in frames, or on cardboard, and there seems to be little use for blackboards in the rear of a room. Often they remind one of a mourning band for childish misery. Such exhibition is a means of stimulating effort in instruction, but it also reacts on conduct. Anything which makes for cheerful work and willing effort is also a means of discipline.

(b) *Public commendation.* — Conduct may receive approval by public mention. Means of effecting this are public mention at stated intervals of good work or commendable behavior, public mention of worthy acts at any time, inscription of names upon an honor roll, publication of names in a school paper, notice upon a school bulletin board, awarding of a badge of honor to be worn for a stated period or to be kept by the pupil, appointment to monitorships or to positions of trust, etc.

The function of approval should be kept in mind in the use of these means of social approval. Exhibition of work should not be restricted to perfect work or work for the sole benefit of visitors. Whatever work shows care,

effort, or improvement, should be exhibited side by side with more perfect work. The approval itself will then be a stimulus, and in addition comparison with the better work alongside of his own will spur the child to do better. A series of results from the same child may be hung up to show his improvement. Parents should be invited at times to see the work. So, too, in public mention care should be taken to commend only actions of worth. No favoritism should be shown, for then the approval will tend to lose its force. Approval should correspond in some degree to such as would be accorded by the public outside of the school. If a teacher has narrow views or biased opinions, he may select for social approval acts which from a wider and more wholesome humane standpoint are trivial and not really worthy of approval.

Action of any kind should receive commendation, even though the individual is loaded with defects in other directions. Even if a boy is the class loafer or one continually at odds with the teacher, if he does good work or performs a worthy act, he should receive public approval. The roll of great men who have given the lie to narrow pedagogic prophecies should make a teacher pause before passing judgment and putting an individual into the class, 'good for nothing.'

3. Individual approval.— In individual approval the response comes from a single individual, the teacher, or principal. Since the teacher is supposed to represent the larger social background his personal approval carries with it much weight.

(a) *Personal commendation.*— The simplest form of commendation is a nod or an encouraging smile. Such response is often all that the child wants when he lifts his head and looks at the teacher with a doubting or in-

quiring glance. Verbal approval, as, 'Good!' 'Very good!' 'Excellent!' 'You are doing well!' 'That is very fine!' may be given time and again. Often a child will receive such approval and be ready five minutes later for more. Children are like sponges in their absorption of approval. They seem never to get enough. The teacher should not consider that children will have more respect for him if he scowls at them or is able to make them shiver in his presence. In fact, he simply tends to discourage effort by such means and cause a rigidity and silence which may cloak the blackest thoughts. At times the teacher may call a child to one side and thank him for some act or express appreciation for what he has done. A friendly tap on the shoulder will give added emphasis. The teacher's whole manner, expression, gesture, and attitude will show approval.

(b) *Personal favor*. — Approval may take more concrete form. The teacher, after commendation of good work, may offer aid to the pupil in his work, or loan him books for reading or study. Kindly inquiry and advice may follow to show the good intentions of the teacher towards the child. The personal approval of the teacher becomes almost an *ipse dixit* with the child if there exists a sympathetic rapport between the two. The child then feels that the teacher understands him and that each trusts the other. What the teacher approves will then be done as a matter of course.

4. **Artificial approval**. — When some arbitrary mark or sign is given as an appreciation of good work or right action we have artificial approval. The mark or sign may mean nothing in itself. But by a social convention it presents concretely some virtue possessed or some action done by the individual, calls attention to the individual,

and so reflects social approval. Right action no doubt should be done because it is right. But in the process of development right action may need external support. Many acts which are still in the process of habituation may need some concrete mark or sign to insure the required repetition. In actual social practice we find external signs of right action greatly coveted. We find the *Victoria Cross* or the small red ribbon of the *Legion of Honor* held worthy of the greatest sacrifices. Virtue in many instances may be its own reward. But no reward for virtue can be too great. Any little addition which society can make may be considered as a token of a greater reward which it may not be able to give.

(a) *Mark*. — For general conduct credits are often useful, especially with preadolescents. With adolescents they should not be used. These credits may be recorded in a book kept by a monitor.

The gold star pasted on a chart opposite the child's name is also effective with preadolescents. The *Good Ticket* given at the end of the week may be used in the first four years of school.

A weekly or monthly rating, *A*, *B*, *C*, or *D*, may be given and recorded on a card to be taken home by the children.

A pupil may be excused from some task set for the class as a whole, or allowed to go home a little before the others, if he has done good work.

Other means of approval are often used, but these are of doubtful value. Their disadvantages can easily be shown.

(b) *Sections*. — The use of sections is of doubtful efficacy. The pupil who is put into the *A* section receives such recognition because of some special work or excellent conduct. But he may remain in this position of honor without doing anything more to merit such continued approval. This

alone is an objection of little account. The chief fault of sections is the hopelessness and apathy which seize the children who are in the *D* section. They bear the badge of their shame continually with them and finally become indifferent and callous. They are just the ones who require encouragement and support, who need most of all to forget their past weaknesses.

Where two sections are made, one of boys to be rapidly advanced, the other of boys to be regularly advanced, such a stigma is not attached to the lower section. If both sections do approximately the same work in school, however, the added work being done at home by the brighter pupils, separation into divisions can just as well be made on paper.

(c) *Prizes*. — Prizes as a means of stimulating children are practically worthless. In the first place, they have only a limited appeal. After a short time the struggle narrows down to a half dozen or so. In the second place, prizes reward only the most worthy actions. The great level of common duties, which from the social standpoint are as valuable as the more exceptional ones, are neglected. In the third place, the reward is given too long after the series of acts leading up to it. A reward given immediately after the action is a different thing. In the fourth place, it tends to emphasise the means rather than the end. Finally, the prize is really coveted by many pupils for the opportunity it gives them of marching before admiring relatives to receive the prize, and being applauded as they do so. Means of effecting this could be done without the prize.

Prizes will long continue because of the show which they allow and the opportunity they afford of prominent individuals giving them out and making speeches. We must always look to the great mass of children, however. No doubt if attention is centered on the successful pupil the

prize may seem to have effected a great deal. The other children, however, remain but little affected.

(d) *Disadvantages of artificial approval.* — The fault with artificial approval is that excessive use of it may lead to an emphasis on the wrong thing. Artificial means should not be used till the other means, social and individual approval, have been tried. Artificial approval should be used as an aid to these. It should never be used alone nor should it overshadow the other means of approval. When any mark or sign is used, attention should be called to the work or conduct which it represents. Thus, the *Good Ticket* should not be admired so much as the boy who has received it. So, too, the percent on the paper should not be lauded, but rather the excellence of the paper.

(e) *Advantages of social and individual approval.* — A number of advantages follow from the use of social and individual means of approval. In the first place, they have a universal appeal. In the second place, they follow immediately after an action and so strengthen the sanction for a repetition of the act. In the third place, they require little effort on the part of the teacher. In the fourth place, they work in a positive manner and strengthen sanctions by increased satisfaction and pleasure. In the fifth place, they correspond to the means used by society at large, to conditions existing in the home, the society, the public meeting, etc. Finally, they are necessary to the individual. They fill the wants of his special nature, they satisfy cravings within him just as food satisfies hunger, and liquid, thirst. Such approval is especially necessary since the child when in school is cut off from the different social backgrounds to which he usually appeals.

(f) *Aids to approval.* — The pleasure, satisfaction, etc., accruing to the child from his work is something different

from approval. The teacher can supply material, show a model, construct it, and give directions. But often the nature of the pupil, his special talent or disposition, etc., will determine whether or not pleasure or satisfaction will result. Approval refers to the social response which follows such work and which has an appeal to every one.

Effective instruction, however, by producing satisfaction in the children, will cause them to take an attitude favorable to any approval which follows. So, too, effective discipline, as government, practice, etc., will produce similar tendencies.

§ II. DISAPPROVAL

1. **Function of disapproval.** — Disapproval may be defined as the response from some social background which results in pain, dissatisfaction, unrest, or disturbance to the individual. Such response may range from silence to corporal or other punishment. Since disapproval rouses tendencies of aversion, it is seen that (1) while one background may disapprove, another may approve, and (2) an individual will naturally gravitate towards the approving background. Disapproval should, therefore, not drive the child entirely away from the teacher nor rupture bonds of sympathy and friendship.

The function of disapproval in general is to check an action by stamping it as one to be avoided or suppressed. Within the individual disapproval tends to inhibit his action. From the social point of view disapproval is used for various purposes.

Disapproval may from the social viewpoint act (1) as a corrective, (2) as a deterrent, (3) as a means of revenge, (4) as a means of stimulating reparation, and (5) as a negative means of exciting action. Thus, society may dis-

approve an individual either to chastise him or to hold him up as an example to be avoided. These two aims usually go together. As a means of revenge, disapproval aims to inflict pain, etc., from the satisfaction which results to the disapproving agent. It may seek to induce an individual to replace what he has lost or broken, etc. Finally, it may be used as a whip to drive a child to further effort along suggested lines, such effort resulting in suspension of the disapproval. The child may do something which he dislikes to avoid something which he dislikes still more. The third use is stricken out at once. The fourth and fifth are subject to a number of limitations. The first and second are the ones to be emphasised.

2. **Social disapproval.** — Social disapproval should always be used in connection with the forms of approval. Where approval is given and expected, its suspension becomes a form of disapproval.

(a) *Suspension of approval.* — The simplest form of disapproval is the withholding of customary or expected approval. Refusal to exhibit work, ignoring of a child's action, omission of public mention, etc., are in themselves indications that better work or conduct is expected.

(b) *Disapproval of the offence.* — In the active disapproval of offences, wrongs, etc., great caution should be exercised if social means are to be employed. No boy should be held up to public ridicule. No child should be branded with a scarlet letter and stamped as one to be avoided or made an object of scorn or contempt. But the social background of response may be so directed that each child in it will become an agent disapproving the wrong action in question.

If there exists a proper class or school spirit, any object or activity which is tabooed or which is held to be bad form

will have directed against it the whole broadside of social disapproval of which the school is capable. As the pupil moves in this social background he can not help being affected. The offence, and not the offender, should be publicly lashed.

(c) *Isolation*. — An indirect means of disapproval is the segregation of an offender from the other children. He may be given a seat by himself, may be kept from entering in the morning till the rest have been seated, and may be kept in a few minutes after the others have left. Isolation, however, should not be inflicted for any extended period. A day or two may be sufficient. A more intense form of isolation is that in which the child is segregated and in addition prohibited from doing the regular class work. Such disapproval is necessary in some cases, as when one pupil annoys his neighbors, destroys or misuses his material, etc.

3. **Individual disapproval**. — The most effective disapproval is that which comes directly from the teacher. Such disapproval may carry with it the disapproval of the class. In the beginning, however, individual disapproval should be a matter which concerns the teacher and the child alone.

A teacher may disapprove a child simply by withholding the customary or expected approval. Dignified silence, scant recognition, or an intentional disregard of the child may be enough. Positive expression of disapproval may assume a number of forms. The teacher may lift his eyebrows, shake his head, frown slightly, purse his lips, etc., as a sign that things are not as they should be. There may be verbal disapproval in varying degrees of emphasis, as, 'That is not good,' 'You ought to know better,' 'What is the matter with you!' and the like. More elaborate dis-

approval may assume the form of a private talk, interrogation, and censure at the desk or after the other children have departed.

The attitude of the teacher towards a pupil will usually be reflected in the conduct of the other children towards the offending pupil. Care should therefore be taken that such an attitude in the teacher does not become habitual. At the earliest opportunity the teacher should change to a more friendly attitude and encourage any attempts at reform.

When a bond of sympathy has been developed between teacher and child, only the weakest forms of disapproval are necessary. The child need not of course tremble with fear at the teacher's frown. But he will be filled with a restlessness and emotional disturbance which in most cases will be sufficient to arrest action.

Should there be no bond of sympathy between teacher and children, should one continually harass the other, any disapproval by the teacher may be disregarded, in fact may be taken by the offender as a mark of honor. In such a case the social background of response has been moved out of the teacher's control. The teacher should then change his attitude completely, seek to develop a personality as suggested in a preceding chapter, and try to get on the right side of the class. Appeal to more strenuous methods of artificial disapproval will make matters only worse.

4. **Artificial disapproval.** — Means of artificial disapproval are usually worked out with considerable elaboration by the teacher. But I would insist that not only are they secondary in efficacy to the more social means, but they are often subversive of the very basis of good conduct which the teacher should be trying to establish. I shall consider first

the legitimate means of checking incorrect, offensive, or wrong action.

(a) *Mark.* — A convenient means of correcting general acts of misconduct are the demerits considered on a *par* with credits but of a negative value. These should be recorded by a monitor and preserved in a book.

(b) *Detention.* — Detention for a short period after hours may be used. When detention is inflicted, the teacher and the pupil should not depart with mutual scowls. The teacher should supplement detention with a kindly talk, pertinent advice, questioning, good-natured banter, etc. He should receive the child's explanations, let him state his side of the case, and do whatever is necessary to keep unbroken the ties of friendship and sympathy which may exist.

(c) *Change of seat.* — The pupil may be given a seat near the teacher, or better still he may be placed in the rear, where his conduct can not be seen by the others and where his loss in lessons, etc., will be his own. Such loss can be charged to him as added work to be made up after hours if necessary.

(d) *Notice.* — If a pupil is in danger of detention in the grade another term or if he seems to be wasting his time, his parents should be notified both by means of the general report card and by special notice. Such notices if possible should be in printed form. Notice should be sent only after all other means, when used with persistence, have failed.

(e) *Suspension.* — If the pupil persistently and continuously refuses to do work or to obey, he should be reported to the principal and temporarily suspended from class work. The teacher and principal must cooperate in such a case. The child may be placed for a day or so in a lower

class, or he may sit in another class pending further action by his parents.

Should a child threaten to become a plague spot and should he prove incorrigible with a number of teachers, he should be suspended from the school and placed in a parental or other school. If special classes are organised in the school, he should be placed for a time in one of them.

(f) *Application of the means of disapproval.* — Repetition of any one means of disapproval will increase its intensity and so make it really a new form of disapproval. Repetition in a series of all means of disapproval, beginning with individual means and passing through artificial and social means, will give the teacher a great deal of power in this connection. The teacher should not lose his head and pass rapidly from one form of disapproval to the next, or worse still, use the strongest means of disapproval at once. If the simplest form of disapproval does not seem to have effect, he should try it several times before using the next. He should give the impression time to soak in. Each means of disapproval should in this manner be given a number of chances.

It is seen that I have left out the whole repertory of punishments which make some classrooms rival in a small way the old Inquisition. Such are tasks and impositions, saturation, public disgrace, and the various means by which pain is inflicted on parts of the body.

(g) *Tasks.* — Tasks and impositions are a means of inflicting distress, but it is a distress which has little efficacy and which serves only to alienate the child from his school work and from the teacher. The task of writing a number of times, 'I must not talk,' or some paragraph, or some list, comes too long after the act itself to be of value. The teacher who uses such a means of disapproval forgets that conduct is essentially social. So disapproval should be social. Writing words, etc., for some breach of discipline is simply a cold,

calculating exchange without moral significance or social reference one way or the other. In my school days I used to feel secure in any prospective misconduct because I had several sets of the words usually imposed all ready for delivery.

Writing lessons which have been missed, or as an aid to the memory, is something different from the tasks inflicted to correct conduct, and is a legitimate aid in instruction. Senseless writing of lists, etc., however, tends to cover school work with odium.

(h) *Saturation.* — Saturation is enforced repetition of an objectionable act. The chewer of gum, for example, may be made to keep on chewing; the child who taps the desk may be forced to keep on tapping; the pupil who draws faces may be compelled to do nothing else, and so on. It is seen that this mode of disapproval requires further negative stimulation and may lead to corporal punishment. Such a practice is atrocious. To prevent an act the teacher compels repetition of it; to arrest an occurrence which may be impulsive, the teacher tries to stamp it firmly into the child's mind; to make the child an effective social being, the teacher leads him to hate a basic social institution. Other contradictions can easily be seen.

(i) *Public disgrace.* — No pupil should be held up to public ridicule, either verbally or otherwise. No pupil should be called names nor should his parents be attacked in this manner. Such terms as 'cabbage head,' 'sneak,' 'filthy wretch,' 'dirty loafer,' etc., to name the milder forms of vituperation, should have no place in the classroom. No boy should be compelled to stand before the class or in open assembly as an example. Such practices are medieval, and it seems strange that one should find the need of expressing objection to them at this late day. They are very common, however, and those which I have mentioned, when compared with other forms of disgrace, are comparatively mild.

It seems hardly necessary to show the objectionable features of such usages. As soon as the teacher antagonises a child, breaks his self-respect, crushes the rising tendencies towards social action, and turns against him the background of social response which should further rather than suppress action, either the child had better be out of the teacher's class, or the teacher out of the child's class. There can be no middle ground in such a case. By using public disgrace, ridicule, sarcasm, etc., as a means, the teacher simply vents

his spite on a child who has all the odds against him, who is, in fact, the under dog. Nor does the child improve under such treatment. He may persist in his actions for spite, or find other means of retaliation and revenge.

(f) *Corporal punishment.* — When one discusses corporal punishment in a comfortable lecture-room with a humorous reference here or there to the *a posteriori* method, and when one remembers the parental spanking of days gone by, the matter does not really seem to be a serious one. But when one sees how the whole thing works out in practice, the matter assumes a different aspect. Such practice as I shall discuss is that which may be met with in a system in which corporal punishment is prohibited under penalty of fine or dismissal.

Most common practices in the classroom, so common as to be taken by many as a matter of course, are slapping, striking with a ruler, grasping violently by the arm and throwing a child against the seat, knocking the head of the pupil against the desk or the wall, shaking violently, and the like. Such practices usually call forth little comment. In many classrooms they are the custom and so pass unnoticed. Teachers who pass for 'disciplinarians' will think nothing of standing over a pupil who may refuse to do his work, and beating him with a ruler over the head and body till he obeys.

