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BOARD OF EDUCATION.

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SPECIAL REPORTS  
ON  
EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.  
VOLUME 18.

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THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF THE FRENCH  
PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER.

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Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.

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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 18  
OF  
SPECIAL REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

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The increased attention which the training of teachers and especially the education and training of elementary school teachers has for some time past been receiving in this country will lend an interest, it is hoped, to the following account of the Education and Training of the French Primary Teacher. His educational history is taken up at the point at which, in common with his fellow pupils who are going into other occupations, he leaves the primary school. The future French primary teacher, whether boy or girl, goes first to the *Ecole Primaire Supérieure* for three years and thence to an *Ecole Normale* for three years usually, if indeed he or she does not begin teaching with the minimum examinational qualification of the *Brevet Élémentaire*. There are two papers in this volume dealing with each of these stages respectively; the first based upon a careful survey of the official regulations governing the particular type of institution, and the second giving an account of the life led in one of them by an English teacher who has spent a year within its walls.

It will be noticed at once that the profession of the teacher in the primary schools of France is completely distinct from that of the teacher in secondary schools. The French democracy has up till now refused to believe it to be in the interests of education that the secondary and primary teachers should form a single profession, though on the other hand the fully qualified Secondary School teacher and the University teacher are both included within a single *corps d'élite* and promotion from the Lycée to the Faculté is the natural ambition of every *professeur* in a secondary school. But though promotion for the French primary teacher is restricted to the system of primary schools of two grades, to the *Ecole Normale* and to the primary inspectorate, the service is a State one with the social status that in France is accorded to the civil servant of whatever rank, with an adequate pension to look forward to and with more than one way in which faithful or distinguished service may receive state recognition.

Another important differentiation of the French method of training from that hitherto adopted in this country is the complete absence of the Pupil-Teacher system. As a consequence of this, the teacher has but very little practical experience of his profession before he enters upon his life's work as a *stagiaire*. A small practising school is always attached to every training college, but the school is generally a single-class one; they are

not always good examples of their kind, and many training colleges make very little use of them. The Ministry of Public Instruction realise the shortcomings of the present system and are endeavouring to improve these schools, to enlarge them, and to encourage students in training to visit the ordinary schools of the neighbourhood frequently. Careful observers have been led to believe that the difficulties of class management in the way of young teachers, which result from their lack of practice and experience, often discourage them unduly and even lead to a dislike for their profession; while not infrequently men and women discover only after they have entered upon their career that they have no real taste for teaching and would be happier in some other occupation. It is at this point that the material advantages offered by the State to the teacher may prove of disadvantage to the community, for the social standing, the rewards offered, and the coming pension, all tend to keep in the ranks people who would, perhaps, be more useful in another walk of life, and who come to look upon the hours in the school-room as deadly drudgery, which indeed they cannot then fail to be for the children no less than for themselves.

A recent movement in France, which has some similarity to happenings in this country and may in part be due to them, deserves passing mention. There are some who urge that the education and training of the primary teacher would be greatly benefited if in its final stages they were entrusted to the University *Faculté* instead of to the *Ecole Normale*. There is at present no suggestion that the future primary teacher should take a degree during his period of training—indeed, such a suggestion would involve either a complete change in the earlier education of the teacher or a revolution in the system by which University degrees are obtained in France. But it is urged that contact with University teaching would widen the primary teacher's outlook and enlarge his interests. On the other hand it is replied that the Universities have no knowledge of the needs of teachers in primary schools and that the aim and purpose of their work would suffer if these students were thrust upon them.

However this may be it is certain that the University professor in France knows even less of the elementary school and its teachers than his brother professor in this country. The discussion is interesting because it shows signs of reaction from the logical simplicity of the present organisation.

In conclusion the Board desire to make it clear that they do not accept responsibility for the opinions expressed by the authors of the following papers.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports,  
September, 1907.

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# CURRICULA OF FRENCH HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

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## CURRICULA OF FRENCH HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

### INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The general aim of the French Higher Primary Schools has been described by Sir R. L. Morant as follows :—

“The ultimate purpose of the French Government in creating a State system for these higher primary schools is to assist the local authorities (by means of substantial central grants for salaries) to establish and maintain out of local rates in every district of the country, public schools with no fees for instruction, which shall place within the reach of every really intelligent child who can afford to postpone wage earning for two or three years after leaving an elementary school the means of obtaining :—

(i.) A continuation and completion of the subjects it has learnt in the elementary schools ;

(ii.) A practical acquaintance with such branches of knowledge literary, scientific, and general, as bear directly on the various occupations in life in some one of which he or she will afterwards be engaged ;

(iii.) Such general hand-and-eye training and workshop practice,\* as will engender habits of manual industry, increase dexterity and develop taste, and at the same time both halve the labours and double the fruits of that necessary apprenticeship (in the true sense of the word) at the workshop, the warehouse, the shop counter, or the counting house, for which it is meant to be not so much an alternative as a preparation.

“Being day, not night schools, and in many cases boarding schools, they are obviously not intended, like the evening continuation schools, for the *great mass* of the rank and file of the working classes, who must have the day hours free for earning wages immediately on leaving the elementary school ; but rather for the *élite* of these ; the more capable intellectually and the better placed pecuniarily—those, in fact, who will become the *foremen* of industry and commerce—those who, if their skill, inventiveness and taste are improved, can do more for the industrial, commercial, and agricultural prosperity of the nation than almost any other class of society.”

Higher primary instruction which is included by law as a part of primary education, is given in higher primary schools proper, and in *cours complémentaires* which are classes with a one year's course attached to and under the same direction as elementary schools. The higher primary school is a separate institution, and has its own director (or directress), but in practice these schools often have an elementary school, or at least a *cours préparatoire*, attached to them, especially in country districts.

The course in higher primary schools lasts at least two years ; the school is said to have a full course if it lasts three years or more.

The schools must have as many separate rooms as there are school years, and in addition, a room for drawing lessons, a gymnasium, and a workshop for manual work (the last named being also obligatory for *cours complémentaires*).

No fees are charged for instruction.

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\* When a thorough technical training, corresponding to a practical apprenticeship, is provided, the schools belong to a different category, and to a different Department, under the title of *écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie*, but “all have a common origin and practically the same local administration and organisation.”

In many cases there is a system of *études surveillées* for day pupils who stay at school beyond the fixed school hours and work under the supervision of the staff. A charge of two or three pounds a year is made for this in most, but not in all schools.

In the larger towns, the municipality generally provides books and other school requisites.

Boarding houses are attached to a number of higher primary schools and *cours complémentaires*. Occasionally the *internat* is managed by the municipality under a salaried *économiste*, or bursar, but generally it is managed by the director of the school at his own profit. The fees for the boarding houses vary from £16 to £30 a year, being generally about £25.

The State provides scholarships and it pays the salaries of the teaching staff, but the commune pays the salaries of teachers and skilled workmen employed in the workshops for technical and manual instruction. The commune is responsible for the maintenance of school buildings, furniture, and apparatus, but the State may make grants in aid of such expenses to the extent of a quarter of the whole outlay, and assists with money loans, and with grants of apparatus. The central grant is only conditioned by a general observance of some one or more of the various alternative programmes of study issued by the Education Department, the efficiency of work being ensured through the Inspectors.

Any commune desirous of founding a higher primary school or a *cours complémentaire* which shall enjoy State aid has to make an undertaking with the Minister of Public Instruction to provide for five years at least the necessary expenses which are incumbent upon the commune. State aid is liable to be withdrawn if the number of pupils in three consecutive years falls below fifteen in each division of a higher primary school, and twelve of a *cours complémentaire*.

Particulars regarding teachers in these schools will be found in Miss Matheson's paper in this volume.

Attached to each higher primary school is a committee of managers (*comité de patronage*), the members of which are appointed by the Education Department on the nomination of the Rectors.\* The director or directress of the school is an *ex officio* member of the committee, as are also the primary inspector,\* the Rector\* and the *Inspecteur d'Académie*;\* ladies must be included in committees attached to girls' schools. The committee which meets at least twice a year is entrusted with the general supervision of the schools, and of all that pertains to their efficiency and the interests of the pupils. It takes the latter under its patronage and endeavours to settle them in suitable occupations at the end of their school course. The pupils holding State scholarships are especially under the care of the committee. It further deals with all matters of school requisites and furniture, and decides on the measures to be taken to adapt the special instruction to the local requirements. For this purpose prominent business men in the locality are nominated on these committees. At each ordinary meeting the committee delegates one or more of its members to visit the school at least once a month and report at the next meeting.

No pupil can be admitted to a higher primary school or to a *cours complémentaire* unless he or she holds the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires* † and has passed a year in the highest standard of an elementary school, or in the case of children educated privately, can prove attainments equivalent

\* A sketch of the administration of education in France, including the functions of educational officers of central and local authorities (Rector, Prefect, *Inspecteur d'Académie*, etc.), is given at the beginning of Mr. Dumville's paper on the French Training College System. (See p. 159 below.)