One might point to corporal punishment as a sign of its necessity. But in a number of cases which I took the trouble to investigate, the children were small, amiable, refined, of pleasing appearance, of respectable parents, and offended only in such small matters as squirming or wriggling, getting out of the seat, talking, and the like. These offences often resulted in punishment which left black and blue marks, or headaches. Moreover, these children did good work and gave no trouble in classes in which corporal punishment was not used.

The advocate of corporal punishment usually takes some extreme case, a big hulking loafer, and uses him as a standard of discipline for the class. As a matter of fact, however, such a one usually is not the one to bear the brunt of corporal punishment. The teacher who tries to hit him with a ruler may have the ruler pulled out of his hands and thrown back or broken. Your little, inoffensive child, however, is more easily handled.

Such barbarity is possible for a number of reasons. Children seldom carry tales of punishment to their parents, for fear they may

get added punishment. Should a case leak out through torn clothes or marks, the parent goes to the principal who can easily hush the matter up. If the tradition in the school sanctions corporal punishment, it is taken as the custom and no one minds its existence. Moreover, visitors seldom see such punishment. If a boy should have the courage to complain, there is danger of his being hounded out of school, and parents usually feel that such will be the case. It is seldom profitable to attack a system.

Teachers, however, are not always to blame, and more strenuous repression, as increased fines, etc., will only aggravate matters. If the teacher is treated with disrespect and discourtesy by superior officials, if he is driven by tests, mechanical supervision, and the like, if he is forced to drive the children in barren subjects like arithmetic and grammar, then conflict is bound to rise between the teacher and the children. A wrong viewpoint, moreover, underlies the attitude of many a teacher towards the children. If a teacher understands by disapproval only the infliction of physical pain; by conduct, rigidity and silence; by discipline, repression and intimidation; then corporal punishment may have to be used. But if discipline means the development of social self-control, then corporal punishment should have no place in the scheme of school discipline.

The right time for the application of corporal punishment is between birth and the age of five or six. What we have then is not really punishment but the infliction of pain which the child accepts as part of the whole reaction. A child who gets his hand slapped for scratching some woodwork takes the pain as a part of the whole process. It is when pain is consciously singled out as due to human agency that it is felt by the individual as punishment.

The teacher should remember that nothing can ever make his position one free from constant effort and continuous struggle. Children are imperfect, their paths are strewn with errors and mistakes, and much waste accompanies their progress. That corporal punishment would benefit some boys I do not deny. The school, however, is not the place for it. Any application of corporal punishment to exceptional cases would tend to fix it as an average means of disapproval. As I have shown above, even where it is prohibited, this is the case. Its application brutalises the teacher, who, perhaps, conservative at first, finally uses it freely on all occa-

sions. This is so especially since the teacher breathes the school atmosphere for so many hours of the day. Its practice is so simple and easy that it tends to displace other means which require patience and forethought. The child is suppressed enough as it is. To add corporal punishment would be simply to increase his burdens, already too numerous.

§ III. DISCIPLINE OF CONSEQUENCES

1. **Statement by Spencer.** — The theory of the discipline of consequences is usually given correctly in most discussions, but its limitations, as stated by Spencer, are usually overlooked, or even given as original criticisms on Spencer himself. It is advisable therefore to let Spencer speak for himself. All of the following quotations are taken from the chapter, 'Moral Education,' the third in his *Education*.

'In the first place, . . . in bodily injuries and their penalties we have misconduct and its consequences reduced to their simplest form. Though, according to their popular acceptations, *right* and *wrong* are words scarcely applicable to actions that have none but direct bodily effects, yet whoever considers the matter will see that such actions must be classifiable under these heads as any other actions. From whatever basis they start, all theories of morality agree in considering that conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are beneficial, is good conduct; while conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are injurious, is bad conduct. The happiness or misery caused by it are the *ultimate* standards by which all men judge of behavior. We consider drunkenness wrong because of the physical degeneration and accompanying moral evils entailed on the transgressor and his dependents. Did theft uniformly give pleasure both to taker and loser, we should not find it in our catalogue of sins. Were it conceivable that benevolent actions multiplied human pains, we should condemn them — should not consider them benevolent.'¹

Wrong action therefore is such as produces pain, not 'artificial

¹ Spencer, Herbert, *Education*, 176.

and unnecessary inflictions of pain, but beneficent checks to actions that are essentially at variance with bodily welfare, checks in the absence of which life would quickly be destroyed by bodily injuries.'² Non-interference with such checks as come from the actions themselves is the basis of the discipline of consequences. Thus, 'when a child falls, or runs its head against the table, it suffers a pain, the remembrance of which tends to make it more careful for the future. . . . If it lays hold of the fire-bars, thrusts its fingers into the candle-flame, or spills boiling water on any part of its skin, the resulting boil or scald is a lesson not easily forgotten.'³ So, too, in social matters, an idle youth in business is discharged, the avaricious tradesman loses his customers, the inattentive doctor finds his practice diminish, and the too credulous creditor or the oversanguine speculator learns caution through his losses.⁴

The advantages of the discipline of consequences are (1) the penalties are unavoidable and inevitable, (2) the painful reactions are proportionate to the degree in which the organic laws have been transgressed, (3) they are constant, direct, unhesitating, silent and rigorous, (4) they hold in adult as well as in child life, (5) they help to develop right conceptions of cause and effect, (6) they guarantee proper conduct, (7) they are just, and (8) they are impersonal and do away with artificial rewards and punishment, and with anger and expressions of temper.⁵

'What is to be done with more serious conduct? some will ask. How is this plan to be carried out when a petty theft has been committed? or when a lie has been told, or when some younger brother or sister has been ill-used? . . . Of course in those occasional hazards, where there is risk of broken limbs or other serious bodily injury, *forcible prevention is called for*. But leaving aside those extreme cases, the system pursued should not be that of guarding a child against the *small* dangers into which it daily runs, but that of advising and warning it against them. And by consistently pursuing this course a much stronger . . . affection will be generated than commonly exists.'⁷ . . . *A three-year old urchin playing with an open razor can not be allowed to learn by this discipline of consequences; for the consequences may, in such a case, be too serious.'*⁸

² *Ibid.*, 177, 178. ³ *Ibid.*, 175. ⁴ *Ibid.*, 179.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 178-193. ⁶ *Ibid.*, 197. ⁷ *Ibid.*, 205. Italics are mine.

⁸ *Ibid.*, 222. Italics are mine.

Such kindly interest as is shown in advice and warnings will develop friendship and sympathy. 'Instead of being told in words, which deeds seem to contradict, that their parents are their best friends, children will learn this truth by a constant daily experience; and so learning it, will acquire a *degree of trust and attachment* which nothing else can give.'⁹ This sympathy is then used to check the graver social offences. By withholding expressions of friendship and sympathy, or by open expressions of displeasure, a parent may work on the feelings and actions of children who have committed such offences. With the children '*the moral pain consequent upon having, for the time being, lost so loved a friend, will stand in place of the physical pain usually inflicted*; and where this attachment exists, will prove equally if not more efficient.'¹⁰

Practical rules following from this theory are: (1) Do not expect from the child any great amount of moral goodness; (2) Do not set up high standards for juvenile good conduct; (3) Be content with moderate measures and moderate results; (4) Leave the children, *wherever you can*, to the discipline of experience; (5) Do not, however, behave as an utterly passionless instrument, *as your approbation and disapprobation is also a natural consequence*; (6) Be sparing of commands; (7) Remember that your aim should be to produce a self-governing being, not a being to be governed by others; (8) Do not regret the exhibition of considerable self-will on the part of your children; and lastly, (9) Remember that to educate rightly is not a simple and easy thing, but a complex and extremely difficult thing.¹¹

Spencer concludes his chapter with the words: 'Our readers may supplement our thoughts in any way they please; we are only concerned that they should be accepted as far as they go.'¹²

2. Application in the school. — The theory set forth by Spencer may be briefly outlined as follows: Allow the child by experience to receive the *slight* pains, bumps, bruises, and shocks consequent upon wilful action, warn him,

⁹ Spencer, Herbert, *Education*, 206. Italics are mine.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 211. Italics are mine. In Spencer's own words is answered the objection that his method will lead to prudential, and not to social, control.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 213-223.

¹² *Ibid.*, 227.

explain to him the consequences, try to dissuade him if possible. But if he insists, let him learn by experience that you are right and that he is wrong. Develop sympathy and friendship by such kindly interest. Then use this to emphasise your approval and disapproval.

This latter part of the theory is usually overlooked by Spencer's critics. A few other points may be noted. Spencer uses the family as the basis of his discussion. Application to school discipline will necessitate some slight changes. By his emphasis upon the use of friendship and sympathy in the case of more serious offences, Spencer may be considered as advocating moral and social, in addition to prudential, control.

The essence of the theory, the function which the consequences are to subserve, has, as far as I know, been overlooked. The consequences should not be allowed solely for the infliction of pain. Their purpose is to give the child such a basis of experience as will enable him to interpret properly and appreciate more fully the warnings given and the kindly interest shown by those who are guiding him. As the child finds out more and more that the advice and cautions given him may prevent pain and error, he comes to cling more lovingly to the supports of sympathy and friendship held open to him.¹³

The simplest application of the theory is possible in the daily recitation or lesson. Suppose that the teacher has shown a model, given proper explanations, gone over the necessary steps, and that he then finds that a child will still persist in doing things his own way. He should caution the child and show him his error, and then let him do the work. If the child continues in his own wrong way, he will spoil his work, make mistakes, fall into error, etc. This

¹³ *Ibid.*, 197-213.

in itself will create a feeling of displeasure. The teacher can then show, with an emphasis which before would be meaningless, the necessity of following instructions, and his own position as an adviser and guide. Added disapproval will be received with a spirit different from that with which it would have been before the error, etc., was made. Moreover the onus of such disapproval will fall upon the pupil and his action rather than upon the teacher.

Other applications come within the sphere of discipline proper. Often when a child is playing instead of listening, it is well to let him sit and continue and at the same time to present some new point. When the class is questioned or tested, the child's inattention can be shown as the cause of his ignorance. Not only will he receive a low mark, but he may be required to write a number of times the work he has missed. This task is not one imposed as a means of disapproval, as such, but simply a means of aiding the pupil to gain what he has lost. This I have emphasised in the preceding section.

It is a question whether teachers are called upon to drive and drive pupils who will persist in shirking their work. The natural consequences of such shirking is detention in the same grade another term. If a teacher has warned such pupils, notified their parents several times, given extra help, and then fails to receive a response in added endeavor, he should not trouble himself further with them. He is not called upon to detain them after hours till they know their work, or to stand over them with a ruler and beat them till they have completed their tasks. In such cases he is wasting energy which better directed might save twice as many other pupils who, because of their inoffensive and quiet character, may be overlooked. Of two children, the one who does better work with less driving is preferable

to another, even if the other when specially prodded and driven shows up better in final tests. Self-motivation is an aspect which should not be overlooked.

§ IV. GOVERNMENT

1. Function of government. — In a previous chapter I have given as the conditions of conduct, (1) institution or situation, (2) standard or ideal, (3) automatic response, and (4) sanction. Government has to do chiefly with the first.

The function of government is to construct or bring about or change a situation in such a manner that right action and correct behavior will be possible or will be facilitated. Government has to do with such static conditions as are beneficial to right action and conscious moral endeavor. These conditions may be looked upon as a furthering environment. They include not only the rules and regulations in effective use, but also those conditions, as ventilation, warming, classroom decoration, proper classification, etc., which make indirectly for system, order, and harmony.

The signs of good government are (1) cheerful surroundings, (2) order, (3) absence of interference or unnecessary interruption in the regular class work, (4) a hum or clatter indicative of persistent and steady effort, (5) willing obedience in the children, and (6) a calm, unruffled, and self-controlled manner in the teacher.

Cheerful surroundings imply classroom decoration, clean window-sills, absence of litter or muss, etc. Order is present when material is given out systematically, when each child has his material, when pens, paper, paint, or what not, is ready for distribution, and when the teacher has his work well prepared. Absence of interruption is evident when the pupils are not talking or playing, when no pupil is

annoying his neighbor, as by punching him, borrowing from him, etc., and when the teacher does not spend too much of his time in calling individual children to order. The hum and bustle of work may include occasional talking, a clatter from the use of rulers, boards, pencils, etc., and the occasional question and answer necessary in explanation, discussion, or exposition. Finally, self-control implies an evenness of temper in the teacher, an attitude which is calm and unruffled, and a lack of fussy violence or erratic action or vituperation. Occasional outbursts of controlled indignation, or vehement exhortation, however, may at times break what might otherwise become the monotony of serenity.

2. **The new teacher.**¹⁴—With the teacher newly appointed or temporarily assigned to a new class the whole problem of discipline narrows down to the question of government. During the first week or so the new teacher is not concerned much with the higher duties or with nice distinctions between juridical or social conduct. Often he is engaged in a struggle to preserve the school furniture and to come out of his baptism with something left of his dignity, courage, and vigor. If he can maintain a reasonable amount of order, he may consider himself successful.

The scandal of substitute discipline, or rather government, can be much lessened if the principal does his share. I shall first, however, indicate what the new teacher or the 'substitute' teacher should do himself to make his work more effective. Since he may be assigned to any grade,

¹⁴ Excellent advice is given in: Taylor, Joseph, *Art of Class Management and Discipline*. Bagley, W. C., *Class. Man.*, Pt. I. Seeley, Levi, *A New School Management*. Roark, Ruric Nevel, *Economy in Education*. Perry, A. C., *The Management of a City School*, 206-214. Dutton, Samuel T., *School Management*. Gilbert, Charles B., *The School and its Life*. Prince, John T., *School Administration*, Ch. X.

from the lowest to the highest, with little time for preparation, and since lack of preparation is one of the most fruitful causes of weak government, the substitute teacher should have an omnibus plan of work ready with him. Such a plan should include (1) from one to two hundred problems in arithmetic, carefully selected so as to cover most of the important types, and with answers, (2) from one to two hundred sentences or a book of short memory gems, (3) from six to a dozen outlines for composition, with the necessary facts, (4) two or three dozen designs and conventionalised flower forms, (5) the maps of the continents in outline, (6) the most interesting parts of history in outline, (7) a list of one or two hundred spelling words of average difficulty but frequently misspelled, (8) some small scientific apparatus, as magnetised needle, a compass, a few Prince Rupert drops (made by dropping melted glass into water), a large and small bottle arranged to illustrate the Cartesian diver, a piece of magnesium tape, or some flashlight powder. From (1) to (7) inclusive can easily be contained in a small book. Material for experiments can be placed in the pocket. In addition, the new teacher should be able to relate a fairy tale or interesting story for younger children, while for older boys he might carry with him a book like Stevenson's *Treasure Island* or *Kidnapped*, Dickens' *Pickwick Papers*, or Poe's *Tales*. A book of selected stories may be made by cutting out of cheap editions a half dozen or so exciting stories. Thus equipped, the beginner can boldly face the juvenile world.¹⁵

Before he goes into the classroom the new teacher should make sure that material is there or ready to be sent to him.

¹⁵ It might be well for students of education to prepare such books as a part of their regular class work.

When he is in the classroom, he should endeavor to put the class into the proper humor and to create a disposition favorable to himself. The strained look, the Napoleonic stare, the firm mouth, and the 'sharp eye,' so much lauded by the pedagogue of the old school, should give way to an unconcerned attitude, a pleasing expression, a friendly smile or nod, and a cheery 'Good morning.' He should remember that he is not there to do anything original or to carry out his will. He is there simply to fill a gap, to give help, and to make himself generally useful to the children. With adolescent boys he may frankly state his position and his intention to help to move things generally along. With preadolescents he may assume a more dictatorial attitude, and state that he has come to take charge for the day, and that he knows that the previous good record, work, etc., of the class, etc., will be kept up.

When he is ready to go on with his work, he should give one lesson right after the other. In the morning he might begin by giving ten problems in arithmetic. The answers should be given right after the work so as to impress the pupils with his preparation and knowledge of the work. He might follow by letting the pupils draw from blackboard or other copy a map which can be filled in with names of products, commerce routes, surface features, etc. An interesting account can be given between halts. Wheat, cotton, silk, life in Siberia, or what not, will furnish interesting material for narration. Sentences might then be given for dictation, grammatical analysis, imitation, penmanship, etc. After this a reading lesson in literature, history, or supplementary work will help to keep the children busy. As a reward an interesting experiment might be made. Some historical account might follow and close the morning. In the afternoon sketching or

original designing, composition, reading, or story-telling might end the day.

Such a method of procedure is not strictly pedagogical, but the necessities of the case justify it. Lesson periods need not be kept within the forty-minute limit, but may last longer, till in fact the class shows signs of restlessness. The object of the work of the first few days is not so much instruction as government. The children should work a day or so with the new teacher so as to become used to him, accustomed to his voice, manner, and the like.

In the general conduct of the class the substitute should ignore slight breaches, as talking, copying, reading under the desk, making faces behind his back, or any attempts to make him act violently or erratically. Here and there he should note centers of oncoming disturbance. Such boys as seem to be getting ready for mischief should be quietly asked to remain just when the class is ready for dismissal, and the teacher should stand at the door to see that they remain. If such boys are adolescents, the teacher should be frank with them, discuss their conduct, and ask for cooperation. With preadolescents a more dictatorial manner may be taken. The teacher should tell them plainly that their conduct is not what it should be, and in a serious manner should ask them for their names, their parents' names, place of address, etc., for the sake of impressing them with the unknown.

As much as possible the new teacher should avoid conflict either by opposing class customs or by insisting upon arbitrary changes of his own. Even if he thinks that he is being deceived, he should follow suggestions given by older pupils, as regards method of dismissal, marking, distribution of supplies, etc. He should express approval wherever possible of class work, decorations, and the like.

He should not be lulled into a quiet by his first day's success, for, if any storm breaks, it will come on the second or third day. After that things will run more smoothly.

The principal should cooperate effectively with the new teacher. He should explain to him the work of the grade, the class customs, etc., and should give pertinent advice. He should insist that the new teacher prepare work, on the spot if necessary, before he enters the classroom. The principal should then explain matters to the class, ask for their cooperation, and the like. He should then introduce the teacher to the class. From time to time during the day the principal should drop into the class to see how matters are going on. He should be in the classroom shortly before dismissal or he may notify a teacher in an adjoining room to keep an eye on the class or to take charge of the dismissal. He should let the class know that any marks given by the new teacher will 'count' and may send in for them during the day. He may use the occasion for a written test or so. If he does this, the principal should turn the papers over to the regular class teacher when he comes, so as to remove any suspicion of espionage.

For the teacher newly but regularly appointed the same general directions should hold. He need not keep to the old traditions, but he should make changes slowly. As he is regularly in charge, he may control after his own ideas and aims. But the rules, that work should be carefully prepared, that lesson periods should be well filled, that written work should at first predominate, that minor offences should not be noticed till graver ones have been suppressed, that conflict in the beginning should be avoided, and that friendly talks with the pupils before and after hours should pave the way for friendship and sympathy,

— these hold for the teacher newly appointed as for the temporary substitute.

In addition the new teacher should visit the school before he assumes charge of the class, walk through the neighborhood, etc., so that he will feel more at home when he begins work. He should be on hand early that he may greet the children pleasantly as they arrive in small groups, that he may get his material ready, that he may ask aid in distribution, and the like. He should have the boards well covered with problems in arithmetic, design work, maps, or what not. Ink, paper, pencils, etc., should be carefully looked after.

Further suggestions are given below. These apply to all teachers,—substitutes, newly appointed, and regular.

3. **The new class.** — A class just promoted to a higher grade should be initiated into the routine work of the grade as soon as possible. By the second or third day the regular class work should be going on. Names and other data should be taken at the very beginning, if they have not already been obtained. Books should be distributed and the schedule of lesson periods given. No home work should be given for the first two or three days. Class work should proceed in a more or less tentative manner, and toleration should be shown for unavoidable errors of the children. They should be given an opportunity to adjust themselves to the new environment. Mistakes due to nervousness should be corrected in a kindly manner. Threats and domineering should be avoided. The more mechanical aspects of government, as entrance and dismissal, distribution of clothes, paper, supplies, etc., the seating, use of halls, and stairways, position of lines in the yard, etc., should also be explained on the first day.

4. **Preadolescent government.** — Before taking up characteristics of government which apply especially to pre-adolescents, I shall give some indirect aids to government which apply both to adolescents and preadolescents.

Indirect aids to good government are (1) proper hygienic conditions, (2) cheerful surroundings, (3) proper classification, and (4) effective instruction. Good hygienic conditions include warming, ventilation, comfortable seating, consideration of visual or other defects, and physical exercise between lessons. The classroom should be made pleasing and attractive by well-arranged pictures and wall decorations, tidy desks and window-sills, trim closets, and clean floor. Classification implies that there is an approximate uniformity in the abilities and acquirements of the children of the class. Effective instruction presupposes a daily plan, a proper method of teaching, adequate material effectively outlined and arranged, and enough work on hand to fill the day.

If these indirect means are recognised and appreciated, disorder usually fails to become evident. A failure to observe these conditions, on the other hand, often provokes disorder, sullen dissent, or open defiance.

The kinds of disorder I have given in the foregoing chapter. The causes of disorder in general may reside (1) in the external surroundings, (2) in the method of instruction, (3) in the personal manner of the teacher, or (4) in one or more children.

External conditions provocative of disorder usually are, passing noises in the street, due to brass bands, fire-engines, etc., sudden darkening of the skies, proximity of holidays, as Christmas, election, etc., approach of examinations or ending of them, a snowfall, some unusual event, etc. These excite restlessness, friskiness, and disorder. Other con-

ditions more within the teacher's control are lack of paper, ruler, pen, or ink, untidy desks, monotonous view due to lack of ornamentation, and the like.

The teacher may create disorder by his instruction. He may go too fast, or present matter which is beyond comprehension by the children. He may not have his work prepared, and in the intervals in which he is cogitating the next steps of the lesson, the children may be finding things to keep them occupied their own way. The teacher can tell when his lesson is 'taking' by the general attitude of the children. If they yawn, twist, and squirm, he should at once change his tactics. He may change the lesson, introduce a new topic, tell a story relevant to the lesson, or give a physical exercise drill.

In his discipline the teacher may provoke disorder by uttering personalities, using sarcasm, poking malicious fun, threatening or suggesting disorder with an 'If,' etc.

Finally, disorder may arise even when all conditions seem favorable to effective control. In such cases the teacher should analyse the situation carefully. The sanction of the disorder should be considered. It may be instinctive and impulsive, or it may be consciously motivated. Such analysis may take but a few seconds. Further action will depend upon the specific nature of the case.

The active means of government used by the teacher may be (1) anticipation or prevention, (2) general means of dealing with specific cases, and (3) the means in operation uniformly during the day.

Much disorder can be avoided by observing the conditions above mentioned. In addition special changes should be prepared for. If unfavorable external conditions are present, as rain, coming holiday, etc., written or manual work should predominate, as writing, drawing, modeling.

Written tests may be given. Oral work on such occasions is usually weak and provocative of digression and disorder. A vigorous drill may be effective in preventing restlessness. The slackness evident at the end of the term or immediately before holidays may be prevented by holding examinations shortly or immediately before such days. The teacher knows about the number to be promoted and can give such figures to the principal some time before the close of the term. The individual pupils, however, should know where they stand only on the last day or so.

When external conditions provocative of disorder suddenly arise, as sound of a fire-bell, etc., the teacher should not notice it by look or gesture, and should sharply disapprove the first offender. If a pupil suddenly utters a cry, jumps up, or turns round, he may be cautioned or for the time ignored. Later investigation will enable the teacher to decide whether or not to take action. The teacher should not express disapproval until he feels sure that the pupil has really offended. Specific directions are given in the next chapter.

The suggestions just given apply to preadolescent and adolescent government alike. With preadolescents, however, certain other general means of control should be employed.

Dogmatic methods will have effect with preadolescents, though they will fail with older children. Preadolescent children, when told in a firm, quiet manner to do a thing, usually obey without further question. No explanations need be given. The general reason 'It is right,' may be a sufficient justification for an action, or 'It is wrong,' a sufficient reason for condemning it. When commands are given sharply and clearly, the children almost automatically respond. They have little basis of experience, few higher

levels to impede response by discussion or argument, and the lower levels transfer the impressions made by the command into channels of motor response.

Devices by which attention may be called to disorder are tapping the desk, looking at the offender, pausing in the middle of an explanation, etc. If such cautions are ignored, graded disapproval should be used.

Rules should be few in class control. It is evident that any actions which require the formulation of a rule, and which, in fact, can be covered by a rule, are such as should be trained into habits. The need of the rule then disappears. Methods of training habits then are in question. The various 'Do not' or 'If' restrictions are practically useless for purposes of government.

The actions of the teacher himself will influence those of the children. Every orderly act, all neat work, anything done by the teacher in a trim and tidy manner, can not fail to lead the children to act similarly.

5. Adolescent government. — Adolescent differs from preadolescent government in (1) the general means of dealing with specific cases, and (2) the general means in uniform operation during the day. I shall discuss the latter first.

An adolescent should be treated with a certain show of respect. He should not be arbitrarily ordered or dictatorially commanded. A hint, a suggestion, a polite request, should be the means of letting him know what is wanted. Failure to respond should not be followed by violent command, but should be treated immediately as an offence, or under certain conditions, as due to misinterpretation or forgetfulness. If lack of response is due to wilfulness and intention, or to neglect and indifference, the teacher should begin the use of graded disapproval. In his daily intercourse with the adolescent, the teacher should show him

the consideration which is expected by adults. The same forms of conventional requests, thanks, etc., should be followed. Such consideration presupposes a sense of responsibility in the adolescent to which he should be strictly held.

If the teacher fails to observe these directions and attempts to apply methods suited to preadolescents, he may stir dissension or open defiance. Much of the disorder in the lower grades is due to a lack of appreciation by the teacher that the two or three adolescents in the class require different treatment from that given to the younger children.

Slight disorder should be checked by a tap or a look. Persistent refusal to respond should be construed as intentional disorder, and should be at once disapproved. Graded disapproval should be used as suggested in a preceding section.

In specific cases the pupil concerned should not be publicly censured. He may be taken to one side and reproved in an open and frank manner. Anything which he has to say for himself should be quietly listened to. If, however, he continues to act in a disorderly manner, less consideration should be shown to him, and graded disapproval should be used.

Where, as in many cases, the class is composed half of adolescents and half of preadolescents, the problem is a difficult one. Class orders, etc., should be given as to preadolescents, but treatment of individuals should vary according to the age of the pupils. At times explanations may follow dogmatic commands, the explanations being directed specially towards the adolescents. It should be privately explained to the adolescents that their age demands of them greater responsibility, and that the toleration shown to the younger children can not be extended to

the older boys. At the same time it should be shown to them that they receive in return a greater freedom and leniency.

§ V. TRAINING

1. **Function of training.** — The purpose of training is to make automatic such reaction and control as occur in a more or less fixed and stable environment. So long as the external conditions remain the same, adjustment and control do not need the interposition of deliberation and judgment, and so may be fixed once for all. Thus, in school conduct as such, the manner of entering and departing, of passing material, of arranging papers, etc., should be the same throughout the school. In social conduct, too, conventional forms of address should be trained into habits.

2. **Preadolescent training.** — In training, the rules for the formation of habits should be applied. With preadolescents, however, a process somewhat different from that used with adolescents should be employed, both to initiate and to insure repetition.

In starting a young child in the formation of a habit, he may be told to do a thing directly. A model may be shown and the child may be asked to follow it in the presence of the teacher.

In stimulating repetition of the act the teacher may ask the child at stated intervals whether he has done as he has been told. He may be asked to tell exactly what he did. He may at times be disapproved if he allows an exception to occur. He may be approved if he persists steadily in his efforts. The cooperation of his parents may be asked, as in signing conduct book, reporting misbehavior of the child, which tends to violate certain habits, etc. Parents' meet-

ings may be a means of informing the parents of the aims of the school in this connection. The teacher should be a model to follow. He should act persistently as he wishes the children to act both in manner and speech.

3. **Adolescent training.** — One must be somewhat circumspect in initiating the adolescent in some habit of thought or action. It may be suggested to him. He may be asked to try this or that mode of control without further prodding to insure response. He may quietly be shown some error which he has made or some manner of action of which he is ignorant. The teacher should persistently act towards him in the way in which the adolescent is expected to conduct himself, or correct himself. Care should be taken not to force a line of conduct on the adolescent in an abrupt and arbitrary manner. Even if he ignores the first suggestion, he should not be disapproved till several suggestions have been offered.

To support him in the repetition of his actions, personal advice, caution, exhortation, and appeal may at times be necessary. Direct questioning or artificial means of stimulation, however, should not be used. Personal example is always effective in strengthening repetition. If the adolescent fails to respond to such treatment, and if his actions are objectionable, he should be considered as an offender and disapproved. The rules for the formation of habit apply here as with the preadolescent.

§ VI. INSTRUCTION

1. **Function of instruction.** — The function of instruction is to direct action, to provide pictures of the will, and to furnish criteria of judgment so that conduct will follow in the paths of social service and ethical rectitude. Its pur-

pose is to develop such standards, types, and ideals as will enable the individual to act consistently and rightly, to judge correctly in cases of conflict, and to meet the shock of argument by logical reasoning.

Instruction is necessary (1) in government, (2) in training, and (3) in practice. In government, instruction assumes the form of precept, direction, advice, caution, explanation, etc. In training it may become suggestion, command, exhortation, or example and setting of models for imitation. In the higher forms of discipline, as in selected practice, it takes the form of narration of story, myth, legend, biography, and the like. Discussion of typical actions, explanation of the method of development of habits, and systematic presentation and instruction of rights, duties, etc., are forms of instruction.

2. **Preadolescent instruction.** — Instruction of preadolescent children is necessary (1) in government, (2) in training, and (3) in selected practice.

(a) *In government.* — The child should be told to do a thing in a direct manner. He may be given specific directions as to the manner of procedure, and may be asked to repeat such directions. He may be shown a model or copy of the action. Little explanation need be given. The broad formula, 'It is right,' may be used to cover all such actions.

(b) *In training.* — Simple direction and command are effective in starting the child in the formation of a habit. Actual performance by the teacher is helpful. Repetition may be aided by having the child report on his actions, by disapproving exceptions, by approving persistence, etc., as explained above.

(c) *In practice.* — The department of instruction which belongs particularly to childhood is that in which example

is vividly pictured in myths, fairy tales, legends, fables, and stories.¹⁶ Myths may range all the way from deification of natural forces to imaginative perversions of actual happenings, as in tradition and legend. In between we have animistic interpretations of nature, fairy tales, and fables. Altogether they represent the attempts of primitive or naïve intelligence to explain and account for events which otherwise would cause feelings of uneasiness and distress. The anthropomorphic leanings in such accounts tend to throw a more homelike feeling round the whole.

In the use of myths, legends, etc., it should be remembered that in their first intention they serve (1) as a primitive religion, (2) as a pseudoscientific explanation of natural phenomena, (3) as a background to set off moral conduct, or (4) as a semihistoric representation in primary colors of some heroic person, or deed, or event. Greek, Roman, Teutonic, Norse, Welsh, and similar myths and legends, the popular fairy tales and fables, and historic legends afford abundant material for selection.

Such tales as deal primarily with primitive faith, superstition, and religion should be excluded. If they are given, they should be presented rather for their cultural than for their conduct value. The story should be told as an interesting story, which every cultured person ought to know because of its literary, sociological, anthropological, or other significance. The same holds with primitive attempts at

¹⁶ On the nature of 'myths,' see: Müller, Max, *Chips from a German Workshop*, 2, 'Essays on Mythology, Traditions, and Customs.' Sayce, A. H., *Introduction to the Science of Language*, 2: Ch. IX. Tylor, E. B., *Prim. Cult.*, 1: Chs. VIII-XI, and *Early Hist. of Man.*, Chs. XI-XIII. Grote, G., *Hist. of Gr.*, 1: Ch. I. Fiske, John, *Myths and Myth-Makers*. Adler, Felix, *Moral Instruction of Children*. Anderson, Rasmus B., *Norse Mythology*, Ch. I. Cox, George W., *The Mythology of the Aryan Nations*.

explanation of phenomena. The theory that such accounts should serve for the time as real explanations of rain, thunder, etc., however, should be followed with considerable reservation. When, for example, a child of thirteen in the seventh year of school will give the 'bunking of two hostile clouds' as an explanation of the formation of rain, the theory is carried somewhat too far.

In the presentation of such stories, Adler¹⁷ correctly emphasises the importance (1) of telling the story instead of giving it to the children to read, (2) of letting the children enjoy the story as a whole without making it taper to a moral point, and (3) of eliminating such stories as are relics of an ancient superstition, as turn upon the success of trickery and cunning, and as lean towards fatalism.

There may be a certain correlation between instruction and discipline in the teaching of history and geography. The function of the different city departments, the general constitution of typical governments may be given in outline.

The value of the more-moral stories is manifold. They present with swift, rapid strokes a vivid picture of some ethical truth or moral action which can be grasped by the child mind. The hero goes out, combats wickedness, and succeeds because he is right. Whether the story is true or not makes little difference so long as the ethical aspect is sound and applicable to social conditions. The action of the story goes along in an interesting manner. Adventure, combat, final victory, lend an added charm. Then such stories bind closely into a common fellowship nature and man. As Adler points out, 'Trees, flowers, animals wild and tame, even the stars, are represented as the comrades of the children. There are also given glowing pictures of sheltered firesides, where man finds rest and security from

¹⁷ Adler, F., *Mor. Inst. of Child.*, 67-73.

howling winds and nipping cold.'¹⁸ Finally, besides emphasising virtues and types of conduct, such stories give a basis of appreciation for written tales. From hearing stories told to reading them is but a step.

There should be a set period for ethical instruction. Such periods may be devoted to instruction in conventional behavior, to the telling of stories, to a presentation of the purposes of city departments, to the outlining of social duties, and the like. Children may be asked to point out the action on which the story hinges, the motive of the acts performed, and the like. The element of right should not be emphasised at the expense of the story. Some discussion of the element of right which supported the hero, etc., may be in place.

3. Adolescent instruction. — Of the kinds of adolescent instruction we may have (1) suggestion, caution, advice, etc., (2) plain, direct, and wholesome discussion either with individuals or the class, (3) appreciative explanation, reading, and study of novels, poems, plays, etc., (4) incidental instruction by personal contact with the pupils, and (5) systematic exposition of rules for the formation of habits, of the meaning of right, of the kinds of rights and duties, etc.

(a) *In government and training.* — Suggestion is usually sufficient to indicate the course of action to be followed. Explanation should be given if necessary. Caution and advice may be needed to keep the pupil in the narrow path. A comparison may be drawn between class government and the law and order of the Romans, of the Teutons, or of present-day governments.

Where adolescents and preadolescents are in the same class, any preadolescent instruction may be supplemented by personal talks and explanations to the older pupils when

¹⁸ Adler, F., *Mor. Inst. of Child.*, 66.

occasion offers. Further directions are given in the above sections on government and training.

(b) *In practice.*— Wholesome discussion should take place when the occasion offers, as current event, class incident, illustration in history or literature, etc. In a more rigid manner analysis and criticism of an action may take place. The general aim of such a discussion should be (1) to give the facts as they are usually accepted, (2) to discover the motivation of the acts, (3) to show their social reference, (4) to judge them according to the criteria of right and wrong, and (5) to bring out points of resemblance to living issues in the school, the city, or the country at large. In such discussions the teacher should keep to actual occurrences. Analysis of hypothetical cases tends to develop hair-splitting, quibbling, and academic verbiage. Moral significance is then lost because the question lacks the personal human note.