† This certificate is given upon a uniform yearly public examination upon the subjects taught in the elementary schools. It is open to children from eleven years of age, and exempts the holder from further attendance at school, which is otherwise compulsory till the age of thirteen.

to both of these requirements. There is often also an entrance examination, the standard of which is practically decided by the local authority; in a few of the largest towns, where the number of candidates is greater than the number of vacancies, this examination becomes a competitive examination. The higher primary school is open to all comers without distinction who come up to the prescribed standard of knowledge, and scholars do not necessarily, or indeed generally, come only from the commune to which the school belongs.

Instruction in higher primary schools is given in accordance with the official syllabus. It must be remembered that, as M. Brunel says, "the syllabus of studies has not the same absolute, immutable character as a law. It is merely a guide, a detailed set of suggestions. To follow it in its entirety would always be difficult, often impossible, and sometimes dangerous."

The school is divided into "years" of study. The first year's course is the same for all pupils; specialization begins from the commencement of the second year and may be general (literary),\* commercial, industrial or agricultural. Morals, handwriting, history, civic instruction, physics and chemistry, gymnastics and singing are common to all sections alike, and are taught to both boys and girls in all three years.

There is no fixed syllabus for the *cours complémentaires*. The subjects taught in the highest standard of the primary school are carried further and completed; at the same time subjects from the syllabus of higher primary schools (especially from that of the first year) may be taught. The curriculum of the *cours complémentaire* is thus decided by the director and teachers; it must be submitted to the Primary Inspector and approved by the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. At the end of the school year, pupils who have attended the course may demand to be examined in the subjects studied; the marks gained by successful candidates are then noted on their *certificats d'études primaires élémentaires*.

There is an examination at the end of each term, the results of which are sent to the parents.

Promotions from one "year" or "division" to another take place once in twelve months. For this purpose there is an annual examination, called *examen de passage*, bearing on all the work of the year; any one failing to pass has either to leave or to stay another year in the division in which he has already been working—a case which occurs most often at the end of the first year.

*Scholarships* are given by the State, the Department and the Commune. The State gives scholarships of three kinds:—

- (1) *d'internat* for pupils in schools with boarding houses; the amount is equal to the sum charged to the paying pupils in the particular school, but it cannot exceed 500 francs;
- (2) *d'entretien*, for scholars living at home, varying from 100 to 400 francs;
- (3) *familiales*, for scholars who are boarded out in private families; 500 francs.

The sum set apart for these scholarships in the annual budget of the Minister of Public Instruction varies for each Department, according to population and the number of higher primary schools maintained; it is calculated every five years, following upon the quinquennial census.

The scholarships are conferred by the Prefect of the Department, on the nomination of the *Inspecteur d'Académie*, with the approval of the Departmental Council and subject to the authority of the Minister of Education.

Every year, on the same date for all France, an examination for scholarships is held in the chief town of each Department, before a committee of examiners, appointed in each Department by the Rector. Candidates must be between twelve and fifteen years of age, hold the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires*.

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\* It is from this section that the Training Colleges are largely recruited.

*taires*, have been vaccinated twice, and have a good conduct certificate from the head master (or mistress) of their school. The scholarships are awarded on the results of the examination in order of merit, taking into consideration any services rendered to the State by the parents, and the pecuniary circumstances, size of family and actual needs of the candidate's family. As a rule the successful candidates are placed in schools in the Department where their families reside. The scholarships are tenable for three years, with possible extension to a fourth.

Every year, in July, scholarship holders are examined in the work of the preceding year, by a primary inspector, assisted by members of the school staff. If the pupil is successful, the scholarship is continued for another period of twelve months; if he (or she) fails to satisfy the examiners, the scholarship is forfeited.

Grants for clothing outfits are also made to necessitous candidates up to 300 francs for the first year, and 100 francs for subsequent years.

Scholarship holders may also be given supplementary grants, not exceeding 25 francs a year, for school materials (stationery, drawing instruments, books, etc.).

Scholarship holders under sixteen years of age, who have specially distinguished themselves in their work, may be transferred to secondary schools or colleges, with continuance of their scholarships, but this does not often occur.

*Bourses de séjour à l'étranger* are granted every year to pupils in higher primary schools upon the results of a public competitive examination. Candidates must be between sixteen and eighteen years of age, hold the *certificat d'études primaires supérieures*, and furnish, with other particulars, the assurance that their parents are unable to send them abroad at their own expense. The scholarships set apart for pupils of higher primary schools are given solely to those who intend to follow a commercial or industrial career, the "general" students (most of whom enter the teaching profession) being sufficiently provided for by the travelling scholarships set apart for members of the staff of training colleges. The scholarships are usually tenable for a year, with possibility of extension; they vary in amount for the different countries in which they are held.

It should be added that the regulations governing the higher primary schools of Paris differ in some respects from those in force elsewhere, but a detailed account of them cannot be included in this very brief sketch.

Further information on the points touched upon above may be obtained from Sir R. L. Morant's paper on "The French System of Higher Primary Schools" (Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. 1, 1897), from which the bulk of this outline has been taken, and from Pichard's "*Nouveau Code de l'Instruction Primaire*" (19th edition, 1906. Paris. Hachette).

EDITOR.



By the terms of the *Arrêté* of 13th December, 1901, "the total number of hours of instruction per week may be increased to thirty-six as a maximum, out of which the hours devoted to practical exercises are not to exceed fifteen. In no case may the number of hours in the general teaching course be increased."

These modifications must be approved by the Rector of the Academy, upon the proposal of the headmaster, accompanied by a reasoned Report from the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

The curricula are divided as follows:—

*Part I.*—Curricula of general teaching common to all pupils in their first year, and, from the second year, to all those who do not attend one of the Special Professional Sections, and in part to pupils of these sections (*see* below).

*Part II.*—Curricula of the Professional Sections (page 54.)

## PART I.

### CURRICULA OF GENERAL INSTRUCTION.

#### I.—MORAL INSTRUCTION.

One hour a week in each of the three years for all the sections. This hour is to be, as far as possible, divided into two lessons of half an hour each. This course is, as a rule, to be taken by the Director of the school.

The Director, or failing him, the master placed in charge of moral and civic instruction, is not only a teacher, he must be also an educator. In this subject especially there can be no *teaching* (*enseignement*) without *education* (*éducation*).\*

The *end* to be kept in view is to create and maintain in the pupils a character (*un ensemble de dispositions morales*) that will prepare them for the life which awaits them in the community.

The *methods of action* to be employed are of three kinds:—

Action on the heart, by an appeal to the moral sentiments which have been already developed in the pupils through early cultivation.

Action on the intelligence, by explanation and demonstration of moral truths.

Action on the will, by the practice of morality within the limits of the pupils' experience and of their individual character.

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\* It is impossible in English by mere translation to bring out the contrast of the text.

The following definitions, from the *Dictionnaire général de la langue française* by Hatzfeld and Darmesteter, make the matter clear:—

*Education*.—"The action of forming a child, or a young man, by the development and direction of his physical, moral, and intellectual qualities; and the result of this action."

*Enseigner*.—"To communicate (a science, an art, etc.) to anyone by means of regular lessons."—TA.

There are various kinds of school discipline which correspond to each of these three modes of action, and which tend to produce an effective moral education. To make the pupils *care* for what is good, *understand* what is good, and *wish* to do good will be the object of these three kinds of discipline.

### *I.—Exercises tending to develop the Moral Sense.*

Readings, stories and conversations calculated to awaken and to strengthen in the child the various feelings which favour the development of the moral sense, (e.g., filial love and respect; brotherly love; family love; affection for comrades; gratitude; respect for moral greatness and moral beauty; admiration for virtue, considered particularly as a triumph over selfishness; personal experience of the joys of conscientiousness, and of remorse, independently of outward reward or punishment; contempt for coarseness, for low pleasures, particularly drunkenness; distaste for indecent words or actions; the feeling of honour; loathing of evil; the desire to help the suffering); and in general all those healthy emotions which predispose to good action.

### *II.—Exercises tending to instil into the Mind the Fundamental Ideas of Morality.*

The teaching is not to be drily didactic, but very methodical, and given in the same spirit as the teaching of the elementary primary schools, but in a stricter order, in accordance with the indications of the curriculum given below:

#### First Year.

#### *Principles of Morals.*

(Programme modified by the *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897).

#### First and Second Terms.

1st. *Conscience: intuitive notion of duty. Man's power over himself.*

2nd. *Society and its duties.*

Each pupil is to be made to realise from his own observation and by means of selected examples, the phenomenon of moral consciousness, and shown that he has, as by instinct, the notion of what is good and what is evil; that he has the feeling of the obligation of duty, that he feels himself capable of fulfilling it at the cost of an effort, and that should he refuse to make this effort (through weakness or selfishness, or through the sway of some passion), he has the consciousness of the fault which he has committed, leading to shame, regret, remorse.