Literature is a valuable means of instruction, since it allows the child to store up models and guides of action without going through the experiences himself. The beginning, development, and culmination of an action are usually shown. A sympathetic and appreciative interpretation of literature, however, is necessary. Too often the fine web of sentiment and emotion is torn by the dictionary and the grammar. The beauty of a type or the moral worth of an action may be smothered in a mess of verbiage which is to be rehashed for the examination and the cram. If we must examine, the least we can do is to set aside a special period for appreciative study without the analysis and dissection which may be necessary and which should be given in another lesson. The two should not be mixed nor should the one take the place of the other.

The selection or masterpiece chosen may be read in the

class. Comparison with contemporary conditions may be made. Pupils may be asked to imagine themselves in similar conditions, or they may be urged mentally to take the place of the leading characters. Discussion should then follow the course of action which the pupils would take under their assumed characters. The teacher might emphasise certain parts of the story by illustrating from other authors or by applying them to related experiences in real life. The pupils might illustrate the story by drawing, modeling, constructing, etc. If possible, they should dramatise the most interesting portions.

Incidental advice and caution should be given by the teacher to the pupils when he comes into contact with them before or after hours. If he has their confidence, such advice will have added effect. His own conduct should be a model which the pupils can follow.

Systematic discussion may take place on the meaning of right and duty, on the value of habits, on rules for the formation of habits, and the like. The basic juridical, social, and school rights and duties may be expounded in serial order in the course of the term. Such topics may be made vivid and concrete by illustrations of the endeavors of statesmen, inventors, business men, writers, workmen, of the rise and fall of great empires, and the like. The teacher may go so far as even to explain his own system of discipline.

If the class is composed half and half of adolescents and preadolescents, both kinds of instruction may be given in alternation. Individual caution and advice should, of course, be tempered to the age of the pupil. One might consider that adolescents in the same class with preadolescents are on the same level mentally, and so should receive the same treatment in instruction. But the adolescent differs from his younger brother in his physical make-up

and in his emotional and conative tendencies. Such differences I have already indicated.

Instruction should not be left to chance or occasion. Special periods should be set for instruction in conduct as such. A plan of term work should be outlined just as are plans of instruction in arithmetic or grammar. Certain basic topics, as law, right, duty, conduct, etc., should receive definite treatment. When such instruction is given, moreover, it should not be appended as a tail to some other subject, as history or civics.

Instruction as such is not effective without the other means of discipline, government, training, and practice. But it is a necessary feature in the whole scheme of discipline. No doubt, alone, it will be much like the straw which by itself can not be used to make bricks. But without it much of the children's conduct will become mechanical and applicable only within a narrow field.¹⁹

§ VII. SELECTED PRACTICE

1. **Function of practice.** — Everything connected with conduct, as sanctions, knowledge, etc., should culminate in specific action. Both to insure realisation of the social response and to make the action habitual, practice is necessary. A person may know how to do a thing, he may feel sure of the rectitude of some proposed act, but unless he actually performs the act the cycle of social response will not be complete. An individual usually blunders in his first attempts. He can not reach refined and accurate adjust-

¹⁹ Suggestive material for instruction will be found in such books as Marden, Orison Swett, *Talks with Great Workers*, *The Secret of Achievement*, *The Young Man Entering Business*, *Rising in the World*, etc. Thayer, William M., *Turning Points in Successful Careers*. Smiles, Samuel, *Duty, Thrift, Character, Self Help*, etc.

ment and control till he has performed the reaction, seen his errors, and corrected them. In brief, therefore, the function of practice is (1) to insure complete social control, (2) to realise motive, intention, ideal, or what not, that errors may be seen and corrected, and (3) by repetition to make action automatic that further progress be possible.

Practice unguided may become antisocial, or even harmful, to the individual himself. To prevent this, action which is correct or right should be selected by the means of approval suggested above, and should be facilitated by proper government, instruction, and the like. Action which is incorrect or wrong should be arrested by similar means suited to the case.

The necessity of practice seems self-evident. As Aristotle says, 'It may be fairly said that a just man becomes just by doing what is just, and a temperate man becomes temperate by doing what is temperate, and if a man did not so act, he would not have so much as a chance of becoming good.'²⁰ The reason that this truth is so seldom applied in many classrooms is that a wrong notion of conduct underlies the teacher's methods of discipline.

Conduct is often suppressed because initial attempts are always accompanied with error and perhaps with disorder. But if the serenity of the classroom is thus disturbed, it shows that the pupils need training in such actions as are clumsily done. If, for example, a pupil misses in arithmetic, he is given more practice in arithmetical calculation. He is not on that account shut out of participating in exercises in arithmetic. The same should hold in questions of conduct.

2. **Preadolescent practice.** — Practice in the case of young children should be moved by the spirit of the kindergarten.

²⁰ *Ethics*, Eng. tr. by J. E. C. Welldon, 42.

In the primary grades, in fact all through the preadolescent stage, the spirit of the kindergarten should rule. Teachers who complain that the kindergarten is subversive of their discipline offer indictments of their own control. Too often the good work of the kindergarten is succeeded in the other grades by the stillness and rigidity which denotes suppression of the children and ignorance in the teacher of the first principles of conduct and discipline. In all the years of preadolescence the children should work with similar material, and should be given similar freedom and guidance as that of the kindergarten. The stages of instruction should be more advanced, but the general kindergarten spirit should animate the whole.

This spirit implies a free social contact between the children and the teacher, mutual friendship and sympathy, toleration for childish faults, patience with their first bungling attempts, and a willingness to give personal assistance and aid. In addition, concrete work predominates, and the material is such as attracts the children and stimulates their activity.

Practice in general may be allowed in the entrance and dismissal of pupils, during sessions as in the distribution of material, in games and outdoor excursions, in dances, social gatherings, and the like. The specific kinds of practice to be selected have been enumerated in the preceding chapter.

Pupil self-government should not be attempted with preadolescents. The recent studies in adolescence enable us to fix more or less definite limitations to such government. Young children are clinging and affectionate, and need support and guidance. Even if class spirit is developed among them, they lack the necessary assertion to enforce it against a few older boys who may be in the class. In fact,

they often look to the teacher for aid in such cases instead of being able to give aid.

Pupil self-government is an aspect of adolescent discipline, its culmination as it were. An adolescent will feel disapproval when it comes from boys of his own age. Moreover, older boys will have the initiative and assertion to enforce their demands. Any successful systems of pupil self-government have their foundations in the higher grades, in classes in which adolescents predominate.²¹

3. Adolescent practice. — During sessions, before sessions, and after sessions numerous opportunities for practice will be afforded. In the yard, in the halls, and on the stairs each act of the pupil should be correct and right. Inter-course between the pupil and the teacher should take place wherever possible. In addition more specific institutions are possible.

Such institutions are a class library, games, outings, nature study, and other outdoor clubs, group work on common object for school use, debates, class paper, exhibitions, meetings, societies, dramatisations, museum or theater parties, dances, and the like.

To the pupils all these institutions seem to be good fun. The children have a good time, expand socially, and like to attend school. But the teacher should not lose sight of their social and ethical significance. He should watch the conduct of the pupils, suggest here, correct there, and by his own actions set a good model. The teacher should not take the attitude that any activities which give pleasure to the children must signify evil of some kind. On the contrary, sour expressions and rigid postures indicate that much of the children's activity is going to waste, and that

²¹ Thomas Arnold understood this when he appealed to his Sixth Form at Rugby.

awkwardness and ignorance of common social practice must result.

A more formal institution in which the pupils may express themselves is a system of government with officers, etc., regularly elected.²² The special form which such government should take will depend upon the limitations of the class and the ability of the teacher. The civil rather than the military form should be followed, and should correspond to some standard government, as Roman, English, or American. Whether the head is called consul, mayor, governor, or president, makes little difference. Subordinate officers may be chosen and special departments selected.

In high school it is advisable that some one teacher take charge of a class for the purpose of guiding and directing the pupils. At least one period in the course of the week such a class should be in the teacher's room during the last hour, and should feel free to use this room for meetings, etc.

All the means suggested in the chapter lead to the realisation of ethical and social volition. In the terms of the older treatises 'instruction' is a means of 'training the intellect,' 'government' and 'training' a means of 'cultivating habit,' and development and arrest of the sanctions of feeling and emotion a means of 'improving the feelings.' It is seen, however, that such a terminology implies that there are general powers to be developed, which is not the case. We do not have a general power of will. We may have a will to do a certain thing, or a strong determination to succeed in a special line of action, but this specific power does not carry with it a general power to will anything. The mere fact that active realisation of a volition requires definite means, and that such

²² See Cronson, Bernard, *Pupil Self-government*.

means are limited by the material and the spiritual content, shows that volition is always conditioned in the process of realisation. This aspect of formal discipline, however, I shall discuss fully in the second volume.

On this account I have spoken constantly of special acts rather than of a general power. In the following chapter I shall similarly deal with individual acts. These alone concern the teacher. Whatever general power there is which may be developed will take care of itself if the individual actions are properly treated.

CHAPTER XII

THE SPECIAL DEVELOPMENT OF CONDUCT

§ I. JURIDICAL CONDUCT

1. **Development of the notion of law.** — In the special development of the different rights, duties, etc., the general principles given in the preceding chapter should be applied. For the sake of logical arrangement each is treated separately. But in actual practice they may operate side by side, and in some cases, one may precede the other, as when instruction precedes government, or practice, training. I shall first take up methods applicable to pre-adolescents.

(a) *Government of preadolescents.* — The general control of the classroom should radiate the spirit of law. Entrance and dismissals, distribution and care of supplies, supervision of books, etc., should fill the children with a certain respect for order and system.

(b) *Training of preadolescents.* — Pupils should be required to go through forms of behavior which impress upon them the fact that mass movements and social contact are regulated according to a certain plan. Arrangement of papers, obedience to signals, respect for other children in marching, etc., should emphasise the existence of rules which hold for all. Training and government usually go together in this particular.

(c) *Instruction of preadolescents.* — In giving commands the teacher may add the statement, 'It is right,' 'It must be done by law,' etc. So, too, in arresting wrong action

the teacher should add the formula, 'It is wrong,' 'It is against the law,' etc. Care should be taken that these expressions are not misapplied to such misbehavior as talking or chewing. Such statements refer especially to absolute and obligatory rights.

Obedience to law should be shown by reference to city departments, state departments, and to the national government. Means of enforcing the law, as the police and the army, may be explained. Stories should be told illustrating such common acts of obedience as paying bills, refraining from damaging property, and the like. Comparisons should be made between the acts of children in the school and of adults outside. We are not allowed to take a man's watch, so children should not appropriate the knife or pencil of another.

To the child the statement, 'It is right,' may have in it the implied reason, 'because the teacher says so.' Illustration by appeal to external conditions will tend to carry this statement back to the original one, 'because it is right.' The circle should then be, 'It is right because the teacher says so, and he says so because it is right.'

By his own example the teacher should show the universal application of law and order. He should be careful to return borrowed articles, show care in respecting school property, etc. At the same time he should call attention to his actions and their motive, with the statement, 'It is right and it must be done.'

(d) *Practice of preadolescents.* — Any action of the child which can be subsumed under the judgment, 'It is right,' should be rigidly enforced by the teacher. At the same time he should emphasise the reason for the action with the remark, 'It is right and you must do it.' This is possible in such cases as call for return of found articles,

for self-restraint when passing through lines, etc. When the child reaches the higher grades, he should have a general notion of certain acts which he must do because they are sanctioned by legal usage. The constant reiteration of the statement, 'It is right,' can not fail to stamp into the child's mind the necessity of doing some actions and of abstaining from others. Especially will this be so if the statement forms a part of the whole complex, action, approval or disapproval, caution, advice, etc.

(e) *Government and training of adolescents.* — A more definite treatment of the obligatory nature of law may be followed with adolescents. There should be explanations and references to conditions outside of the school similar to class control. Reasons for directions should be given if necessary. If the teacher happens to be wrong, he should candidly acknowledge that fact, at the same time emphasising the binding nature of right and law. This may take place in the marking of papers, in a statement of fact, or what not. Special regulations required by school routine should be explained and the general effects of orderly procedure set forth.

(f) *Instruction of adolescents.* — Illustrations from history, literature, current events, or classroom incidents should be used to show the universal nature of law. The basic laws operating in Roman, British, and American governments may be set forth. An analysis and discussion of the nature of law as such may be in place. The aspects emphasised in such discussion should be (1) the social sanction of law, (2) the operation of law, (3) the use of law, and (4) the benefits of law accruing to the individual. If pupils are mature enough, it might be explained that the highest forms of law are simply the realisation of an individual's inner sanctions.

(g) *Practice of adolescents.* — The pupils may apply their knowledge of law and order by forming a class constitution and by framing a series of by-laws for class use. Such laws should be formulated by some committee, given to the class for consideration, and then discussed and voted upon. In addition to the more definite legal rights of person, freedom, and property, others may be incorporated.

(h) *Induction of 'law.'* — The formation of the general notion of law should follow such specific training and instruction as relates to juridical conduct. It should go hand in hand with the development of the specific kinds of conduct, with the use of approval and disapproval, and with the means of government, training, and instruction used. I place 'law' at the beginning simply for purposes of logical convenience. But a notion of it can be formed only after considerable experience in a number of particular cases.

2. Development of respect for rights. — In the school the rights which should receive special consideration are (1) those of property, of personal safety, and of personal liberty, (2) those of contract, and (3) those of immunity from fraud. The first mentioned in the order given usually claim most of the teacher's attention.

(a) *Examples of rights.* — The property of other pupils and of the school should be respected. Common offences are pilfering, taking loose material, appropriating pencils, knives, etc., which may be lying about, etc.

Each pupil has the right to free and unobstructed passage to and from school. Common violations of this right are malicious beating, destruction of clothes or books, and the like. The right to personal liberty should not be infringed.

Outside of the school the property of others should be respected. Thus, stoops, barrels, fruit-stands, gardens, grass-plots, yards, etc., should not be damaged or misused. The persons of passers-by, of pedlers, truck-drivers, etc., should be similarly respected. Such acts as calling names, stoning, etc., should not be tolerated.

In the development of respect for rights, the teacher should have in mind (1) the appreciation by a pupil of his own rights, and (2) his respect for the rights of others. I shall first consider such development in the case of preadolescents.

(b) *Right of property of children.* — The four means of general development may be applied in developing in children a respect for their own rights.

(1) *Government and training.* — The individual seat, the book marked with the child's name, pens, rulers, etc., similarly marked, individual places for clothing, etc., will tend to make the child look upon such things as his for the time at least. Special care shown by the child in looking after his things should receive approval.

(2) *Instruction.* — With younger children instruction may be simply a presentation of the rights of property which children have. This may be enforced by a further reference to the local means of city government by which rights of property are protected.

In his conduct towards the children the teacher should scrupulously respect the right of property. He should return confiscated articles. He should also protect the pupils in this right. Rigid investigation and prompt disapproval should follow any infringement of this right even if the infringement has occurred outside of the school.

(3) *Practice.* — Younger children should be held rigidly responsible for such things as are placed in their charge.

Not only should they receive approval for showing appreciation for the right of ownership and possession, but they should be sharply disapproved if they allow infringement by other pupils. A pupil should not allow his neighbor to misuse his ruler, pencil, etc., or encroach on his desk space or closet room. This should also be impressed upon him in instruction.

(c) *Right of personal safety and liberty of children.* — The pupil should be led to appreciate his right of personal safety and liberty.

(1) *Government.* — Orderly entrance and dismissal will minimise such abuses as tend to destroy respect for safety or freedom. If pushing, breaking through lines, etc., are overlooked, the repeated contact and rough handling of the pupils by one another can result in only a weakened respect for such rights.

(2) *Training.* — If the teacher trains the children in habits of personal cleanliness and neatness, the general respect for the exterior will form a part of self-respect as a whole. A boy who has his hair neatly brushed and his shoes well polished will resent more readily the actions of another in stepping on his shoes or mussing his hair than will one who is unkempt and slovenly shod. Habits of standing erect, of speaking slowly and clearly, etc., will also tend to impress the child with a notion of himself as such.

(3) *Instruction.* — Instruction in the rights of personal safety and freedom may be correlated with instruction in history, biography, current events, local government, etc. The similarity between the rights emphasised in such historical or other instruction and the personal rights of the children should be shown. Tales may be told, or some story or relevant incident related.

(4) *Practice*. — The teacher should carefully guard the rights of the children both in their contact with one another and in his contact with them. A child who is used to indiscriminate shaking and mauling can hardly have a proper appreciation of his own rights of personal safety and freedom. So, too, malicious teasing and bullying of the smaller by the larger pupils should be vigorously investigated and suppressed.

(d) *Right of property of others in the school*. — Appreciation for his own rights and respect for the rights of others should be developed side by side within the pupil.

(1) *Government*. — If supplies are carefully piled and arranged, if closets are locked, if no loose material is lying about, the children will tend to look upon such supplies as belonging to some one, as having a certain value. A child who would not think of taking paper from a well-kept closet will not hesitate to pick it from a window-sill or desk. Children should not be tempted by the loose display of material. Supplies should be carefully and systematically distributed. Receipts should be obtained for the more durable supplies, as books, instruments, and the like.

(2) *Training*. — Habits of order and neatness should be insisted on. Children should bring their own material so that they will not have to borrow. They should put their things in order and out of sight so that their neighbors will not be tempted. They should not be allowed to borrow from their neighbors. If the teacher is forced to lend pen or pencil, he should charge it to the pupil by some mark.

(3) *Instruction*. — Children should be told the evils of infringement of the right of property. Such evils are loss of respect and social position, social disapproval and

punishment, etc. Stories may be told of the advantages accruing to individuals who have shown honesty.

(4) *Practice*. — Any action which shows respect for the right of property, as return of articles found, repair of objects damaged, restoration of things destroyed, etc., should be privately approved and publicly commended. The teacher should inspect the desks, books, etc., to see that they are not marked. He should also investigate complaints made by pupils and should exert pressure to bring about the return of borrowed articles or compensation for objects lost or destroyed.

(e) *Right of personal safety and liberty of others in the school*. — The four means, of government, training, instruction, and practice, should be used in developing this right.

(1) *Government*. — Orderly entrance and dismissal should be enforced. Yards and stairs should be controlled by adolescent monitors. Preadolescents do not make good monitors, as they lack judgment and self-control. In the yard children should form on line only immediately before going up.