These demonstrations, to be conducted most frequently by means of conversations, will lead to the definition and practical affirmation of the ideas of conscience, moral obligation, duty, liberty, responsibility, merit and demerit, and personal dignity. The categorical differences distinguishing the condition of man, and his rule of life, from the fixed and irresistible laws which Nature follows without understanding or power to modify them, are to be pointed out (with simple examples drawn from the phenomena

most familiar to the child, and from those parts of science which he has already been taught). Contrast the animal, endowed with sensibility and instinctive impulses, but without the faculty of improvement, with man, inventing, and constantly improving his works so as to form an accumulated inheritance ; man is master of himself, and a responsible being.

Different types of man—the lazy, the industrious, the imprudent, the temperate, the drunkard, the brave man, the coward ; heroes (examples taken from the history of mankind)—the beauty and the ugliness of these types, and how they should inspire us to emulation or provoke our loathing.

Selfishness and unselfishness ; the distinctive characteristics of moral obligation.

In proportion as the pupil acquires a certain habit of personal reflection, he is to be led to recognise that the individual counts for little by himself, being incomplete and dependent ; that he forms part of a whole ; that his goal is neither the satisfaction of his pride nor of his appetites ; that he owes a debt to his fellow creatures, without whom he would either not exist or he would be other than he is ; whence the notion of *Society*.

The fundamental law of solidarity, the principle of all social organisation, is to be dwelt upon.

In dealing with society, two societies are to be discriminated, the *family* and the *nation* ; the obligations of the individual towards each to be dwelt on.

### Third Term.

*The application of moral theory to the individual self : such elementary applications of moral theory to life as may be understood by an adolescent.*

The teacher is to apply, and more especially to lead the pupil to apply, the principles previously acquired to his own conduct, and to deduce from these principles not alone the general idea of duty, but also the duties proper to various conditions and ages ; duties of the child in the family, in school, in society.

In matters of detail, the most characteristic examples are to be taken from the curricula of the primary schools and those of the Second Year given below.

### Fourth Term.

#### Recapitulation.

#### Second Year.

*Human life and its duties ; man's place in society, in the family, in the nation.*

The notions which have been only briefly dealt with in the course for the First Year are to be developed, as follows :—

(1.) *Society*.—What society is. Man not born to live alone. Society necessary for his safety and for the continuous progress which is the law of his being ; society is his aim, the reason of his existence.

Uncivilized and civilized communities. Distinguishing traits : right substituted for might ; work, common obligations ; abolition of slavery and torture. Man's intellectual fortune assured and completed day by day by means of transmission. Social solidarity in the economic order of things, in the scientific and in the moral. Innate inequality in natural powers. Diversity of functions inevitable.

*Social Justice.*—Respect due to the human person in every position in life ; as a consequence of this obligatory respect, slavery and serfdom recognised as intolerable.

Respect for the honour of others. Defamation and calumny.

Respect for the product of labour. Principles of property, its necessity. Capital and labour. Respect for contracts and promises.

Respect for the beliefs and opinions of each individual. Religious and philosophic liberty. Tolerance.

*Social Brotherhood.*—The moral and social insufficiency of strict justice.

The accidents of birth ; physical and intellectual inequalities ; the chances of education ; the accidents of life.

Public instruction.

Public charity.

Goodness, love of one's neighbour, devotion to others, disinterestedness.

(2) *Family and Private Life.*—The family, a particular *but not exclusive* association within the community. Its function in the social order, to which it is subordinated. Its moral foundation. Its constitution, its members ; the kinds of solidarity which it implies. Respect for woman, the basis of the family in the modern world.

Husband and wife ; parents ; children. Their reciprocal duties. Family feeling and family virtues.

Private virtues ; honesty,\* industry, temperance, courage, thrift, charity (special attention is to be directed to the vice of alcoholism in its relation to the family and to private life).

Social effects of private virtues.

(3) *Nation and Country.*—How our society is also a nation. The idea of nation and of fatherland ; its moral foundation. Solidarity of successive generations. Unity of purpose.

The intellectual and moral characteristics of the nation (*l'esprit national*).

Defence of one's country.—The Army ; compulsory service ; military discipline ; courage.

(4) *The State and its Laws.*—What the State is ; its origin ; its function.

Different forms of State authority..

The Republican form, its principles and its superiority. Created with our consent and modified by our own will, there can be nothing arbitrary in it.

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\* "Honesty," or "straightforwardness," corresponds more nearly in connotation than "loyalty" to the *loyauté* of the text.—Tr.

National sovereignty. Democracy (the *élite* in the democracy).

Laws.—Their social and national foundation.

Duties of the citizen: obedience to the law; taxes; voting, etc.

Repression of crime: social justification of the penal laws.

Rights of the citizen; *individual liberty*; *liberty of conscience*; *liberty of religious worship*, within the limit of respect for the law; *liberty of labour*; *liberty to form associations*.

*Public liberties.*

Dangers of arbitrary action; dangers of the absence of government.

(5) *Relations of Nations to each other.*—International rights and duties. International solidarity. Humanity. Love of humanity at large, and how it may be reconciled with love of one's country.

International Law. Aspiration towards an ideal code of laws between nations. Arbitration.

#### Third Year.

*Thorough revision of the principles of Morals; re-examination of their chief applications.*

The teacher is to follow approximately the same order as in the two preceding years, laying stress on the explanation, discussion, and demonstration of the chief points of moral theory and on any erroneous interpretations of theory which may arise.

Three orders of phenomena (*faits*) in man to be considered, which are not perceived by the senses—phenomena of feeling or emotion; phenomena of thought; phenomena of the will, or free actions.

Show that our nature leads us to love what is *beautiful*, to affirm what is *true*, to wish what is *good*; draw attention to the analogy between these three objects of our spiritual activity answering to our natural inclinations and to our normal life; show that evil is a disease, an inclination foreign to a healthy nature, the body and the mind.

Man's power over himself: its reality; its limits.

Conscience; it is perfected by education.

Liberty and responsibility: their conditions, degrees, limits. Danger of accustoming oneself to doubt free will and to ignore responsibility.

The moral personality. Character.

Two aims of human life—*personal interest*, and *duty*.

Self-love and self-esteem.

Show how in performing his duty each man realises *human perfection* as far as in him lies; how, in sacrificing duty to personal interest, he lowers his own human dignity.

The true authority of duty; characteristics which distinguish it, in theory and practice, from all other motive powers.

The good, as distinct from the useful and the agreeable. Moral law and written law.

The moral ideal, as conceived by successive generations of mankind and as conceived in the modern world; it implies the idea of

continuous social amelioration. Show that it is as member of a nation that man fully realises his nature, that he becomes a true man; that is to say, a moral individual, conscious of his duties and of his rights; that the function of the individual, as member of a nation, is to co-operate voluntarily in the work of the nation towards human civilisation.

The social ideal in the different ages of mankind. Dwell on the characteristic traits of the conception of this ideal particular to France; explanation of the Republican device—*Liberty, Equality, Fraternity*.

The teacher must do his utmost to warn his pupils against anything which, under any form whatever, either theoretical or practical, might tend to debase or distort their idea of duty.

The sanctions of morality; the inward sanction (moral satisfaction or remorse); the natural sanction (consequences of our good or bad conduct affecting ourselves and others, both in body and soul); the social sanction (public esteem or contempt); the philosophical or religious sanctions (the idea of God). The teacher is to be most careful not to speak of religious beliefs otherwise than with deep respect, and in such a manner as never to wound the consciences of the children committed to his care.\*

*Conclusion*.—Even though the child has an instinctive love of what is good, it is necessary that he should *understand and know what it means*. The object of *moral education* is to respond to this need; it depends on the child himself to desire what is right, and the constant endeavour of the school must be to form this desire.

### III.—*Exercises tending to test the Conscience and to form the Character.*

The master must assiduously study the good and bad tendencies which manifest themselves in each pupil. As a result of this observation, individual advice is to be given independently of recommendations to the class as a whole.

The conduct (*moralité pratique*) of each pupil, as shown in the circumstances of his daily life by which it is put to the proof, is to be observed.

Constant appeal is to be made to the absolute truthfulness of the pupils, the first and indispensable condition of progress or of reformation.

Appeal is to be made to the strength of the pupil's will, to moral courage in all its forms (courage to break away from a defect, courage which manifests itself in an energetic decision or by obstinate perseverance, courage under suffering and in resisting pleasure, courage to brave ridicule for conscience' sake, courage to accuse or

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\* The subject is so important that it is best to insert here the French text:—

“Le professeur s'attachera à ne parler des croyances religieuses qu'avec un grand respect et de manière à ne jamais froisser la conscience des enfants qui lui sont confiés.”—TR.

defend oneself, to uphold what one believes to be the truth, or to admit one's faults, etc.). A long apprenticeship is necessary before one can be free from the slavery of passion and can guide and control oneself.

Gradual change from effort into habit; careful watching of the habits of the child and the adolescent with a view to encouraging good habits and eliminating bad ones.

Study of a few maxims calculated to implant moral ideas in a striking form.