(2) *Training*. — Habits of orderly procedure in the distribution of material, etc., will lessen opportunities for personal friction and so indirectly aid in the development of respect for the rights of person. The simpler forms of conventional social usage, as 'Please,' and 'Thank you,' will tend to create a more harmonious spirit among the pupils and lessen conflict and infringement.

(3) *Instruction*. — The value of human life may be shown in instruction by narration of tales of daring in which lives are lost and sacrifices made for the safety and well-being of others. History, literature, and accounts of current events afford numerous illustrations. In addition,

personal exhortation, friendly talks, and a rigid insistence on the importance of these rights should show to the children their value.

(4) *Practice*. — The teacher should encourage respectful treatment by the children of one another by his own consideration for them. Children are extremely susceptible to the influence of kindly treatment and readily act towards one another as the teacher acts towards them. Whenever opportunity occurs, the children should be induced to conduct themselves properly in specific situations. They should be urged to do or say the thing required according to the proper standards and ideals.

(f) *Rights of person and property of others outside of the school*. — In this connection the teacher can do little more than exhort and command. His personal influence should be strong enough to act on the children when they are out of his immediate control. Numerous occasions will arise in which these rights may be emphasised. Such occasions are a fall of snow, the finding of lost articles, application for membership to a library, complaints made by people in the neighborhood of the school, and the like.

More specific action can be taken in correction of offences. The arrest of offences is an indirect way of creating respect for rights. Means of such arrest are indicated below. It should be noted here that in such arrest there should be a positive emphasis upon the sanctity of the right violated.

(g) *Adolescents versus preadolescents*. — With adolescents the teacher should emphasise the importance of rights in a more rational manner. He should consider the rights of contract and of immunity from fraud in addition to the rights of person and property. As with preadolescents he should consider (1) the respect of the pupil for his own rights, and (2) respect for the rights of others.

(1) *Government*. — Similar means of government should be employed to those used with preadolescents. Individual control of material, etc., individual responsibility, etc., should be demanded. Orderly entrance and dismissal, systematic distribution of supplies, etc., should likewise be insisted upon.

(2) *Training*. — What has been said of training with respect to preadolescents applies also to adolescents with such differences in method, however, as have already been suggested.

(3) *Instruction*. — In instruction more advanced treatment of legal rights may be taken up. They may be discussed in topical order, one at a time. Comparisons may be made between conduct in the classroom, conduct at large, and conduct as described in literature and history. Greek and Roman rights, Teutonic, English, and colonial rights, rights under the different governments, etc., may be discussed with the pupils. The various rights may be defined, explained, and illustrated in typewritten form. A system of rights may be hung up on a bulletin board for reference.

(4) *Practice*. — Mock trials with jury of children may be held. Social conduct and school conduct, however, should not be carried into such a juridical sphere. The teacher should regulate his actions according to the general laws which he may enforce on the pupils. He should exert pressure on pupils to compel them to keep promises made, restore property, fulfil contracts, and the like.

In conduct outside of the school the teacher can do little more than suggest, exhort, explain, and illustrate the reason for some course of action. His personal influence should be used to control the actions of the pupils outside of the school. The mere fact that he shows interest

in the conduct of the pupils when they are out of his immediate control will tend to make the children less reckless in their behavior.

Directions for development of respect for rights can be only general, since the rights themselves are more or less general. When offences are committed more specific action can be taken, for the offence is usually restricted to some particular act.

3. **Arrest of wrongs.** — In practice the most common wrongs in school are infringements on the right of property and person. The wrongs which I shall discuss are (1) pilfering and theft, (2) destruction of clothes, books, property, etc., (3) personal violence, as intentional pushing, striking, etc., (4) gambling, and (5) general nuisance.

(a) *Pilfering in the school.* — One of the most elusive and annoying occurrences in the classroom is the constant disappearance of small articles. Knives, pencils, boxes, etc., lying on the desk may disappear, and at times a hat or pair of gloves may not be found. Should there come in continual complaints that small objects can not be found, that they were left on the desk and are not there, etc., the teacher should take measures to stop the pilfering which is probably responsible for the disappearance of the different articles.

He should first insist on means of prevention. He should see that all private property is marked, scratched, or cut in some manner for identification. It should also be put out of sight either in the desk or in the pocket. Closets should be kept locked and no loose material should be left about unnecessarily. He should then take some time in showing to the children the nature of the act. He should emphasise its meanness and illegal nature. He should throw the matter before the class, make it a ques-

tion of interest to every one, and ask for the prompt report of any offender. He should seek to induce restitution. He should interrogate the injured pupil and others and should sharply question any who may be suspected. He should keep watch himself.

The aim of the teacher should be to arouse such a class interest in the matter and to raise such a commotion that any one who is guilty will be filled with an inhibiting unrest. He should persist in his efforts and keep the offence fresh in the minds of the children till there is no longer any need for his actions. But he should remember that once an article has been taken the chances of its recovery are very small, and that if the child himself can not protect his property still less can the teacher with fifty or more children to look after.

A few cautions are necessary. The teacher should under no circumstances cause a boy to be searched, though he may threaten to do so. He should make sure that the wrong has been committed before he takes any action. He should never upbraid the class for such a wrong nor mistrust the children because of a wrong for which only one or two may be responsible.

With adolescents there should be a less dogmatic insistence on what is said and a more free and open discussion of the offence in question. A committee may be formed to aid in suppressing the wrong. Vigorous action will usually result in its disappearance.

If a child is caught in the act of appropriating an object, or if he confesses or is proven guilty, he should be compelled to make restitution. If he is a preadolescent, he should have the nature of his offence forcibly impressed upon him; he should be cautioned against a repetition of the act; he should be placed on parole, and be required to

give an account of himself at the end of each week or of some stated period. After several such reports he should be lectured and let go. If the offender is an adolescent, more vigorous measures should be taken. He should be strongly censured. He may be temporarily suspended from class work. He may, in addition, be reported to the principal and to his parents. He may, if the act calls for it, be warned that future repetition of his offence will be brought before the notice of the police. First offences, however, should be more leniently dealt with.

(b) *Pilfering outside of the school.* — Should the wrong be committed outside of the school, similar steps should be taken by the teacher. In addition, he may quietly have pupils pass the place in question, remain in the neighborhood for a short time after dismissals, and keep a watch for offenders. If necessary, he should inform the pupils that he will notify the police. A letter to the nearest police station should be sent if school measures prove ineffectual.

(c) *Theft.* — Pilfering is really theft. But sometimes the value of the stolen property stamps the act as one on a *par* with those committed by criminals. Thus, the teacher's pocketbook may be stolen, closets may be forced open, or coats may be taken. In such a case a rigid investigation should take place. Every child near the place of the theft on the day of its occurrence should be privately questioned. A watch should be kept for children who spend money lavishly or who act suspiciously. Other measures similar to those in the case of pilfering should be taken. Prevention, however, is the best safeguard. No teacher should tempt pupils or rouse their cupidity by a display of money or jewelry, nor should anything of value be left without guard, or outside of lock and key.

(d) *Destruction of property in the school.* — Such a wrong is easily detected. Inspection will show when a child has cut or marked his desk, injured his books, etc. If pupils are warned beforehand, and if periodic inspections are made, little injury to school property will be done. Any offending pupil should be compelled to supply a new book for the one he has spoiled, restore injured property to its original condition, and the like.

If a pupil wantonly throws about the hat or coat of another, or maliciously tears or marks his clothing, he should be strongly censured. For a time he should be isolated from the other pupils at entrance and dismissal, and during the day. If the offence is a serious one, his parents should be notified. He may be compelled to make restitution of the injured property. Persistent repetition of the offence should be met by persistent disapproval.

(e) *Destruction of property outside of the school.* — This offence may assume the form of breaking fences or railings, tearing up shrubs or breaking tree branches, breaking windows, overturning boxes, barrels, etc. The simplest way to prevent this is to have some of the pupils remain in the vicinity of the storm centers. A vigorous and earnest talk to the pupils should be given and an appeal to their pride and decency should be made. The effect of the wrong on the injured person should be pointed out. Offenders should be disapproved and cautioned against a repetition of the offence. The teacher may unobtrusively patrol the neighborhood. If necessary, he should write to the police.

(f) *Personal violence in the school.* — Personal violence should be vigorously prosecuted by the teacher. He should get the offenders before him and sharply lecture

them. The teacher should denounce the offence before the class and call for cooperation in suppressing the wrong. He may isolate the offenders, report them to the principal or to their parents, or temporarily suspend them from class work. He should warn them that police interference will be asked if necessary. Should the wrong be committed in the presence of the teacher and in spite of his commands, he should not hesitate forcibly to seize the offenders and throw them to one side. This is not corporal punishment, but a species of self-help sanctioned by law.

(g) *Personal violence outside of the school.* — Violence towards passers-by or pedlers by stoning, calling names, etc., should be treated in a similar manner. A patrol should be established in the neighborhood as a means of prevention. The teacher may stay on guard or he may notify the police.

In arresting the wrongs mentioned, the teacher should be more dictatorial with preadolescents than with adolescents. Adolescents may be reasoned with, they may respond to appeal and expostulation. Failure to respond should then be treated as an offence without further plea or command.

(h) *Gambling.* — The forms of gambling most common are 'shooting crap' and matching or playing pennies. Other forms of gambling may be throwing dice for money, and betting. At the first indications of gambling the teacher should begin a crusade against it. The nature of the wrong should be explained. The kinds of associations which are connected with the offence, the class of people who usually participate in it, etc., should be strongly set forth. The neighborhood should be patrolled by pupils and at times by the teacher. Offenders should be severely

disapproved. Their parents should be notified. They should be placed on parole and required to report on their conduct each week or so for several weeks. Persistent gambling which takes place out of the teacher's reach should be reported to the police.

Such games as involve the keeping of objects won, as 'marbles,' 'pictures,' or 'buttons,' should not be classed with games of chance. They require some skill on the part of the player, and are a training in eye and hand adjustments. They also are a means of developing social control.

(i) *Nuisance.* — Most common forms of nuisance are congregation before dwellings or stores, boisterous play, uncouth noises, and the like. Younger children should be sharply instructed in their manner of conduct when out of the school. Older boys may be simply cautioned. The nature of the wrong should be explained. A patrol may pass in the neighborhood to prevent commission of the wrong. The teacher may at times pass by and look after matters. Earnest talks are often effective in preventing further nuisance. Offenders should be disapproved.

(j) *Police aid.* — In juridical wrongs outside of the school the police are often used by the public as a means of suppressing offences. The school should not hesitate to follow the public in this connection. Many cases of violation of rights justify police interference. Police co-operation can not fail to strengthen the authority of the teacher. The police should be notified, however, only if the offence is one beyond school control and within the juridical sphere.

(k) *Public wrongs.* — The more serious public wrongs should be discussed with older pupils in a few lessons. The basis of discussion should be some current account of

some historical or literary narrative involving one of the public wrongs. If on rare occasions a pupil goes astray, he should be taken outside and privately instructed. The consequences of his act should be shown to him. His parents should be notified and the matter talked over with them. The pupil should be asked to report his conduct at regular intervals for several weeks. He should, however, be treated in a kindly and encouraging manner.

(l) *Indirect aids.* — Outings, school games, class receptions, library, etc., are some of the means by which the child's activity may be directed into proper channels. Anything, too, which will tend to bring the teacher and the children more closely together will help in fixing social habits hostile to illegal action. Thus, 'crap-shooting' may be combated by checker clubs, ball games, and the like, public nuisance by outings, athletics, nature clubs, and so on. The different kinds of social conduct discussed below are also an aid in substituting right action for offensive behavior.

(m) *Duty of the teacher.* — So long as the child is a member of the class it should be the duty of the teacher to look after him, whether he is in or out of his immediate control. A teacher will not hesitate to give the children a deadening dose of home work and to hold them strictly responsible for it. In this case he carries his authority within the home itself. He should not consider it too much to hold the children responsible for their conduct at least up to the home. He need not assume the duties of the parents. But at least he should cooperate with them. Because of his close contact with the children he has opportunities of finding out much of which the parents are often ignorant. If he has any influence over the children, he should not fail to make use of it.

§ II. SOCIAL CONDUCT

1. **Development of the notion of duty.** — A child has rights as soon as he enters the school, but moral responsibility is something which requires patient development. A teacher may feel discouraged if, after all his efforts, after his many acts of kindness and help, the children show a lack of response, break down utterly when put to the test of duty. This is all that can be expected. Children fail to see any connection between the service which is rendered to them and that which can reasonably be expected of them in return. Responsibility in such cases must be definitely pointed out and developed.

(a) *Government and training of preadolescents.* — Before attempting anything directly in the way of developing within children the notion of duty, the teacher should try to create a bond of sympathy between himself and the children. This may require several weeks. He should then gradually suggest that certain things be done, that certain actions take place, on the ground that they are right and ought to be done.

The children should be asked to bring leaves, specimens, etc., they should be asked to keep desks and floor clean, to behave properly before visitors, and the like. Should the pupils fail to respond they should be called to task. The teacher should emphasise what he is doing for them and what they should do in return. By assuming an offended air, he may impress children with the significance of their lack of response and with the necessity of returning service which ought to be rendered. Pupils who respond should be publicly commended.

Special actions which show response should be approved. A child who does something not called for by routine

regulations should be approved. His work or the object which he has brought should be exhibited. Attention should be called to the rectitude of his action. So, too, self-sacrifice for the social good or social service of any kind should be strongly commended.

(b) *Instruction of preadolescents.* — The teacher should plainly tell the children the general nature of duty and what is expected of them as right by way of response. Legends, tales, historical narratives, and the like will be helpful in bringing out the nature of duty, of the necessity of doing things because they ought to be done, because they are right.

(c) *Practice of preadolescents.* — The teacher should seek to encourage realisation of the moral judgment in children. If shown that an action is right, the teacher should insist on its performance. The child may be asked to decide between two or more actions on the ground of their rectitude. The right one should then be done. The child may also be asked to point out the moving reason for an action as told in a story. The oughtness of the act should be emphasised.

(d) *Government and training of adolescents.* — With adolescents a more rigid method of procedure should be followed. The test of response should be the regular class work and conduct in the school, especially when the pupils are not directly under the teacher's control. Should the pupils show themselves lax in response the teacher should quietly call their attention to the reciprocal nature of social intercourse, and the necessity of returning service because it ought to be done. He should show indignation and express disapproval. He may sharply call some of the pupils to account. Any active response should receive warm commendation and approval.

(e) *Instruction of adolescents.* — The nature of duty should be definitely presented. Specific instances taken from daily life should be used to give a filling for such discussion. Literature, history, and biography may be employed for a similar purpose. More systematic exposition is possible with older children. The nature of social service, of duty, of obligation, etc., may be shown. The exchange of values in business may be used to explain the higher ethical exchanges. The value of good name, honor, and the like should be set forth. The social means of enforcing the performance of duty and of punishing neglect may be pointed out.

(f) *Practice of adolescents.* — The grounds of the rectitude of an action should be analysed by the children. The judgments, 'It is right,' and 'It ought to be done,' should be closely associated. Concrete instances of such association can be found in literature, history, and biography. Pupils should be induced to act on the judgment, 'It is right,' as soon as they have been shown its validity. In many acts necessitated by classroom procedure this will be possible. It seems needless to add that the same rule should apply to the teacher. If he is shown that some action of his is wrong, he should perform the right one, even if he has to reverse a previous judgment. This sometimes will happen in the marking of papers, statements of fact, and the like.

2. **Development of duties to the self.** — The duties to the self to be developed are those of (1) the material self, (2) the physical self, and (3) the spiritual self. Of the duties to the material self I shall consider (1) the careful handling of objects, (2) the care and preservation of objects, (3) economy in the use of objects, and (4) serviceable contact with objects, or work.

(a) *Careful handling of objects.* — A child can learn to handle objects properly only by handling them under guidance. The teacher should explain how an object is to be handled in general. He should then place something before himself, look at it carefully without touching it, and finally touch it lightly or lift it on the palm of his hand. He should then allow the children to touch or manipulate objects. Substantial objects should at first be used. Books, papers, school materials, twigs, leaves, etc., may be passed among the pupils for this purpose. The first attempts of the children may call for sharp correction. They usually seize things too violently, crush them, injure them, and then start to express regret. The teacher should insist that objects on the desk or window-sill should be looked at first and handled only with permission.

(b) *Care and preservation of objects.* — When property is placed in the possession of children, a short talk should precede such a transfer. Books should be covered, loose pages should be pasted in, and the material should be returned in as good a condition as that in which it was at the beginning. Desks should show no signs of marking or cutting. Periodic inspections should be made by the teacher to enforce his directions in this connection. From time to time the teacher should instruct children in means of preserving other objects, as tools, wood, etc. Protection should be afforded to objects by oil, paint, cover, or what not.

(c) *Economy in the use of objects.* — A good beginning in the development of economy should be made with school supplies. Half a sheet of paper should be given if a whole sheet is too large, and the children should be held rigidly to a carefully estimated allowance of paper, clay, wood, etc. The pupil should be given as much material as he needs for

legitimate practice or further attempts, but each time he receives fresh material it should be only so much as is needed for the work to be done. The teacher should carry his instruction to other fields. He should emphasise the necessity of keeping material till it is no longer fit for use. *Poor Richard's Almanac* is full of pertinent advice.

(d) *Serviceable contact with objects or work.* — The gospel of work should be preached and practised at all times. Each lesson should be looked upon as a piece of work to be done no matter how many attempts are needed. An arithmetic or a drawing paper, for example, is not something which is to be filled with marks, but something which is simply a means for the performance of a task. If the first attempt is not successful, the work should be done over till it is. Half a dozen or more attempts may be necessary. To insure economy, small practice sheets may be first distributed.

The teacher should point out the fact that preliminary efforts are not wasted. The gain is seen in the increased facility and efficiency in later attempts. The continual working over of a problem till it is more or less satisfactory should be encouraged by public commendation and exhibition of work. Such work as dusting closet tops, etc., may at times be suggested.

The teacher should be a model whom the children can follow. His instruction in the dignity of labor should be emphasised by his own manipulation of objects. He might have some of his work on exhibition as a copy for the children to follow. It should be impressed on children that the idleness of cultured ease and leisured elegance is of precisely the same kind as that shown by the tramp and vagabond.

Of the duties to the physical self those which should be

developed are (1) care of the sense organs, (2) care of the health, (3) physical exercise, and (4) cleanliness.

(e) *Care of the sense organs.* — The sight and hearing of the children should be tested by the teacher on the first day. Defective vision or hearing should be noted, the afflicted child should be told where to go for treatment, and his parents should be notified.

The structure of the sense organs should be explained to older children. The kind of light to be used should be set forth. For reading purposes, a table lamp should be used having an opaque shade or reflector, and giving a light of from fifty to one hundred candle power. The usual gas-light above the head of the person reading puts too great a strain on the eyes and is not strong enough for reading purposes. At parents' meetings this fact should be set forth, and in the classroom the children should be asked what kind of lighting is in use at home, and should be urged to provide adequate lighting or do their written work by daylight.

Care of the other sense organs may be considered as an aspect of general bodily cleanliness considered below. Parents should be cautioned against injuring the ear-drum by pulling a child's ear or boxing it. Defects in hearing should be provided for by proper seating.

(f) *Care of the health.* — Care of the health involves food, clothing, and shelter.

(1) *Food.* — The teacher should explain the food values of the more common foods and the food requirements of a healthy body. The difference in food preparations should be shown, as difference between fresh and canned goods, adulterated and pure foods, etc. Parents may receive instruction at parents' meetings. The physiological process of nutrition should be set forth by diagram, object-

lesson, lecture, etc. The action of the stomach, intestines, heart, liver, etc., should be explained.

(2) *Clothing*. — Children and parents should be told of the evils of remaining in wet clothing and of standing in drafts when heated or perspiring. The necessity of changing wet stockings and damp underclothes should be impressed. Specific instances often arise in which an overheated child may be told what not to do. He should not be allowed to cool off by an open window.

(3) *Shelter*. — The most the teacher can do here is to illustrate means of ventilation and heating, and insist on the necessity of fresh air at all times. Parents should receive instruction if necessary.

(g) *Exercise*. — The habit of exercise should be started in the school by drills and exercises. Athletics and games should be organised. Tramps and outings may be taken once a month or so. The school authorities should give the teacher at least one full day a month for this. Groups of boys should be encouraged to go on fishing, nature study, or similar excursions.

(h) *Cleanliness*. — The teacher should cultivate cleanliness of (1) the body, (2) the clothes, and (3) the general surroundings.

(1) *The body*. — A younger child should be told directly to wash his hands, comb his hair, etc. He should, if necessary, be placed before a basin and soap dish and told what to do. An older pupil may be reached by suggestion or private interview. Neatness and care should receive approval and public commendation.

By associating with the children the teacher will find that many of the children will tend more carefully to personal matters. A boy who may be satisfied to remain a sloven with the room's distance between himself and the teacher

will lose some of his complacency if he comes into closer contact with him.

Care of the teeth should receive special consideration. The use of tooth powder should be urged. The structure of the teeth should be shown by drawing and objective illustration. Preadolescent children may be told directly to clean their teeth. Older children should be instructed privately to the same effect. A general talk to the class may be effective.

(2) *Clothing*. — Children who have coats with buttons off, seams open, dirt spots prominent, or who have unshined shoes, should be taken to one side and informed of such facts. Their parents should, if necessary, be notified. The rapport which exists between the teacher and the children will determine to a great extent how far suggestion and instruction can go.

(3) *Surroundings*. — Neat surroundings should receive approval. Well-kept books should be shown to the children as a model. If a child makes a litter or has an untidy desk, he should be asked to remain to clean up. If his book is marked, he should be compelled to erase the marks. Talks, illustrations, reference to business, etc., should be enforced by periodic inspections.

The teacher himself should set a good example. He should not be foppish. But his clothes and general appearance should be quiet, neat, and well-kept. His desk, closets, and classroom should be tidy and should show a certain appreciation of wholesome and artistic decoration.

Of the duties to the spiritual self which should be considered are (1) the development and perfection of such mental ability as is possessed, (2) the formation of habits of correct thinking, and (3) the cultivation of conventional and formal expression.

(i) *Self-improvement.* — The teacher should impress upon children the importance of continued study after they leave school. The lives of successful merchants, inventors, builders, mechanics, statesmen, etc., should be presented to illustrate the need of continued effort. The teacher should suggest places where the pupils can go after they leave school to perfect themselves in business, in mechanical pursuits, and the like. By study, it should be noted, is not meant 'book' study, but practice and application in whatever line the pupil may be interested. In addition, the children should be encouraged to follow such side pursuits as will later be of service in keeping them out of mischief. A taste for reading, a talent for construction in wood or iron, skill in sewing, etc., may be developed while the child is still at school. Efforts along these lines should be publicly commended, and any work done by the children in this connection should be exhibited.

(j) *Correct thinking.* — The child should be led to state clearly the aspects of some object or action which he has observed. If he omits features or gives a vague description, the teacher should reconstruct the object or action according to the description given, so as to show its inaccuracy. Children usually omit essential features or combine them indiscriminately with more trivial aspects. A child, for example, will tell glibly of John Smith and Pocahontas, or will narrate how Washington stood on a hill while the snow was falling, or how Alfred let the pancakes burn, but will seem unable to connect these characters with more basic events.

Children should be taught to read a paragraph and give the topic. The position of the topic sentence should be pointed out. A number of paragraphs should be so treated

and the topic sentences combined into sequential form. The children should be led to study in this manner.

In objective work the topic corresponds to a clear statement of the principle, law, or formula which a series of experiments exemplify. I would give this caution. Any inference can not be induced after a single experiment. A series of experiments or an intensive study of a single experiment should be made before any inference is called for. Moreover, such experiment and study should be made by the pupils themselves. Lessons neatly written which indicate an inference after each experiment are usually a humbug. Inferences do not come to light with such readiness.

Pupils should be urged to wait before forming a decided judgment, and to delay expression of such judgment. To enforce such delay the teacher should not call for written explanations, etc., till an intensive study and a thorough discussion in the classroom have necessitated cogitation.

(*k*) *Expression*. — Independent, clear, and distinct expression should be a feature of every recitation. The pupil should be required (1) to stand erect, (2) to give in full a description, illustration, explanation, definition, or what not, and (3) to take his seat. There should be no pumping process nor spiritual prodding with questions. The teacher should simply give the question or topic and then quietly listen. No child should be allowed to begin his recitation in the act of rising, nor should he be allowed to lean against the desk or slouch in any manner.

Forms of written expression, as outline of topics, graphic outline, colored illustration, etc., should be encouraged. Thus, a poem may be illustrated in color or a plan of battle mapped out in clay. Exhibition of such work will encourage further effort. All subjects should be expressed at

times in composition form. A paragraph may be written on some topic in history, geography, literature, drawing, or what not. The pupils should be led to outline their work in topics and subtopics. Oral expansion of such topics will aid the written expansion.

Conventional forms of social expression should become habits with the children. They should be told to say 'Please,' 'Thank you,' and the like. Moreover, the teacher should preface his requests with a 'Please,' and should acknowledge service with a 'Thank you.' Barbarisms, solecisms, improprieties, slang, and the patois of the street should be corrected as soon as uttered. If the teacher associates with the children, he will have a greater opportunity of influencing them in their expression and in making corrections.

3. Development of duties to others. — Of the duties to others are (1) the conventional duties, and (2) the more social and ethical duties. The former include (1) purely formal duties, and (2) acts of good breeding. The latter include among others (1) courtesy and consideration, (2) toleration, (3) respect, reverence, and humility, (4) truthfulness, honesty, and fairness, (5) respect for the self of another, (6) obedience, (7) self-reliance, and social service.

(a) *Formal duties.* — The teacher should be the center from which may radiate the best influences. He should set the proper models in his intercourse with children. Even if he is addressing a five-year-old child he should say, 'Please,' 'Thank you,' 'Good afternoon,' and the like. Should children fail to use the proper forms of expression, they should be checked with a simple, 'Please,' or, 'You should say, Please.' Young children who persistently fail to respond should be sharply disapproved. Older

pupils may be given a private lecture. General suggestion and explanation to the class as a whole may prove effective.

(b) *Breeding*. — Good breeding in the class should likewise be based on the conduct of the teacher. He should not jeer at the pupils, nor roughly contradict them, nor interrupt them save on such occasions as good pedagogy demands, nor should he enter into arguments of a personal nature with the children. During the recitation he should insist on the right of each pupil, when speaking, to continue without interruption. He should disapprove at once any sarcastic laughter, interruption by the raising of hands, and the like. Children who speak out of their turn may be marked down, disapproved, or not allowed to recite for the rest of the lesson.

In talking with the children after sessions in a more friendly manner the teacher will find that the children will desire to speak all at once. He should ignore those who break in on a conversation between himself and some pupil, and continue as if he did not hear the interruption. A young child may be disapproved and the necessities of good breeding explained to him. Older pupils should be privately instructed. They usually follow suggestions when rationally presented. Matters may be explained to the class as a whole.

(c) *Courtesy*. — Courtesy and consideration should be insisted on during dismissals, in the distribution of material, in passing through lines, etc. The class should be instructed by short talks, admonitions, and discussions. Games, outings, social gatherings, etc., afford opportunities for the exercise of courtesy towards others. The teacher himself should treat the children with the consideration which he wishes to develop in them.

(d) *Toleration*. — Toleration for the actions of others

and for minor failings, errors, or peculiarities requires a similar treatment. The teacher should overlook slight faults, or at the most call the child's attention to them and suggest betterment. Children should be disapproved if they show scorn for others because of race, creed, or color. Attempts at persecution should be vigorously suppressed. Outings, games, social gatherings, etc., will do much to round off any rough corners and ease social contact.

Instruction will aid in developing toleration. Typical instances of unnecessary persecution or lack of toleration should be given and comparisons made with present conditions, good and bad. Often a lack of toleration in one form is shunned in people who may practise it in another. History affords numerous illustrations of the baneful effects of a lack of toleration. Appreciative study of the more humane aspects of fiction is helpful, especially if comparisons are made with existing conditions. Extensive reading of standard fiction will broaden one's views and give them a wider application. Such illustrations should be used to induce children to look at both sides of a question.

(e) *Reverence.* — Respect, reverence, and humility before situations of true worth may be developed by bringing the pupils into contact with such situations from time to time. The art gallery, the historic monument, the classic play, etc., may be visited. National holidays, lives of men of achievement, masterpieces of fiction, great inventions, current events worthy of note, should be properly explained and appreciated. The teacher should prepare for such occasions by lecture and should point out the aspects of true worth contained in the situation in question. Outward expression of respect should be shown by dignified silence, short reception, appreciative study, or what not.

The beauties of nature should be assimilated by actual

contact with them, good poetry and music should be heard and appreciated, and in the classroom, any acts worthy of admiration should be held before the children and publicly commended. The hard fibers of arrogance and self-sufficiency should be softened by bringing the children into contact with the sources of sweetness and light.

(f) *Truthfulness*. — In developing truthfulness and honesty the teacher should use positive rather than negative means. He should show a trust and a faith in the children which will tend to engender self-respect within the pupils themselves. He should develop sympathy and confidence between the children and himself. He should enter into the lives of the pupils, so that he may better appreciate and interpret their actions.

Younger children should be given as little opportunity as possible to lie or act dishonestly. Should a child be suspected, he should be privately interrogated in a kindly manner. So long as the teacher has no proof one way or the other, he should take the child's word. He should not try to browbeat the child, though his questioning on that account need not be any the less rigid. Stories should be narrated illustrating truthfulness and honesty. Short talks should emphasise the same thing. Some incident in the classroom, a current event, or an historical event may be used as a basis.

With adolescents a similar policy should be pursued. Interrogation, caution, and advice should be of private nature. The explanation of the pupils should always receive careful attention.

In his own actions the teacher himself should be open and fair. This implies that no bias be shown in marking or rating pupils, that anything he does can stand the test of publicity, etc. Pupils should be encouraged to offer suggestions

and criticisms if necessary. Excessive impositions of home work should not be given, as they encourage evasion and duplicity.

Fairness among children may be encouraged in games, in the marking of one another's papers, and in such activities as require the cooperation of several pupils. The teacher should investigate infringements of rights, and should take the part of the pupil who may be wronged. Private exhortation, advice, suggestion, and a rigid fairness in his own conduct towards the children may be necessary.

(g) *Respect for the self of another.* — Orderly entrance and dismissals, systematic distribution of supplies, effective supervision of the children when they are together, as in the yard or gymnasium, will lessen possibilities of conflict. Training in breeding will facilitate social intercourse. Pupils who show consideration for others should receive approval.

In instruction, the manner of conduct to be followed towards others should be explained. Incidents which occur on public conveyances, in halls, etc., may be used as illustrations to enforce the necessity of acting towards others properly. Courtesy should be shown to aliens and social inferiors. This consideration should be practised by the teacher in the classroom. The development of courtesy, as above suggested, will aid in the enforcement of respect for others.

(h) *Obedience.* — The social duty of obedience refers rather to obedience to truth, right, and duty. Obedience to command is a phase of school conduct which is taken up below.

If a child hesitates to do a thing, the action in question should be tested by the judgment, 'It is true or right.' If it is so, and if the child can be led to see so, then he

should go straight ahead and do what truth and rectitude demand. Older pupils may be reasoned with. Younger pupils may be required to perform such acts by the authority of the teacher. Such acts as the return of found articles, restitution of lost articles, etc., may be tested by the moral judgment and enforced, if necessary, by the teacher.

With younger children the triumph of right and truth may be presented in myth, legend, tale, or story. Older pupils may be shown the workings of truth and right in history, biography, and literature. Proverbs, dogmatic moral laws, etc., should be forcibly expressed. Discussion of the social sanctions of right and duty, of the advantages accruing to the individual, etc., will be effective with older children.

The teacher himself should obey right and truth, even when presented by a little child. A mistake in marking a paper, an error in judgment, disapproval given by mistake, etc., should be rectified as soon as attention is called to it.

(i) *Self-reliance*. — Self-reliance is conditioned to a great extent by the original talent, capacity, and vitality, of the pupil. Physical condition, health, nationality, home training, etc., — all may facilitate or arrest the development of self-reliance. But some improvement can be effected in the school.

Expressions of self-reliance will tend to give the pupil some feeling of it. Gymnasium work, correct habits of standing and speaking, an erect and free manner of walking and marching will help the pupil to look upon himself as a personality apart from others. Free movements in physical exercise, easy stride in running, free posture in speaking, and the like, give the child the feel of muscles and a body which are his.

History, biography, and literature should be employed to present in vivid fashion the lives and work of self-reliant men and women. The teacher should point out the difference between quiet, unassuming, but effective and independent work, and the blatant, loud-mouthed, and useless bluster of inefficiency and conceit. Fairy tales, fables, and stories will be useful in the case of younger children.

(j) *Social service.* — Social service should be encouraged by suggesting work, pictures, contributions of any kind for class use. Any work offered should be commended and exhibited. Service in the line of patrol, correction of papers, cooperation at receptions, etc., should receive recognition and approval.

Accounts should be given of important acts of social service, and of the lives of men who have achieved results. Among others, the work of noted inventors, business men, mechanics, etc., may be referred to. With older pupils the nature of social service may be analysed and discussed.

Development of duties should proceed side by side with the arrest of offences. Many instances of the development of duty are possibly best after the arrest of some offence. So, too, the development of some duty may be an indirect means of arresting an offence. One should not be considered without the other.

4. **Arrest of offences against the self.** — From the social point of view, offences against the material self are (1) rough and careless handling of objects, (2) failure to preserve and protect objects, (3) unnecessary waste or misuse of objects, and (4) idleness or laziness.

(a) *Careless handling of objects.* — A child who grasps an object roughly should be at once reprovved. The teacher should show him how to take up the object and induce him to try again. An older child may be cautioned and shown

how properly to proceed. Constant vigilance is necessary, for children will be found instinctively to offend again and again.

(b) *Neglect of objects.* — A pupil who is careless in looking after his things should be reproved. The nature of his duty should be pointed out. He may be detained to give him an opportunity of cleaning, repairing, or what not. Persistent disapproval may be necessary to arrest the offence. Objects may be temporarily taken out of the child's control.

(c) *Waste or misuse of objects.* — Waste may be corrected by letting the pupil suffer the consequences of it. He may be required to suffer a loss in marks. He may, in addition, be disapproved. He may be refused more material. Waste, however, should not be confused with added material which the pupil wishes for further attempts to perfect his work.

(d) *Laziness.* — Few children will be found idle or lazy if the teacher has work well prepared and adequate material at hand. If, however, a pupil is found who tries to shirk work in all the subjects, manual and abstract, he may be taken aside and urged to do better work. He may be detained to make up work which he has left unfinished. He may be placed with a group which is working on some common object and which will exercise some pressure on any delinquent member. A little extra prodding may be effective. He may be rapidly called on a number of times, asked to explain a problem, to show his work, to repeat a question, etc. He may be given some special work for which he is to be held responsible. If he happens to do something worth mentioning, the teacher should approve him, exhibit the work, and urge him to continue.

The teacher should not, however, confuse laziness with

ill-health, indisposition, or the sluggishness which is usually manifest in the early years of adolescence. He should find out whether or not the child's energies are sapped by work before or after school. He should be satisfied so long as the child shows proficiency in some of the subjects, whether these be the natural sciences, the three *R*'s, or manual work.

Development of duties to the physical self usually results in an arrest of offences against the physical self. Specific instances, however, often require special treatment. Such are (1) neglect of the sense organs, (2) neglect of the health, (3) lack of exercise or excess of play, and (4) filth, dirt, or a lack of cleanliness.

(e) *Neglect of the sense organs.* — Pupils with weak eyes should be given front seats. If their eyes seem to be neglected, their parents should be notified. Remedies may be suggested by the teacher, or consultation with an oculist advised. A similar method should be pursued in the case of defective hearing.