Exercises designed to produce an increasing delicacy in estimating the difference between actions dictated by love of right action (*l'amour du bien*) or by respect for moral obligation, and actions apparently praiseworthy, but which are really inspired by lower motives. Attentive watchfulness for all opportunities of putting moral ideas into practice, of exercising the pupil's conscience and of calling into being on his part a set of well-considered resolutions leading him to desire the right and to form a habit of putting his desire into action.

Relations should be established with the parents, both in order to ask for their co-operation, and to lend them assistance in the moral education of the children.

## II.—FRENCH LANGUAGE.\*

(Five hours in the first and second years; four hours in the third year.)

### I.—*Reading and Recitation.*

(Two hours a week in each of the three years.)

Under this heading are comprised two kinds of exercises. In the first kind short pieces are taken and considered in detail, their chief aim being to accustom the pupil to realise exactly what he has read, and to form his vocabulary. The other kind deals with larger extracts or entire works, their chief aim being to cultivate a love of reading.

#### (i) *Explanation of Texts; Reading with Just Accent and Expression.*

This exercise, repeated in each class, is to have for its subject-matter either a collection of selected pieces,† or passages of real literary value taken from one of the books which the pupils have already read or of which the master has spoken to them. The pupils are to be taught to point out the essential idea in a developed passage; to understand the exact meaning of the words and to appreciate their fitness; and are to be made to feel, as far as possible, the special character and beauty of the piece chosen. The teacher must not neglect to show in a few words the relation

\* It has not been thought necessary to issue a special programme for each year in French as in the other subjects, but it is obvious that the exercises (in reading, orthography, dictation, and composition) will increase in difficulty from year to year together with the powers and intellectual development of the pupils.

† The *Recueil de Morceaux Choisis* or "Anthology."

of the piece studied to the whole work from which it is taken, nor, as occasion may require, to give brief details with regard to the life and work of the author.

The lessons to be learnt by heart are always to be chosen from the pieces thus studied.

(ii) *Longer passages, to be read partly in class, partly during preparation time or at home, either at the discretion of the pupil or under the direction of the teacher.*

These passages, which will be sometimes purely literary, sometimes chosen so as to serve as a useful complement to the classes in morals, history, geography, or science, will be with advantage introduced by a judicious commentary from the master, intended to bring out their peculiar interest or beauties, and thus to awaken the curiosity of the pupils, to arouse in them a desire to read the work chosen, and to draw their attention to its essential points. It may be followed sometimes by questions, put after the reading is over, sometimes by familiar discussions during which the teacher will observe the impression produced on the pupils, and help them either to understand this more clearly for themselves, or sometimes merely to recount simply and briefly what they have remembered.

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**List of Authors to be Read by the Pupils, partly in Class, partly in Preparation Time or at Home.**

(1) Collection of selected pieces in prose and verse from the sixteenth to the nineteenth century.\*

(2) *Classical authors.*

Selection of pieces or extracts from the classical plays of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

La Fontaine : *Fables.*

Fénelon : Selections (*Télémaque. Dialogues and Fables.*)

Voltaire : Selections (*Charles XII.*).

J. J. Rousseau : Selections.

Passages relating to the society of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, taken chiefly from memoirs and letters (Madame de Motteville, Madame de Sévigné, Madame de Caylus, Fléchier (*Les Grands Jours d'Auvergne*), La Bruyère, Saint-Simon, Diderot, Marmontel, Grimm, Madame Roland).

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\* Should there exist no special collection formed with a view to the higher primary schools, the teacher will use one of the collections in use in the primary schools, normal schools, or in the *collèges*, or one of the works inserted in the lists of books approved for school libraries, preference being given to those which contain the smallest number of extracts having a purely literary value, or beyond the mental grasp and literary knowledge of the pupils of the higher primary schools.

(3) *Modern authors.*

Chateaubriand : Selections.

V. Hugo : Selections (prose and verse).

Lamartine : Selections (prose and verse).

Michelet : *Jeanne d'Arc* (and selections from his History, from Memoirs, and from his works for popular education).

G. Sand : *La Mare au Diable* (selections).

French poets of the nineteenth century (selections).

French plays of the nineteenth century. (Plays or portions of plays).

Tales, stories of various kinds (*contes, récits, nouvelles*),\* French and foreign.

Selections from the historical and military memoirs of the nineteenth century.

Historical readings from great French and foreign writers.

Geographical readings from the writings of great travellers.

Scientific readings, biographies of scholars and scientific men, discoveries, popular accounts of science, from French and foreign writers.

Moral readings from French and foreign writers.

(4) *A few translations of foreign masterpieces.*

*Don Quixote* : Selections.

Selections from German poetry ; a few selections from German dramatic works.

*Robinson Crusoe*.

Swift : A few selections from *Gulliver's Travels*.

Mrs. Beecher Stowe : *Uncle Tom's Cabin* : Selections.

Charles Dickens : Selections.

Sir Walter Scott : *Quentin Durward*, and a few selections from his other works.

George Eliot : *Silas Marner*.

Mrs. Gaskell : *Cranford*, and other works.

*N.B.*—The chief aim of the series of extracts or fragments indicated under Nos. 2, 3, and 4, is not, as in the collections of selected pieces, to furnish texts for literary explanations.

In every case where the texts do not comprise a whole work, the teachers must choose portions of some length, explain their position in the work as a whole, and connect them together if need be by short analyses of the parts omitted.

All these fragments are to be taken from works or parts of works of which the clearness of idea and simplicity of style render them most likely to be easily understood by pupils who are left to themselves. The moral readings in particular, whether their form be narrative or didactic, are above all to relate to the kind of life which the pupils in the schools for primary education can understand, to the social environment to which they belong, and to the questions with which they may be confronted.

\**Conte* is generally an amusing story ; *récit*, the recital of something that has actually happened ; *nouvelle*, a short invented story.—Ta.

*II.—Dictation and Orthography:*

(One hour a week in each of the three years.)

Exercises in orthography, ordinary orthography, grammatical orthography; \* dictations bearing on the different subjects studied by the pupils—moral instruction, history, geography, the physical and natural sciences in their application to arts and manufactures and to agriculture, hygiene, political economy, etc.

The exercises in orthography are to be of two kinds in each lesson:—

(1) Exercises on common words chosen on account of difficulties in their spelling.† These words are to be grouped together as far as possible, either in accordance with their resemblances or differences with regard to spelling, or in accordance with their meaning.

(2) Analogous exercises, oral or written, on sentences chosen with the object of applying the most general and usual rules of grammar, and more especially those which are most often broken by the pupils. These sentences are, as far as possible, to be taken from works of real literary value.

Dictation is to serve at the same time as an exercise in running handwriting. Unfamiliar words are to be explained. The piece dictated may, if necessary, be taken as a subject for literary analysis, given as a model for composition, and learnt by heart during the reading lesson.

*III.—French Composition.*

(One hour a week in each of the three years.)

Varied exercises in French composition. Letters, stories, and descriptions, writing out of lessons (*rédictions*) and summaries, development or discussion of a reflection (*pensée*) or maxim, etc.

As occasion arises the master will teach in a concrete way the general principles of composition by applying them to the subject in hand. More especially at the early stages the mode of treatment of the subject is to be discussed beforehand by the pupils and teacher together, in class and orally.

*IV.—Grammar and Analysis.*

(One hour a week in the first and second years only.)

First Year.

*Explanation of Grammar.*

Without extending the limits of what has already been done in the elementary school or entering further into the question of exceptions, the greatest possible attention is to be paid to giving a

\* i.e., dictations in which the spelling involves questions of grammar.

† In order to vary the exercise and to make it more interesting, the teacher will invite the pupils to introduce these words into sentences (very simple in the first instance; at a later stage complex, or compound) which they are to make up during the lesson so as to show that they understand the meaning of the words. These exercises are to be oral, only those words being written which present the difficulties in spelling.

real knowledge of the rules and formulæ which the pupils already know or which they must learn over again. The teacher must try to impress upon the pupils' minds, in the form of well-understood ideas, what at an earlier stage was merely learnt by rote.

#### Second Year.

More thorough revision of what was learnt in the first year, with the addition of some notions on the origin and formation of words, their grouping into families according to their etymology, synonyms, etc.

In both the first and second years oral exercises in analysis are to be given conjointly with the grammar lessons, including both (1) logical, and (2) grammatical analysis. In all these exercises the teacher must avoid grammatical subtleties.

### III.—WRITING.

(One hour a week in each year.

Flowing hand. Round-hand (*Ronde*)\*. Slanting round-hand (*Bâtarde*)\*. Commercial writing. Penmanship.

### IV.—HISTORY AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.†

(One hour in the first and second years; two hours in the third year.)

#### *General Distribution of Subjects.*

*First Year.*—French History from the beginning of the 16th century to 1789.

*Second Year.*—French History from 1789 to the present day.

*Third Year.*—General History from 1789 to the present day; sketch of the political and economic state of the modern world.

NOTE.—The object of the detailed instructions which will be found in this programme is to define the points to which the teacher should especially direct the attention of the pupils. They are meant to make the teaching clearer, not to overburden it.

#### First Year.

*France from the beginning of the 16th century.—Its Internal Government.—Its Relations with the Rest of Europe down to 1789.*

*General Sketch of Europe towards the End of the 15th Century.*—Increase of the royal power in France and in the principal States of Western Europe.—Weakening of the feudal classes.

Economic progress: great inventions; discovery of the New World.

Intellectual progress: the Renaissance and Reformation studied with special reference to France.

*The French in Italy.*—Struggles against Charles V. and Philip II. Treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis.

*French Life in the 16th Century.*—The government (progress of political institutions under Louis XII., Francis I. and

\* *Ronde* and *Bâtarde* are styles of handwriting similar to those used in engrossing in this country, and are regularly used for headings, etc., in France.—T.E.

† For the syllabus of Civic instruction, see below, in the syllabus of History, pp. 23-24; of Geography, p. 31; and of Law; p. 47.

Henry II.); the court, the nobility, the clergy, the middle classes, the peasants.

*Extension of the Reformation. Religious Wars in France.*—Edict of Nantes; treaty of Vervins.

*France from 1589 to 1661.*—Reorganisation by Henry IV. and Sully.—Internal policy of Richelieu.—Opposition to the throne under Mazarin: the Fronde.

*Military Power and Diplomatic Role of France under Richelieu and Mazarin.*—The new armies and the great generals.—Treaties of Westphalia and of the Pyrenees.

General condition of Europe in 1660: predominance of France and her allies; decadence of Spain; weakening of the House of Austria; new maritime and colonial power of England.

*Personal Government of Louis XIV.*—Organisation of the army and of finance: Louvois, Vauban, Colbert. French industries; the navy and the colonies.

*New Territorial Extensions of France at the expense of Spain.*—Treaties of Aix-la-Chapelle and of Nimeguen; Houses of Assembly.

*Apogee of the Absolute Monarchy.*—Submission of the nobility and the court.—Submission of the clergy (declaration of 1682).—Submission of the Parliaments.

Literary and artistic brilliancy of the reign.

*Period of Decadence.*—Enemies of Louis XIV. (William of Orange, the part played by him in Holland and in England; hostility of the latter country after the revolution of 1688).—Consequences of the wars of the coalition of Augsburg and of the Spanish Succession; treaties of Utrecht, Baden and Rastadt.

Picture of France during the last fifteen years of the reign of Louis XIV.

*General Condition of Europe after 1715.*—Creation of the kingdoms of Sardinia and Prussia; weakening of Sweden under Charles XII. Progress of the power of Russia under Peter the Great; territorial aggrandisements of the House of Austria; maritime power of England; maintenance of French influence in Europe.

*France from 1715 to 1750.*—The Regency; Law's Bank; Fleury's ministry; development of French commerce.

Foreign policy of France: her relations with the great Powers, especially with Prussia and Austria. Polish and Austrian Wars of Succession. Treaties of Vienna and Aix-la-Chapelle.

*France from 1750 to 1774.*—Foreign policy: the Seven Years' War; Treaty of Paris; weakening of the maritime and colonial power of France.

Internal condition: opposition to the Throne (Parliaments, public opinion, philosophers, spread of new ideas); weakening of the royal power.

Spread of French ideas and the liberal movement in Europe.

Choiseul's ministry ; annexation of Lorraine and Corsica. End of the reign of Louis XV.

*France down to 1789.*—Attempted liberal measures by Louis XVI. ; the Reform ministers, Turgot, Necker. Glorious part taken by France in the creation of the United States of America.

Sterility of the attempts at liberalism ; resistance of the privileged classes ; powerlessness of the Crown to satisfy the aspirations of the nation ; opening of the States-General.

**Second Year.**

*France from 1789 to the Present Day.*

*Beginnings of the Revolution.*—General causes of the French Revolution. The *cahiers* [papers of grievances] of the States-General. The principles of '89. Origin of the motto : *Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité.*

The Constituent Assembly. Principal orators ; Mirabeau.—The people, their action ; the 14th of July ; the National Guards ; the Paris Commune.

Social reform effected during the night of August 4th. Declaration of the Rights of Man (*Déclaration des droits de l'homme et du citoyen*).

France under the new régime (*la France nouvelle*) ; the federations ; the idea of fraternity.

Reforms of the Constituent Assembly ; the Constitution of 1791.

*Progress of Republican Ideas under the Legislative Assembly.*—The Feuillants and the Girondists. Declaration of war. The 20th June. The Jacobins. The 10th August ; re-organisation of the Paris Commune.

*The Convention.*—Girondists and Montagnards. Proclamation of the Republic ; ideas of liberty and equality. Foreign menaces ; the battles of Valmy and Jemmapes.

Condemnation of Louis XVI. Formation of a European coalition against France. Uprisings in the provinces. Influence of these occurrences on the policy of the Convention. The Revolutionary tribunal. Committee of Public Safety.—Fall of the Girondists.—The Terror.—Struggles between the Montagnards.—Condemnation of Danton ; and of Robespierre.

The power of France under the government of the Montagnards. The law of requisition ; Carnot ; the great armies ; victories of Hondschoote, Wattignies, Fleurus ; deliverance of France from foreign armies ; occupation of Belgium, Holland, and the left bank of the Rhine ; treaties of Basel.—The great creations of the Convention.

The Constitution of the year III.

*The Directory.*—Struggles between the parties ; royalist reaction.—*The Coup d'état* of Fructidor ; the new power of the generals ; Hoche and Bonaparte ; the armies of Germany and Italy.

External greatness of France ; treaty of Campo-Formio.—Temporary occupation of Egypt.

*New Coalition.*—Masséna and Brune; victories of Zurich and Bergen.—Return of Bonaparte to France; the *coup d'état* of the 18th of *Brumaire*. Constitution of the year VIII.

French society in 1799.

*The Consulate*—Popularity and ambition of Bonaparte. Political, administrative, judicial and religious changes in France in the direction of monarchy. Treaties of Lunéville and Amiens. The Empire.

*The Empire to 1810.*—Foreign power of France. Austerlitz; treaty of Presburg; the battles of Jena, Auerstädt, and Friedland. Overthrow of Prussia; treaty of Tilsit; resistance of England, the continental blockade. Weakness of Austria; treaty of Vienna.

*The Empire to 1814*—Causes of the fall of Napoleon: the arbitrary readjustment of the political map of Europe; awakening of national feeling; the Spanish and Russian campaigns; the rising of Germany. Invasion of France. Treaties of 1814.

*France under the First Empire.*—Absolute government of Napoleon I. The court; official literature and art. Administrative centralisation. The University (Higher and Secondary Education). The codes. Great public works.—Excesses of the military régime: conscription; taxes; suppression of public liberties. Revival of liberal ideas. The opposition in literature: Madame de Staël, Chateaubriand, etc.

*The First Restoration and the Hundred Days.*—Return of the Bourbons to France. The Charter of 1814; constitutional government.—Excesses of the Royalists.—The Hundred Days.—Waterloo.

The treaties of 1815, and their results for France.

*The Second Restoration.*—Governments of Louis XVIII and Charles X. Essential differences between the Restoration and the Empire; re-awakening of the political spirit in France; the Chambers; debates between the *ultras* and the Liberals; the chief orators. Formation of a new social circle; writers and artists.

The Revolution of 1830.—Short account of the foreign policy of the Restoration.

*Reign of Louis Philippe.*—The revised Charter of 1830. Extension of the exercise of political rights to a new middle class. The political parties. Influence of liberal ideas on the literature of the period.

Importance of the economic and colonial development of France (railways, etc.); conquest of Algeria. Industrial changes; the working classes. Socialist theories.

New aspirations (electoral reform). Fall of Louis Philippe. Short account of foreign policy from 1830 to 1848.

*The Second Republic.* The Republican party in 1848. Universal suffrage. The new constitution.

Indirect effect of the Revolution on Europe.

The reactionary parties; disorganisation of secular teaching and of universal suffrage. The Presidential Dictatorship of Prince Napoleon. The Empire.

*The Second Empire.*—New political constitution. Analogies with the constitution of the year VIII.

Economic development; free-trade; great public works; transformation of Paris, etc.

Part taken by France in foreign politics. The wars of the Empire.

Progress of the Opposition. The war of 1870. Revolution of the 4th September. Continuation of the struggle with Germany. Treaty of Frankfort.

*The Third Republic.*—The result of French effort since 1871.—Military re-organisation.

*Constitutional Laws of 1875.*—The two powers of the State, the legislative power and the executive power. The principle of the separation of these powers. Sovereignty of the nation.—Pre-dominance of Parliament.—The legislative power; the Chamber of Deputies; its prerogatives; its mode of election. The *scrutin de liste*, and *scrutin d'arrondissement*.\* The Senate, its prerogatives, its mode of election. Preparation and voting of laws.—The National Assembly or Congress; its prerogatives.

The executive:—the President of the Republic; mode of his election; duration of his power; his prerogatives.—The Government; the ministers and the President of the Council (Prime Minister); their mode of nomination; ministerial responsibility. Decrees, *arrêtés* (Ministerial orders).—The Council of State.