(f) *Neglect of the health.* — The children should be cautioned against an indiscriminate consumption of colored or adulterated candies, cakes, and drinks. The action of acids, coloring matter, etc., on the stomach should be explained. Individual children should be spoken to from time to time. Their parents may be notified.

Smoking, if present, is usually confined to a few boys. Vigorous action should be taken against them. They should be privately lectured. The evils of vice should be explained to them. The teacher should throw his personal influence against the habit. The cheap bravado underlying the act should be set forth. If necessary, the offender should be segregated from the other pupils, and his parents should be notified. He may be persistently detained for a week or more.

Both children and parents should be instructed in their duties with reference to food, clothing, and shelter. Food values, the preparation of food, and the poisonous nature of colored and adulterated foods should be shown. The necessity of keeping the body dry, of changing wet or moist clothing, and of keeping the head and abdomen covered, should be impressed. The proper means of ventilation and heating, and the kinds of poisonous gases given off by gas or oil stoves should be explained.

(g) *Lack of exercise.* — Children should be given opportunity to go on outings, to take part in athletic meets, to participate in gymnasium drills, and the like. Children should be urged to learn how to swim, and should be instructed in swimming if possible. Vigorous games, as baseball, basket-ball, running, jumping, etc., should be encouraged. The teacher should form one or more class teams and go with the children to open grounds or fields. Under supervision, boxing and wrestling should be allowed. Checker clubs, etc., may be formed. Younger children may be allowed to play and romp about in a less systematic manner. Excess of such play as 'buttons,' 'pictures,' etc., should be arrested by means suggested in the preceding paragraph. In addition, the teacher should talk to the children, show the passivity of such plays, and urge more vigorous play.

(h) *Lack of cleanliness.* — Arrest of a lack of cleanliness is usually effected by positive efforts to develop cleanliness. Negative measures may at times be necessary. The dirty child who fails to respond to positive measures should be conducted to a dressing-room and given soap and a towel. Younger children who have unclean teeth should be taken to one side and told directly to clean them. Older pupils may be reached by talks to the class and by direct sugges-

tion. A pupil who makes a litter or who soils property should be required to clean it, after sessions if necessary. He should be disapproved. He may be required to replace an article if he has defaced it too greatly.

As regards the spiritual self, much of what has been suggested for the development of duties is effective in arresting offences. A few further suggestions may be necessary.

(i) *Self-neglect*. — Children should be steeped in the best that has been thought and done. Common offences are reading of trashy literature, visiting cheap shows, and loafing.

Children who are attracted to the 'dime library' should be told to read Stevenson, Scott, Poe, Kipling, Cooper, and similar authors. Parts of interesting stories should be read, as the account of the fight in the roundhouse in Stevenson's *Kidnapped*. In addition, the 'dime library' should be analysed by the teacher and parts of it read with burlesque effect. Good-natured banter may be directed against the boys who read it. Personal suggestion and advice may be helpful.

Children show a strong propensity to visit cheap variety shows, melodrama, 'penny arcades,' and the like. They do so because they are attracted by the gaudy posters and the blare of music heard from without. Often they know no better, and follow the example of ignorant elders. The teacher should analyse such shows and should point out the general character of the people who frequent them. He should suggest standard plays, and should let the children know when they are being given. The children may not be able to go, but such instruction may be remembered when the child is older. He may suggest things which the children can buy with the money they spend in this manner, as skates, gloves, etc. He may form outing parties and bring the children into contact with better things.

Loafing should be ridiculed by pointing out the condition of the professional tramp and by contrasting with it the position of the man who works. Positive instruction on means of self-improvement, as suggested above, will be effective. Children should be urged to do something in a special line when they leave school.

(j) *Loose thinking.* — Children tend to give exaggerated, distorted, or inaccurate statements. They will express themselves in general terms which may fit a number of situations. They will jump at conclusions or will accept conclusions which they have heard or read.

When such is the case, the teacher should assume the position of one who knows nothing of what the child is trying to define, illustrate, or explain. This will compel the child to be more specific and accurate in his statements. He should be required to give his description, etc., in terms of objects in the room or in terms of quantitative measurements. He may be asked to verify what he has said. The teacher may show the indefiniteness of the child's explanation by doing exactly what the child says. He should apply the child's statement to some concrete situation, and should analyse it to show its inconsistency and vagueness.

(k) *Slovenly expression.* — Incorrect English should be corrected as soon as it is uttered, and the child should be required to give the correct expression. Phonic drills may be necessary. The teacher may have to show the child how to shape his mouth, where to put his tongue, etc. He should associate with them, talk freely with them after sessions, and use his personal influence to enforce his corrections. He should himself cultivate clean and distinct expression.

5. **Arrest of offences against others.** — As in the discussion of the development of the social duties, I shall first

consider the more formal offences and then the more social and ethical ones.

(a) *Formal offences.* — A child who fails to say 'Please,' or 'Thank you,' should be corrected in a kindly manner with the expression which he should have used. Permission to his request may be withheld till he complies. A younger child may be reprov'd, an older one may have the matter explained to him. The teacher may hold aloof from the child for a time, till the child has learned the proper forms of address.

(b) *Lack of breeding.* — An offender who shows lack of breeding may be ignored or disapproved. He should be given a private lecture, with positive instructions in the correct method of procedure. Positive development, as suggested above for the cultivation of breeding, may be effective.

Cursing and swearing are extreme forms of a lack of breeding. In the lower grades the teacher should correct unconscious cursing or swearing with the statement, 'It is wrong.' By associating freely with the children he can impress them with his own manner of expression. He should look offended when the child uses improper expressions, and show by his attitude that he feels disappointed in the child. He should give the class talks on the impropriety of using improper language. If necessary, parents should be instructed in the nature of the offence.

Older pupils should be corrected in a similar manner. Explanation and discussion of the offence may take place. A study of models as found in standard writers will be found helpful. The teacher himself should persistently use clean English.

Usually cursing and swearing, if existent, go on outside of the teacher's hearing. In such case the children are

aware of the nature of the offence. The teacher should express surprise should he hear of it. The child may be privately interrogated, advised, and cautioned. With older children the matter should be discussed in a more rational manner. The pupil may be mildly reproved. If necessary, he may be segregated and his parents may be notified.

(c) *Discourtesy*. — A younger pupil who shows roughness, insolence, and a general lack of consideration, should be sharply reproved. He should be told how to conduct himself towards others. He may be temporarily isolated. The teacher may hold aloof from him. To older pupils the matter may be gravely explained. They may be excluded from games, entertainments, and the like. Persistent discourtesy should meet with persistent disapproval.

(d) *Lack of toleration*. — If a child insists on carrying out his own ideas, if he arbitrarily tries to force his opinions on others, if he insists on others conforming to a standard of his own, the same treatment should be applied to him. He should be held rigidly to the smallest requirements, even though others are given considerable leeway. No excuses should be accepted from him for any of his failings. In addition, he may be disapproved for his want of charity. He may be prevented from entering games, social gatherings, etc., and may if necessary be isolated. The reasons for such disapproval should be made clear to him.

(e) *Irreverence*. — Pupils may, due to ignorance or thoughtlessness, show disrespect when in the presence of true worth. The nature of the situation should be explained to them. In such explanations the teacher should take the proper attitude of seriousness and respect. Younger children who offend should be sharply corrected. With older boys a remonstrance may be effective. They

should be told plainly what to do and how to conduct themselves. Wide reading, constant contact with situations of worth, and intercourse with others will aid in developing bases of appreciation of what is good and true.

(f) *Lying and dishonesty.* — Before making a systematic attempt to combat lying, the teacher should develop sympathy and confidence between himself and the children. He should then openly condemn the offence and show his contempt for it by attitude and expression. If he feels, but is not certain, that some of the children are accustomed to tell lies, he should act as if he believed them. As soon as he has sufficient facts with which to confront them, he should privately interrogate them in a rigid though kindly manner. He should try to lead the child to acknowledge his offence. He should point out the harmful nature of lying. He may reprove the child. He may withhold his confidence for a while.

With older children, private interrogation and advice are often effective. If the child persistently lies, the teacher may pretend to disbelieve him in matters in which benefit might accrue to the pupil. He should then set forth the advantages of a good reputation, and the necessity of trust and faith in social intercourse. Public harangues against the offence will be effective.

A few cautions are necessary. The teacher should not browbeat the child. His questioning should be rigid but not brutal. If he has no positive proof of the child's guilt, he should believe him. His purpose is to educate the child, not to convict him. He should fill the children with a certain amount of self-respect by treating them with respect.

Dishonesty and lying usually go together. The forms of dishonesty which fall within the sphere of juridical con-

duct have been already discussed. Cheating is a form of school misbehavior and is treated in a following section. Other forms of dishonesty should be corrected by private advice, caution, reproof, and suggestion.

(g) *Disrespect for the self of another.* — Such disregard is manifested by teasing, personal violence, petty persecution, etc. It should be checked by sharp disapproval. The offender should be cautioned against the offence. He may be isolated from the others, detained, suspended for the time from participation in games, etc., and temporarily excluded from class work. If he has injured property of another, restitution should be enforced.

If the offence has been committed outside of the school, the offenders should be brought before the teacher and sharply reproved. They may be placed on parole. A temporary patrol may be established to prevent a repetition of the offence. The offence should be vigorously denounced before the class, and the active cooperation of the children asked in suppressing it. This offence has many connections with some of the juridical wrongs above mentioned.

(h) *Disobedience.* — In younger children, disobedience to truth, hesitancy to do what is right, half-hearted acquiescence to just demands, should be sternly reproved. The child should not be allowed to do anything else till he has obeyed. With older pupils explanation and remonstrance may be effective. The teacher should not allow persistent offenders to participate in social gatherings, nor should he allow them to do anything else till they respond. What they miss in lessons should then be counted against them. Illustrations may be taken from history and literature to show the advantages which are derived by individuals who follow right, truth, and justice. Personal appeal will

have weight when the children have confidence in and respect for the teacher.

(i) *Lack of self-reliance.* — Timidity in speech and action should be encouraged by kindly suggestion and advice, and by the presentation of good models. The child should be urged to try again. Private drills in the manner of standing and speaking should be given. The pupil should be protected from interference by laughter, jeers, etc.

When the pupil offends rather from carelessness than from shyness, he should be supported and urged by more vigorous measures. He should be told what to do. If he does not respond, he should be disapproved. If he does not stand in a self-reliant manner, he should lose marks in his recitation.

A lack of dignity may be shown by older pupils. Private advice may aid in correcting this. Dignified action of the teacher towards the pupils will tend to stimulate like action in return. Often the horse-play and buffoonery of adolescents may be ignored. In any later action the teacher may remonstrate with the children and mildly disapprove them. Athletics, games, etc., are helpful in affording a means by which the pupils can expend some of their energy in a way beneficial to themselves. Friendly advice should be given from time to time.

(j) *Selfishness.* — If a child tends to disregard his social obligations he should be debarred from enjoying privileges which the community as a whole has to offer. He may be sent home when a social gathering, etc., is being organised. Work which he has done for selfish ends should receive no recognition by approval, exhibition, or what not. It may be strongly disapproved. With such treatment should go friendly advice, explanation of the nature of social service, and the like.

§ III. SCHOOL CONDUCT

1. **Development of good behavior in the classroom.** — The development of school conduct in the classroom is conditioned by (1) the material, (2) the other pupils, and (3) the teacher and the recitation.

(a) *Towards the material.* — As soon as a new class enters the room it should receive instruction on the care of books, furniture, and the like. Such material should be inspected, the desks at least once a week, the books at least once a month. At the least sign of a mark or scratch the child should be asked to explain it. No pupil should be allowed to stand on unprotected seat or desk top, nor should the teacher himself do so. Pupils may be asked once or twice a term to give the desks a rub with an oiled cloth.

It may be held as almost axiomatic that when a classroom is clean and well decorated, pupils feel less tempted to mark or deface school property. Especially is this so if a portion of the decorations consists of work done by the children. On this account the teacher should strive to make the children feel that the condition of the room is in part a result of their efforts. They should be asked to give aid in arranging and hanging pictures, placing statues, and the like. Samples of their work should be exhibited on the classroom walls. The teacher should refer to the room as 'our' room, and should call the attention of the children to special pieces of decoration of class work as soon as they are exhibited.

(b) *Towards other pupils.* — In the classroom pupils should not unnecessarily bother their neighbors and should rely upon themselves. Individual seats, supplies, etc., will facilitate such a condition of self-reliance. The children

should be required to bring their own pencils, rubbers, rulers, etc., so that they will not have to annoy their neighbors. The teacher should give such material out in the morning, if necessary. Pupils having a full equipment should be publicly commended. Pupils should be cautioned against disturbing their neighbors when they pass through the aisles.

(c) *Towards the teacher.* — The behavior of the children towards the teacher is shown in their general attitude, their obedience, and their punctuality.

(1) *Attitude.* — While the teacher is explaining, the pupils may reasonably be expected to sit in a comfortable position, with heads facing front. To insure such a position in the children, the teacher should have his work carefully planned, and should be passably interesting. Aids to facilitate such an attitude in the children are a two-minute drill with windows open, interpolation of relevant story, change of lesson, questions rapidly put to offenders, objective illustration, and full control of some material by the pupils. All the suggestions given in connection with effective instruction are here involved.

(2) *Obedience.* — Children should give cheerful and willing obedience. The teacher should first secure the child's sympathy and confidence. Younger children should be told what to do in a matter-of-fact way. Immediate response should not always be demanded. At first, simple things should be required, so that the children may be gradually initiated into habits of ready response.

Adolescent pupils should be requested rather than commanded. The response should on that account be none the less willing. Some explanation of the request may at times be given. The reciprocal nature of social service and response may be discussed with older children. The sug-

gestions given above in connection with the development of the notions of law and duty can be applied here.

(3) *Punctuality*. — The teacher should try to make the classroom as attractive as possible. The room should be decorated. The teacher should associate freely with the children before sessions. He should commend such pupils as come early.

At the same time there should be personal appeals to the class from time to time. Stories may be told illustrating the need of punctuality in business. Pupils who are lax may be given some slight commissions which require early arrival, as distribution of material. The boards should be covered with explanations and work which will be of aid to those coming early.

The teacher should so plan his work that the children feel that they are moving each day. If a boy who is absent comes and finds the same things under discussion, he will hardly feel that he has lost much by his absence. Something new in at least one subject should be given each day.

Preadolescent children may be stimulated by artificial means of approval, as gold star, credits, etc., given for regular attendance. Older pupils will respond to social approval, as public commendation and the conferring of privileges.

A daily record of the attendance of the pupils should be taken each day. The teacher should also let the pupils know that such a record is being kept. The monthly report given to the child should indicate the number of days he was present during the month.

When a pupil reports for part of the morning and requests permission to go home before the end of the session, his wish should be granted. If the teacher trusts the pupil, he need not require a note. In such a case the pupil should bring

a note the next day, or the teacher should send a card the same day. A supply of postal cards should be on hand for this purpose.

Side by side with the development of good behavior in the classroom should go the arrest of bad behavior as manifested in specific acts of misconduct. Such arrest is treated fully in a section below.

2. Development of good behavior outside of the classroom. — For the behavior of the children outside of the classroom the principal in the main is responsible. If he sees that the yards are kept in good condition, if he has systematic dismissals, if he has developed a school spirit, if he cooperates with the teachers, the effect of his control will be seen in the response of the children.

The teacher should give aid in this connection. He should carefully explain to the children how they should enter and depart. He should do his share in supervising the larger gatherings of boys on the street or in the yard. He should exhort his own pupils to behave, should approve good behavior outside of the classroom, and disapprove bad behavior. The conduct of the children in general will be correspondent with the spirit and the manner of conduct which the teacher has developed inside of the classroom.

3. Arrest of bad behavior in the classroom. — Bad behavior in the classroom is conditioned by (1) the material, (2) the other children, and (3) the teacher.

(a) *Towards the material.* — Misuse of school material is best arrested by preventive measures. The teacher should periodically inspect the books and school desks. If he sees a scratch or stain, he should call the pupil sharply to account and compel him to remove the mark, or oil or varnish the scratch. The pupil may even be required to sandpaper the desk. Prevention of such small offences

will often stop actions which will result in total destruction of property. If a child uses the desk as a ladder, he should place a piece of cardboard over the top. If the pupils have a lesson in whittling, they should cut on loose boards at least half an inch thick.

If the child fills his ink-well with paper, he may be compelled to use such ink and be marked down in his lessons. He should be detained so that he can clean the well. If he misuses his pen, he should be required to furnish a new one. If he is unable to do his work because of the lack of material due to his waste, he should receive fresh material after sessions. In addition, he should be disapproved, and he should suffer a loss of marks in lessons.

A pupil who makes a litter should be detained so that he may remove it. In addition, he should be disapproved. The teacher should exhort the class at times to be careful in this connection.

If books are strapped too tightly, the pupil should be required to unstrap them. In addition, the pupil should then be required to show the inside of his books. If he uses his books as traveling cases for loose paper, pencils, etc., he should be disapproved, and the effect on the binding should be pointed out to him. Constant vigilance and inspection are necessary.

(b) *Towards other pupils.* — Pupils who annoy others, as by pushing or intentional teasing, should be promptly disapproved. For first offences a warning may be sufficient. For a repetition of the offence the pupil should be sharply censured, detained, isolated, or, if necessary, temporarily suspended from class work. The teacher should be as persistent in his disapproval as the child is in his offence.

(c) *Towards the teacher.* — The kinds of misbehavior which affect the teacher more or less directly may occur

(1) in the recitation, (2) in personal contact with the teacher, (3) or in general school control. In the first case we usually find whispering, copying, cheating, wriggling, chewing, playing, noise, and answering out of turn.

(1) *Whispering*. — The great bane of the teacher's school life is the whispering or the talking of the pupils during sessions. Though it causes considerable annoyance to the teacher, from the moral point of view it is a trivial offence.