#### Third Year.

*General History from 1789 to the Present Day. Sketch of the Political and Economic State of the Modern World.*

(i.) Principal features of general history (1789–1850).

*The great States of Europe from 1789 to 1802.*—Influence of the principles and of the wars of the French Revolution.

*The Napoleonic policy and its consequences.*—Exaltation of patriotism in the majority of the [European] States; the various nationalities; closer relations between the peoples and the sovereigns, political liberalism.—Europe in 1813.

*Europe in 1815.*—Deferment of the liberal promises of 1813. The Holy Alliance. Formation of Liberal and Conservative parties in the majority of the [European] States.

*The Reaction from 1815 to 1830.*—Influence of Russia and of Metternich. Repression of Liberalism in Germany, Italy, and Spain.—Emancipation of Greece. Indirect effects of the Revolution of 1830; risings in Italy and Poland. Independence of Belgium.

*From 1830 to 1850.*—Tendencies towards unity and Liberalism in Italy, Germany (the Zollverein, influence of Prussia), in the countries under Austrian rule, Hungary, Bohemia, etc.—Principal

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\* The *scrutin de liste* is the method of voting by departments, each department being represented by a number of deputies; the *scrutin d'arrondissement* is the method of voting in single-member constituencies (*arrondissements*).—Tr.

characteristics of the Revolutions of 1848 and 1849. Nationalities in Italy, Hungary, and the Slav countries. The idea of unity in Germany (Parliament of Frankfort); failure of the various Liberal movements (*tentatives*) towards 1850.

(ii.) Sketch of the political and economic state of the modern world.

*England.*—Successive changes in Parliamentary suffrage.—Development of popular education.—Chief economic and social questions; Trades unions; the Manchester school, Free Trade. Diversities and characteristics of the British people. The religious movements.—Catholic emancipation. The Irish question.

*Germany.*—Summary of the progress made by Prussia since 1807:—Antagonism between Prussia and Austria. Policy of William I. and of Bismarck. Powerful military organisation of Prussia. Question of the duchies [Schleswig-Holstein]. Struggle with Austria; Sadowa; the annexations; the North German *Bund*. Struggle with France. Establishment of the German Empire.

Different parties in the Empire; Catholics, Socialists. Economic régime. The military law. Emigration.

*Austria.*—Her expulsion from Italian and German territories after Sadowa. Closer relations with Hungary. Constitution of 1867: Austria-Hungary. Protest of the Slav populations, especially in Bohemia. The great diversity of the inhabitants of the Empire.

*Italy.*—Realisation of the ideas of liberty and unity through the Piedmontese Monarchy; Victor Emmanuel and Cavour. War of 1859; the kingdom of Italy. The question of Rome. Rome the capital; the law of Guarantee.—Political, social and financial condition.

*Switzerland.*—Chief features of the political régime. Education; the Army; Swiss neutrality; economic importance of the country.

*Belgium.*—Industrial life. The working classes. The political régime; the electoral question. The racial question; the Flemish and Walloons.

*Holland.*—Political parties.—Seafaring life; colonial expansion.

*The Russian Empire.*—Its extension in Europe and Asia. Autocratic government under Nicholas I. Reforms of Alexander II.; emancipation of the serfs.—The revolutionaries.—Reaction against German influence: the Baltic provinces.

*The Ottoman Empire.*—Its increasing weakness in Europe. Religious and racial questions. Russian influence.—Military energy, administrative and political weakness of the Turks. Agitation among the Slav peoples and the Greek Christians. Creation of Servia and Roumania. The Berlin Congress. Bulgaria.

*Spain.*—Diversity of races and of religious and political tendencies; Basques, Catalans, Castilians, Andalusians; Carlists and Liberals; Conservatives, Liberals and Republicans. The Constitution of 1837; changes in the Constitution; electoral reform of 1890. Different aspects of agricultural and industrial life. (The Basque countries, Catalonia, Andalusia.)

*Portugal; the Scandinavian States.*—Short account of the present situation of Portugal and of the Scandinavian States.

*The United States.*—Territorial expansion in the 19th century.—The Constitution; its modifications. Abolition of slavery, the War of Secession.—The Federal Government; political life.—Economic strength; rapid increase of population; the immigrants; disappearance of the aborigines. Agriculture on a large scale and the great industries; the power of capital; the working classes. The Chinese Question in the West.

*The Dominion of Canada.*—The Constitution; self-government; the French race in Canada.—Development of agriculture. Emigration to the West.

*Latin America.*—A very brief account of the causes of its emancipation. Liberals and Conservatives; Centralists and Federalists.—Life in Chili and in the Argentine Republic. French, Italian and Spanish immigration.

*Brazil.*—German immigration.

*Africa.*—Egypt under the new régime (*La Nouvelle Egypte*). The English occupation.

*Asia.—English India.*—The Imperial Government; the Army; the Sepoys. The political régime; intellectual development; political aspirations of the natives.—The vassal princes; the native States. The economic régime; the exploitation of the resources of India by the English.

*China.*—The open ports.—Commercial life in Shanghai.—Chinese resistance to Western civilisation.

*Japan.*—Its political, intellectual and economic transformation.

*Australia.*—The old colonisation; the convicts. Australian people of the present day.—Constitution of the colonies; self-government; movement towards federation (Australasia).<sup>\*</sup> The great towns; Melbourne and Sydney.—The working classes; miners and squatters.

*Conclusion.*—*Rôle* of France in the world at the present day.

## V.—GEOGRAPHY.

### *General Distribution of Subjects.*

*First Year.*—Preliminary general outlines of the subject.—Oceania, America, Africa.

*Second Year.*—Asia and Europe.

*Third Year.*—France and her Colonies.

#### First Year.

(One hour a week.)

#### (1).—OUTLINES OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

*General Study of the Earth.*—Its movements; inclination [of the axis to the ecliptic]; unequal distribution of solar heat; results of this inequality.

<sup>\*</sup> Federation has taken place since the date of issue of this syllabus.—*Pa.*

General movements of the atmosphere.—General movements of the oceans. Great zones of rainfall and of drought.

*Surface Relief.*—Its great features; continents and islands (unsubmerged portions); depressions (submerged portions). Distribution of this relief over the globe (northern and southern hemispheres).—Mountains. Plains.

*Climates.*—Resulting from the circulation of the atmosphere over the land and sea. Climates, continental or insular, hot or cold, wet or dry, etc.

*Circulation of Running Water.*—Clouds, rains, snows, springs, brooks, rivers, torrents, lakes, glaciers.

The importance of geological factors (permeable and impermeable strata). The importance of meteorological factors.

Notions on river basins and slopes. Sea-river basins or closed basins. Water action.

*Movements of the Soil at the present day.*—Modifications by air and by water; erosion, transport of soil and alluvium. Volcanic activity; coral reefs; movements of the earth's crust, earthquakes, etc.

Great divisions of the earth; general forms of the continents. The polar regions.

*Parts of the World.*—Their relative importance, their situation, etc.

*Globes and Maps.*—Longitude, Latitude, etc.\*

## (2) STUDY OF THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD.†

### Oceania.

*Australia.*—Insufficiency of relief. Drought, irregularities of climate.—Poverty of the water system.—The central deserts. Vegetation of the eastern parts and of the coasts.—Australian fauna.—The aborigines.

The Australian colonies. Gold mines. Agriculture. Sheep and cattle-breeding; the wool trade. The great cities.

*New Zealand.*—Relief; climate; products. The Maoris, and European colonisation. The chief towns.

General notions on New Guinea and the Pacific Archipelagoes. European possessions.‡

Relations of Oceania with Asia, Europe, and America.

### America.

#### *Physical Geography.*

*The Double Continent,* stretching from north to south. Great lakes of the central portion.

\* The account of this first part of the subject is to be given very clearly and simply, and, where possible, illustrated from nature. It is intended to serve, as it were, as a key to the rest of the subject, which would be incomprehensible otherwise.

† In dealing with the physical geography the teacher must not neglect to connect particular cases with the general laws on which they depend, and also the parts with the whole; it is the only way in which the pupil can be made to grasp the relationship of things to one another.

‡ New Caledonia and Tahiti will be studied more in detail in the third year.

*Relief.*—A long range of mountains stretching from north to south ; two regions of plains, one in the north, the other in the south.

*Coasts*, rugged on the west, more accessible on the east.

*Climate*, cold in the north and south, becoming warm and then hot as the centre is approached. The temperate tablelands.

*Water System.*—Great rivers flowing into the Arctic Ocean, the Atlantic, and the Gulf of Mexico. The lake regions. Smallness of the rivers flowing into the Pacific. Natural obstacles to great currents of trade between the different parts of America.

*Description of the Various Countries.\**

*North America.*—Brief review of the principal features of the physical geography of each country.

*Dominion of Canada.*—Area.—Products.—Great political divisions. Inhabitants. Principal towns and their products. The trans-continental railway. Old French Canada.

*United States.*—Area. Variety of products. Inhabitants. Importance of immigration. The great cities. Trans-continental railways.

*Mexico.*—Hot, cold, and temperate regions. Products. The great cities. Inhabitants.

Chief shipping lines between North America and Europe.

*Central America and the West Indies.*

*Central America.*—The five republics ; their wealth of production ; the importance of their position between two oceans.

*West Indies.*—European possessions. Products ; inhabitants. Great shipping lines.

*South America.*

Outlines of the physical geography of the continent.

Notions on the political geography (capitals, great towns) and economic geography of the States of Colombia, Venezuela, Bolivia, Peru, Chili, Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay, Brazil, European possessions in Guiana.

Great lines of navigation between South America and Europe.

*Africa.*

*Physical Geography.*

*Situation ; relief ; climate.*—*Water systems.* Products (of deserts, tropical regions, Egypt, semi-temperate zones of the north and south).—*Inhabitants.*—*Modern explorations.*

*Economic importance of the Principal Regions.*—Brief review of the chief features of the physical geography of each region.

*Northern Region.*—Morocco, Algeria, Tunis, Tripoli. General outlines.†

\* In the second year (Commercial Section) the commercial geography of the American countries will be studied more in detail.

† Algeria and Tunis will be studied in detail under French Colonies (Third Year).

*North-Eastern Region.*—Egypt and Ethiopia [i.e. Abyssinia, Eritrea, etc.]. Lower Egypt and the Isthmus of Suez. Commercial importance of the Red Sea. Abyssinia.—European possessions.

*Region of the Great Lakes.*—Opening up of the region. European settlements.

*Central Soudan.*—Tchad basin; European attempts to penetrate it.

*Western Soudan.*—Climate; vegetation; resources; European settlements.

*Equatorial Africa.*—The French Congo. Independent Congo State and its products; European settlements.

*South Africa.*—Colonies; Free States.\* Products, inhabitants.

*Chief Islands* to the west and east of Africa.

#### Second Year.

(One hour a week.)

#### Asia.

#### *Physical Geography.*

*Situation; Relief; Climate.*—The wind system; monsoons, rains.—*Water system* (frozen rivers of the north, warm rivers of the east and south, their influence on China, India, and Mesopotamia).

#### *Economic Importance of the Principal Regions.†*

The chief physical features of each region are to be reviewed in dealing with the region.

*Asia Minor, Syria, Arabia.*—Characteristics of the coasts and the interior. Products, chief markets.

*Persia, Afghanistan and Beluchistan.*—Products; chief towns.

*India.*—Products. English, French and Portuguese possessions.

*Indo-China.*—Products. European possessions.

*China and Japan.*—Products. The great ports.

*The Malay Islands.*—The Philippines.

#### Europe.

#### *Outlines of Physical Geography.*

*Situation* of Europe; its general *climate*. *Relief* (the leading characteristics): mountains, great plains, valleys, deeply indented coast-line, etc.—*Rainfall and running water*. Influence of the atmosphere of the Atlantic Ocean. Chief features of the river system. Centres of dispersion of the waters. Characteristics of the European rivers.

*Natural Products.*—Vegetation. Mines.

#### *Description of the States of Europe.*

Chief features of their physical, political, and economic geography.

The detailed notes given below are intended to draw the attention of the teacher to a few characteristic features of each country which are best suited to give the pupil insight with regard to it. In other words, these details are given in order to give clearness to the teaching and not to overload it.

\* The syllabus was drawn up before the recent war.—T.B.

† Siberia is to be studied at the same time as Russia.

*Political and Economic Geography.*

*Importance of Europe in the world.*

**Southern Europe.**

Countries on the Mediterranean.

*Greece.*—Its situation. Its importance as a civilising nation in ancient times; its modern condition.—Its maritime activity.

*Balkan Peninsula.*—The Ottoman Empire and its dependencies; the new nationalities.

*Italy.*—Situation. Two Italies; the plains south of the Alps; the Appenine Peninsula (with the islands). Absence of a natural geographical centre; division until recent times.—Products, commerce, ships, colonisation.

*Spain.*—Separation from the Continent by the Pyrenees. Sub-division of the interior by mountain chains and plateaux.—Severity of the climate in the elevated regions.—Semi-African character near the Mediterranean.—Rivers only navigable to a slight extent.—Products of the soil, mines. Commerce and industry.—Expansion of the Spanish race.

**Western Europe.**

(Facing the Atlantic.)

*Portugal.*—Situation in the Peninsula.—Differences between Portugal and Spain.—Importance of Portugal as a colonising nation.

*France.*—Its favoured situation, semi-Atlantic, semi-Mediterranean.\*

*The British Isles.*—Insular situation; numerous and deep estuaries; navigation. Products; coal; its importance in the changes going on in the world at the present time. Machinery, manufactures; pauperism, emigration, Colonial expansion.—Ireland.

*Belgium.*—Intermediate in character between France and England. Coal. Manufactures.

*Holland.*—Reclaiming of the land from the sea. Navigation; colonies.

**Central and Eastern Europe.**

*Germany.*—The Northern Plain, the mountains in the south. Climate. Great parallel rivers; absence of a geographical centre. Products; mines; commerce; manufactures; colonies.

*Denmark.*—A maritime and agricultural country. Situation at the entrance to the Baltic. Iceland. Colonies.

*Switzerland.*—Situation. Relief.—Diversity of races and languages. Routes across the Alps.

*Austria-Hungary.*—Geographical and ethnographical differences [of different portions of the Empire].—Great routes of communication.

*Roumania.*—Situation. Inhabitants. The lower Danube.

*The Russian Empire.*—Situation, its immense area (its extension into Siberia), its unity; great plains towards the North Pole.—Climate; its unification through winter.—Water system.—

\* The geography of France will be studied in detail in the Third Year.

Vegetation, forests. The Black Lands of Russia and Siberia. Mines. Gradual encroachment on Central Asia; expansion towards the outer seas.

Northern Europe.

*Norway and Sweden.*—The two slopes; Norway, mountainous and jagged, Sweden with long rivers. Climate, influence of the ocean. Products; mines, forests. Inhabitants.

Third Year.

(One hour a week.)

France and her Colonies.

*Physical Geography.*

*Situation*, between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean, a kind of isthmus in the west of Europe.

*Boundaries* before 1871.—Present boundaries.

*Relief.*—The central mountain range, the surrounding plains, the plain of the North, the frontier mountains, the coasts.

*Climate.*—Uniformity and variety of the climate of France.—Regions with severe and regions with warm climates. Study of the local climates.—Rainfall.

*Water System.*—Characteristics of the rivers: the Seine, Loire, Garonne, Rhone, etc. Flow, navigability, etc. Communication between the Seine and the Rhone, between the Garonne and the Mediterranean. Advantages which result therefrom.

*Natural Resources.*—Zones of vegetation, from north to south, from the mountains to the plains. The forest of the Gauls; what it has become. Varied products of France; vines, corn, olives, pasture lands, forests; their utility, etc. Mineral wealth.

*Political Geography.*

*Inhabitants.*—History of the formation of the French nation; Gauls, Iberians, Greeks, Romans, Normans, etc. Fusion of the populations in the plains and valleys round the central mountain range. State of the French people at the present day. The part played by France in the modern world. Paris; the great cities.

*Political Organisation.*—The State. The administration. The old provinces, the [modern] departments. The departments, purely administrative divisions.\*

*Military Organisation.*—The fleet. Land and sea frontiers, fortifications. The eastern and north-eastern frontiers.

Judicial organisation, university organisation, etc.

*Economic Geography.*

*Agriculture.*—Exploitation of the soil. Agriculture almost the sole source of wealth of landowners. Sub-division of ownership of the land. The French agriculturist. Progress in agriculture; increase of products. Principal crops, their relative importance.

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\* The departments are not geographical units, but merely artificial divisions; too much importance should not be attached to them in the study of France.

Rank of France as regards agricultural wealth. Necessity for future progress to avoid being out-distanced.

*Manufactures.*—Mediocre natural advantages in this respect. Activity and spirit of invention. Growth of industrial productivity during the last half century. Industrial centres. Principal French industries.

*Commerce and Transport.*—The road system in France. Its excellence. Waterways, natural or improved. The rivers as navigable routes. Canalised rivers, junction canals. French canal system. River basins joined by canals. Gap between the Loire and the Garonne.

*Railways.* General arrangement of the French system with Paris as a centre, and the cross lines. Comparative importance of the different lines of this system. Chief traffic between the Channel or North Sea and the Mediterranean. Gaps in the French system.

*Postal and Telegraph system.*

Natural and artificial ports. Works undertaken in deepening or otherwise improving ports. The French merchant marine; its rank in the world.

*Home and Foreign Trade.*—Goods exchanged. Sum total of imports and exports. Relations with the different parts of the globe; comparisons.

#### French Colonies.

*Colonial Empire.* The great undertakings since 1830. Vast African Empire.

*Algeria.*—Excellence of its situation. *Relief*; the Tell, the plateaux, the Sahara desert. *Climates and zones of vegetation.*

*Products.*—Mines. Development of agriculture. The oases.