Preventive measures are more effective than suppressive. The teacher should approve work wherever he can. He should suffer as few lapses as possible in the course of instruction. He should not stir unnecessary commotion by diverging into personal comment, by lecturing pupils on the necessity of being good, or by creating hilarious mirth. He may be fairly sure of a quiet day if he fills the boards with work before the children arrive, arranges material and supplies, and has a full day's work prepared. In addition, he may assume a more reserved and quiet manner than usual, and participate less freely in intercourse with the pupils.

If a child whispers or talks, he should be cautioned with a look or slight tap. If he persists, several taps should be given. If he still persists, he should be marked. If he continues to whisper, he should be marked again. Excessive repetition of the offence will justify removal to another seat, isolation, exclusion from class work, detention after sessions, loss in marks because of inability to answer due to whispering, and written tasks to make up any loss incurred because of his whispering. Such written work should be a legitimate aid to the memory, and not the usual 'I must not talk,' etc.

(2) *Copying*. — Children who work together can not fail

to be influenced one by the other. Unconsciously the child will change his answer, look over his work, etc., if he sees that his neighbor has a different answer. The teacher calls it copying, and may consider it a heinous offence. As a matter of fact, it is what we all do more or less. The moral significance which the teacher attaches to the offence does not exist for the child.

The teacher should warn pupils against copying. He should mark with blue or other pencil the paper of a pupil who offends. He should require pupils to cover their work as soon as it is finished. If necessary, pupils should be numbered and given different work. In such a case the reasons for the numbering should be given. The teacher does not distrust the children. He wishes to protect and benefit them. Pupils should be shown the folly of letting others copy their work. Illustration of legal protection of work, as by copyright, patent, etc., may be given. The teacher should impress the fact that pupils really harm themselves by copying. He should appeal to their pride and sense of self-respect.

(3) *Cheating*. — Deliberate cheating should be summarily dealt with. If a pupil takes out a book or paper and tries to use it, his paper should be torn up. He should then be required to pass a severer test after sessions. He may in addition be given an oral quiz. He may have to suffer a loss in marks by being rated at a lower basis. No pupil should be held over another term, however, for the offence. He should be required to do additional work and may be placed on parole, but detention in the same grade for a full term is somewhat too severe. Children have not the moral development to appreciate the significance of their actions, and lack the self-control which can be expected rather in adults.

(4) *Wriggling*. — Squirring, wriggling, turning round, etc., may be corrected by giving the pupils a two-minute drill with open windows, by letting them march, by giving them a recess, and the like. Individuals who show restlessness may be given some manual work to do, as cleaning the board, getting water, giving out supplies, etc. The teacher should take wriggling, etc., as a good sign that he is becoming a bore. He should change the lesson, tell a story, insert a relevant joke, or let the children do more of the work. In specific cases, a tap, a look, a mark, may be sufficient to warn a pupil that he should not turn his head. A persistent offender should be placed in a rear seat, where his actions will not influence the others.

(5) *Chewing*. — A child who chews should be required to eject the source of his activity. Good-natured banter may be effective.

(6) *Playing*. — Playing under the desk may be checked by removing the stimulating object, as ruler, toy, pencil, or what not. In addition, the child may be marked or censured. Detention may be effective. Older boys should be cautioned by a look or a tap. A child who plays may be made to suffer a loss in marks due to his inability to answer. Any articles taken by the teacher should be returned. This will tend to prevent conflict when the teacher asks for them. If the children are allowed to do most of the work, playing will not be so much in evidence.

(7) *Noise*. — Noise is sometimes made by drumming or tapping on the desk. The teacher should give the offender a sharp glance. He may mark him or censure him. The stimulating object should be taken. A pupil who walks noisily should be cautioned. The teacher should show him how to proceed, and should insist on a repetition of the

action in a proper way. The teacher should preserve a calm, quiet manner and should not excite noises by his own.

(8) *Answering out of turn.* — A child who answers out of turn or who becomes overanxious to attract attention to himself should be cautioned. If he persists, he should be marked. He may, in addition, be refused permission to recite during the rest of the lesson. He may, on the other hand, be called on when he does not expect it. Older pupils may be cautioned in a friendly lecture or discussion.

In his direct contact with the teacher the child may show impudence, sulks, refusal to obey, or open defiance.

(9) *Impudence.* — Prevention often is effective in arresting impudence or back talk. If the teacher treats the children with courtesy and consideration, they will not be impelled to answer back. Personalities, sarcasms, etc., are usually provocative of sharp rejoinder on the part of the children.

Impudence, however, may occur even under such conditions. The teacher may reprove the child and in a quiet manner show him the uncalled-for nature of the offence. He may emphatically and indignantly censure the child on the spot. He may say nothing at the time, but after sessions ask the child to explain his actions. The teacher should not enter into a squabble with the child. He may consider that the child has broken social relations by his actions, and may refuse to recognise him for the rest of the lesson or the rest of the day. He may ignore him after sessions and exclude him from games, entertainments, etc. A dignified and quiet manner is usually the most effective one in such a case.

(10) *Sulks.* — If a child sulks or becomes sullen, the teacher should make no immediate attempts to drive him or force him to act a certain way. While the child has the

fit, he is really in a pathological state of mind. The teacher may pass to the side of the child and ask quietly what the matter is. He may let the child sulk out his fit. He may let him go downstairs to get a drink of water, clean the board-rubbers, etc. When the child is again in a normal condition, the teacher should quietly interrogate him and try to get at the bottom of the trouble. It is to be noted that attempts to force a child when he is in an angry state usually result in the application of corporal punishment, which makes matters only worse.

(11) *Refusal to obey.* — Refusal to obey may be a part of the general emotional disturbance manifested by sulks, sullen obstinacy, and the like. In such a case it should be treated in much the same way. Any work left neglected should be given to the child when his fit is over or after sessions. The teacher should quietly interrogate the child, show him the nature of his offence, and express a willingness to help the child, if necessary. No immediate action need be taken, and in fact should not be taken if the child is in an angry mood. When, however, he is again in a normal state, he should be induced to perform the act which at first he refused to do.

Cool, impudent, and intentional disobedience is a different and a more serious matter. It should be treated in much the same manner as that suggested for impudence. The teacher should look surprised and ask the pupil to explain himself. He may quietly ask the child if he knows what he is doing. He may quietly tell the pupil that he need do none of the remaining subject of the session. He may consider that the pupil's refusal is equivalent to inability to answer, and mark him a cipher. Without comment he may let the boy have his way, ask him to remain when the others go, and interrogate him, ask him to reconsider his action,

and show a willingness to do what he can to facilitate right action in the pupil. As in the case of impudence, the teacher may consider that the child has severed social relations, and may ignore him as suggested.

The teacher should not attempt direct control in such cases. If a child really intends to disobey, nothing can make him change his mind if he does not wish to. The Christian martyrs, the Hebrew victims of persecution, the Jesuits who braved Indian tortures, the Protestant reformers, and others, are instances enforcing this truth. A child may writhe with mental distress and suffer exquisite physical pain, and still refuse to comply with a request. Self-motivation should be aimed at by the teacher, not external suppression. Indirect, not direct, control should be the means.

A few further suggestions may be helpful. The teacher should carefully feel his way before asking too much of the children. At first, simple or commonplace things should be required. Increase in school work should not be made too suddenly. Special work should not be given without preliminary explanations. Reasonable excuses should always be accepted.

(12) *Open defiance.* — This offence is usually preceded by signs of the coming storm. There is usually a preliminary struggle, argument, or verbal contest before a child openly defies the teacher and refuses to obey. The teacher should therefore avoid contests with the children and should refer them to some other time, as after sessions.

Should an outbreak occur, however, the teacher should proceed in the manner suggested above for cases of refusal to obey. Good-natured banter or a joke at the offender's expense may be effective. A change of the subject is useful. The matter may be dropped for the time with the caution

that it is not yet settled. Further measures may be taken, as suggested above.

Offences which affect the teacher and the class are lateness, absence, truancy, and leaving the room.

(13) *Lateness.* — A child who comes late may be disappointed with a look and allowed to take his seat. He may be interrogated after sessions. An old offender should be censured as soon as he enters. In addition, he may be asked to explain why he came late. He may be required to stand to one side till the teacher has finished his exposition or lesson. He may lose marks in the lesson which he has interrupted. He may be detained after sessions. His parents may be asked to cooperate.

In addition, the teacher should make the room attractive. He should have work and suggestions on the board which are to be erased at the first bell. He should take a kindly interest in the children and exhort them to punctuality.

(14) *Absence.* — When a child is absent, a note or postal card should be sent to his parents at the close of the session. When the child comes, he should be interrogated. He should be required to bring an excuse from his parents. If necessary, the law should be appealed to. Positive means should also be used, as suggested in a preceding section.

Punishment usually effects little in such a case, and in fact may lead to truancy. Reasonable absence should pass without comment. No child should be sacrificed for high percentages, or for some banner or what not. If his parents are ill, if he himself shows a pallor or looks sick, he should, in fact, be sent home and told to stay there till he is well.

(15) *Truancy.* — Continued and widespread truancy in a class may usually be charged to some deficiency in the teacher. He may be dull, apathetic, careless, indifferent, vicious, spiteful, or what not. As a result, the children

naturally prefer the freedom of the streets to the agony of classroom confinement. Corporal punishment, insistence on abstract subjects, barren routine, heavy impositions of home work, will result in truancy.

A boy who is caught playing truant should be rigidly questioned. He should be induced to tell how he spent his time, who his companions were, etc. He should be mildly reproved. He should be allowed to resume his work in the classroom without further comment. His parents should be notified. They may be asked to sign a book each day which certifies that the child has been in school. The child should be required to put forth extra effort to make up for the work which he has lost. The teacher should strengthen the child's good resolutions by taking a friendly interest in him, by offering aid in his lessons, by inquiring about his work or play out of school, and the like.

A pupil who has planned to play truant and who has tried to lead others astray should be rigorously censured. His parents should be immediately notified or called for. He should be isolated for a time from other pupils. He may be placed on parole for the rest of the term and asked to report his conduct each week. At the same time the nature of his offence should be forcibly indicated to him. Personal interest may be shown in his work, as suggested above.

(16) *Leaving the room.* — Preventive measures will be effective in lessening this offence. Drafts should be avoided and windows should, if necessary, be opened at the top. Children should be urged to have their jackets closed during cold weather. They should also receive instruction in food values and in the action of foods on the bowels. Running water or a filled water-cooler should be in the room, especially in the summer, and if necessary during the whole year.

Persistent offenders should be detained after sessions.

Their parents may be notified and asked to have the children examined. General exhortations will be effective. A child may lose marks in the lesson which he is neglecting by his temporary absence. He may be required to leave the room as soon as he enters in the morning.

To prevent insidious practices in the yards or toilets, some reliable boy should be sent through them from time to time. The janitor, or his assistants, should be required to make periodical inspections, and the principal himself should pass through the boys' yard and send a matron or female assistant to do the same in the girls' yard. No pupils should be allowed to leave the room without inscribing their names neatly into a book, with the time of leaving and the time of return. They may be given passes on which they should write name and time, as in the book. Such written records should be kept by the teacher.

4. Arrest of bad behavior outside of the classroom. — Outside of the school, children may conduct themselves improperly in connection with the premises or with one another.

(a) *Towards the premises.* — Patrol by monitors and occasionally by the teacher himself will lessen injury to the fixtures and other school property. Decoration of the halls and tidy appearance will have a similar effect. In addition, the teacher should emphasise the necessity of proper behavior outside of the class and should appeal to the class spirit. Defacement of the school walls, etc., should result in investigation, and interrogation of children who pass by the place in question. An extra watch should be maintained. Offenders should be strongly disapproved, and if necessary, isolated or placed under special watch.

(b) *Towards other pupils.* — Instruction and practice in orderly entrance and dismissal will lessen possibility of

occurrence of offences towards other pupils. The teacher should inform pupils how to enter and depart, and should, if necessary, drill the pupils a few minutes each day in the manner of getting on line and marching. Classroom system and order will aid.

Pupils who show undue desire to get to the front of a line should be detained till one or more lines have passed. If one or more pupils stand out prominently as offenders, they may be isolated and excluded from common entrance with the others.

On the stairs an offender may be detained till one or more lines have passed. Persistent offenders should be sharply reprimanded. They may be reported to the principal. If necessary, they should be detained at the foot of the stairs till all the other pupils have passed. Should a pupil push and struggle in the face of presence and request of the teacher, the teacher should seize him forcibly and throw him to one side. This is self-help and not corporal punishment, as I have already indicated.

Pupils should be instructed in the necessity of gentlemanly and quiet behavior. The dangers of a panic, or even of individual accident, should be pointed out. The principal at times should address the class and exhort proper behavior.

Pupils who make unnecessary noises on the stairs should be sharply censured. They may be detained, isolated, or reported to the principal. If necessary, the teacher should accompany children who may be detained. Ordinary conversation on the stairs, however, should not be classed with such acts of disorder.

Nuisance on the sidewalk, as congregation, boisterous play, etc., may be prevented by a patrol and by the teacher. Personal exhortation and caution will be effective. Conspicuous offenders should be dealt with in the manner sug-

gested above. When the offence threatens to assume a juridical aspect, the measures already suggested in that case should be followed.

§ IV. CLASS SPIRIT

Back of much of the teacher's approval and disapproval, and giving substance and body to his efforts, must exist a certain amount of class spirit. In developing such class spirit the teacher must have a definite aim in mind. Such aim in general may be considered as social cooperation. Teacher and pupils should work together so as to develop harmony, sympathy, and friendship.

Progressive decoration of the room is one means by which cooperation may be realised. During each term some of the decorations should be new, and contributed in part by the children. Room should be left for exhibition of class work and for individual contributions. Whenever a pupil brings anything for this purpose, his work should be shown, publicly commended and exhibited, for a while at least, on the classroom walls. This will stimulate others to do likewise and will allow of selection of the best which is offered. If the teacher ignores the efforts of the child and throws his contribution carelessly aside, he will find the greatest difficulty in inducing others to offer social service.

Class exhibits of work tend to make the children feel the unity of their efforts. Children from other classes may be invited to see the work.

Social movements, as marching, singing, exercises, drills, etc., are effective in welding class consciousness. Singing is also a great aid. Each class should know a number of airs, some patriotic, some classic, some musical, which they can sing fluently.

Cooperation in social gatherings, as games, class teams, receptions, outings, etc., will tend to bind the children more closely together. Even if all the children are unable to participate, the spirit will influence them, and they will be impelled to similar activities when they grow older.

Class organisations, as monitorships, committees, officers, departments, and the like, should be encouraged. Class elections at stated intervals will be found a simple means of stimulating enthusiasm.

Friendly class rivalry may be encouraged. One class may be asked to correct the papers or compositions of another class. Social correspondence between members of two classes may be facilitated by means of the composition. One class may be invited to visit and inspect exhibitions of work of another class.

Class day held at the end of the term will tend to develop a tradition which will be eagerly desired by the members of the incoming class. Preparations for class day will aid in bringing teacher and children more closely together.

Visitation of parents should be encouraged. A child should be allowed to bring his parents after sessions to see the teacher, inspect exhibited or other work, and the like. All parents should be received with consideration.

Some negative suggestions should be observed. The teacher should not nag the pupils. He should not scold a child immoderately for a slight fault, nor persistently call his attention to a fault which has already been disapproved, nor harass nor annoy a child for a single offence which the child may be trying to forget. Nagging, however, is not persistent disapproval for persistent repetition of an offence.

The teacher should not indulge in sarcastic remarks, personalities, or acts of injustice. In such matters the child is the under dog. The teacher should not use his authority

to cover slurring remarks at the expense of the pupil which the child knows he must submit to because he is in the school. The child feels the injustice of such an attitude, and his resentment may break forth in a single outburst of what the teacher may consider insubordination, or it may filter out in small acts of disorder, careless work, or general disregard of requests.

There should be no repression through fear, whether such fear is excited by the personal attitude of the teacher, or by espionage and petty supervision. Social cooperation implies a certain amount of sympathy between teacher and pupils, and considerable activity on the part of the children. In general, the teacher should scrupulously respect the rights of the children. He should conduct himself in the manner usually sanctioned by social custom outside of the school.

Instruction may be called in indirectly to aid in the development of class spirit. If the teacher does most of the talking and allows of little activity on the part of the children, the result will be a general apathy and indifference to class work. Defects in instruction have been pointed out in a preceding chapter and should be guarded against.

Favorable physical conditions should be provided. Children should be comfortably seated, exercise should be given to relieve cramped postures, and the ventilation and warming should be adequate.

In general, any indifference or lack of sympathy shown by the teacher will work against the development of a class spirit. He should take a live interest in his work and in the work of the class, and should neglect nothing which will further the spirit of social cooperation.

§ V. GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

In his use of approval and disapproval the teacher should show patience and persistence. The first signs of anger or lack of self-control usually mark the beginning of disorder and confusion. So long as the teacher's action in disapproving an offence has been effective in the first instance, it is reasonable to suppose that it will be similarly effective upon a repetition of the offence. Therefore patient repetition should be adhered to before stronger disapproval is employed.

Disorder and misconduct should be analysed before positive action is taken. Many cases of disorder may be analysed at a glance. They may be impulsive and may call for nothing further than a caution. Interrogation of the pupil may bring to light adverse conditions of which the teacher was not aware. The sanction of the act should always be considered, and if necessary, development or arrest should begin with the sanction motivating the specific act of the child.

Discipline should be considered of equal value, or of greater value than instruction. A course of conduct should be outlined just as is the regular course of study. Special periods should be devoted to the development of conduct, and lessons should be carefully prepared. Room can be made for such a course by devoting less time to an amplification of the different subjects, and by emphasising the basic features or essential aspects. All the subjects have essential features, and no subject should be considered essential as a whole to the exclusion of other subjects. Minimum rather than maximum requirements should be demanded.

We complain of the conduct of the children in school,

we cry out against their behavior out of school, yet we send them forth like Noah's doves without a light to guide them or a support on which they can rest. The school should do its part in giving the child right ideals, proper habits, and a firm moral basis which will enable him to pass judgment on his actions. The problem is one which can not be ignored.

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