*Inhabitants.*—Europeans and natives, Kabyles, Arabs, etc. Administrative, civil, and military organisation. *Commerce*; steamship lines, railways, roads, caravans. The future of Algeria.

*Tunis.*

*French West Africa.*—Senegal. The French Soudan. The Congo. Union with Algeria through the Sahara; expeditions to the lake Tchad district.

*The Indian Ocean.*—Madagascar, Réunion, Comoro Islands, Obock, etc.

*Pacific Ocean.*—New Caledonia, Tahiti, etc.

*French Indo-China.*—Situation, climate; importance of the Mekong and the Red River; routes of approach to China.

*American Colonies.*—Saint Pierre and Miquelon. The West Indies. Guiana.

## VI.—MODERN LANGUAGES.\*

(Three hours a week during the first two years, two hours in the third.)

### First Year.

Sentences to be learnt by heart as models of construction.

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\* This syllabus was published before the direct method was introduced into French secondary schools. (See the Curricula for Secondary Schools of 1902.)—72

These sentences are to be repeated frequently, with some of the words changed. The greatest attention is to be paid to pronunciation.

Study of the vocabulary ; a series of words is to be learnt in each lesson. In dealing with German, gender is to be dwelt on, and the article must never be separated from the noun.

Frequent exercises in the recitation of very easy pieces of poetry or prose.

Lessons in conversation on the model of the sentences learnt.

Reading of pieces from an elementary book.

Each of these lessons to be followed by short sentences composed in class by the pupils with the assistance of the master.

The essential rules of grammar to be taught chiefly through exercises.

Exercises in translation from French into the foreign language, bearing on different subjects, such as geography, history, natural history, etc. These exercises are to be oral at first and written at a later stage.

#### Second Year.

(Three hours a week.)

The exercises of the first year's course to be continued.

Elementary readings, which are to be explained and then reproduced *via voce* by the pupils. Very easy stories and anecdotes are to be told by the master and then reproduced by the pupils.

Translations from the foreign language into French.

Arithmetic in the foreign language.

Very easy composition and letters on familiar subjects.

#### Third Year.

(Two hours a week.)

The exercises of the two preceding years to be continued. Arithmetic in the foreign language. Study of the coinage and weights and measures of the country of which the language is being learnt. Oral and written exercises are to be given. Conversation on manual and agricultural work and on travels. Commercial correspondence in the foreign language.

### VII.—MATHEMATICS.

(Four hours a week in the first year ; three hours in the second and third years.)

*General Remarks.* The first year's course is to be exclusively practical. That of the second year, while admitting of some theoretical amplification, is still to be of an essentially practical character.

From the first year onwards the pupils are to be familiarised with numerical calculation by means of various exercises ; as the pupils progress, exercises and problems dealing with the whole curriculum are to be increased in number.

In each of the three years the pupils are to be constantly exercised in the practice of mental arithmetic.

Algebraic notation may be used in order to abbreviate, both in speaking and writing.

In dealing with geometry the teacher must neglect no opportunity of pointing out to the pupils the applications of geometry to drawing, and to arts and manufactures. The exercises and problems are to be of an especially practical character.

In those institutions where there is occasion to prepare pupils for the technical schools (*écoles d'arts et métiers*), and for the training of mechanics (*écoles d'apprentis mécaniciens*), etc., the teacher should be guided by the curricula for those schools, chiefly the third year course.

#### First Year.

(Four hours a week.)

#### ARITHMETIC AND THE METRIC SYSTEM.

Sums and problems involving the use of whole numbers, decimals and vulgar fractions.

Tests of divisibility by 2, 3, 4, 5, and 9. Proofs of multiplication and division by the casting out of the nines.

Square Root.—Practice in the extraction of a square root carried out to the nearest whole number and also to one place of decimals. Applications.

Legal system of weights and measures. Its advantages.\*

Division of the circumference. Measurement of time.—Problems.

Proportion. Working of sums in proportion by the unitary method. The practical rule.

Numerous and varied problems in proportion. Simple interest. Discount. Rapid calculations of ordinary rates. Equated time of payment. Government stocks. Savings Banks. Proportional parts. Partnership.

Questions on mixtures and alligation.

#### PLANE GEOMETRY.

The straight line. First notions on angles. Triangles. Cases of equality of triangles. Properties of isosceles triangles. Perpendicular and oblique straight lines. Cases of equality of right-angled triangles.

Parallel straight lines. Sum of the angles of a triangle, of a polygon. Properties of parallelograms.

The circle. Relations of arcs and chords, of chords and their distance from the centre.

Tangent to the circle.—Conditions of contact and intersection of two circles.

Measurement of angles.

Problems and graphical constructions. Drawing of perpendicular and parallel straight lines. Construction of angles and triangles. Construction of tangents to a circle and of tangents common to two circles.

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\* If necessary the teacher will give the value of the principal local measures in metric units.

**Second Year.**

(Three hours a week.)

**ARITHMETIC AND THE METRIC SYSTEM.**

Notation of whole numbers. The four operations on whole numbers. Theorems relating to these operations.

Tests of divisibility by 2 and 5, 4 and 25, 3 and 9. Testing of multiplication and division by casting out of the nines; theory and practice.

Definition of prime numbers, and of numbers prime to one-another. Resolution of a number into its prime factors.\*

Determination of the Greatest Common Measure and of the Least Common Multiple of two or more numbers.

Vulgar fractions. Simplification of fractions.—Reduction of fractions to a common denominator. Operations on fractions.

Decimal fractions. Operations on decimal fractions. Conversion of vulgar fractions into decimal fractions.

Recapitulation of the metric system. Numerous applications.

Ratio and proportion.

Quantities which are directly or inversely proportional. Proportion. Working of sums in proportion by the unitary method. The practical rule. The general formula. Applications.

**PLANE GEOMETRY.**

Proportional straight lines. Notions on the similarity of plane figures. Cases of similar triangles.

Numerical relations between the sides of a right-angled triangle.

Relations between the sides of any triangle.

Secants of, and tangents to, a circle.

Problems and graphical constructions. Division of straight lines into proportional parts. Mean proportionals. Construction of triangles and polygons similar to given triangles and polygons.

Regular polygons. Squares, hexagons, equilateral triangles. Evaluation of the circumference.

Areas. The rectangle, parallelogram, triangle, rhombus, trapezium, and polygons generally. Regular polygons. The circle; sectors, and segments of a circle. Comparison of areas. Ratio of the areas of two similar polygons. The square constructed on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle. Problems and graphical constructions.

Definitions of sine, cosine, and tangent of an acute or obtuse angle. Formulæ for right-angled triangles.

**ALGEBRA.**

Elementary notions of algebraic calculations applicable to positive and negative numbers. Solution of equations of the first degree with one or more unknowns.

Application to arithmetical problems.

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\* It is to be assumed (without proof) that this can be effected in one way only.

## LAND-MEASUREMENT AND SURVEYING.

NOTE.—The courses on these two latter subjects are to be given in summer, and only on the ground to be measured, where the pupils are to take sketches during the operations. On returning to school, the plans are to be drawn out to the required scale.

The pupils are to measure the surfaces of plots of ground in the form of a triangle, quadrilateral or any kind of polygon, of plots bounded by any irregular curve, plots of ground the interior of which is inaccessible, sloping plots of ground.

General method employed for surveying. Chain-surveying; surveying by means of the graphometer [a combination of sight-vanes with a divided circle]; surveying with the optical square or cross-staff.

Construction of the plan on paper. Scale. Construction of a scale. Surveying with the plane-table.

Third Year.

(Three hours a week.)

## ARITHMETIC.

Recapitulation and amplification of the syllabus for the second year.

Prime numbers.

Resolution of a number into its prime factors.

Determination of the Greatest Common Measure and of the Least Common Multiple of two or more numbers.

Fractions expressed in their lowest terms; theorem relating thereto.

Simplification of fractions.

Reduction of fractions to their least common denominator.

Conversion of vulgar fractions into decimal fractions. Approximation to a given number of decimal places.

The theory of square root. Practice in the extraction of a cube root, carried out to the nearest whole number or to the nearest decimal in the first place.

## SOLID GEOMETRY.

The plane and the straight line in space. Perpendicular and oblique straight lines. Parallel straight lines and planes.

Dihedral angles. Planes perpendicular to each other.

Definition of trihedral angles.

Polyhedrons.—Surfaces and volumes of a parallelopiped, of a prism, of a pyramid, of the frustum of a pyramid with parallel bases, of the frustum of a triangular prism, of the frustum of any prism (waggon loads and heaps of stones).

The ratio of the volumes of two similar polyhedrons is equal to that of the cubes of two corresponding edges.

Round bodies.—Surfaces and volumes of a cylinder, of a cone, and of the frustum of a cone.

The sphere.—The plane section and tangent plane of a sphere. Surface of a zone of a sphere. Surface and volume of a sphere. Cubic contents of the trunk of a tree. The gauging of barrels.

## LEVELLING.

This course, like the course on land-measurement and surveying, is to be given in summer and on the ground studied.

Water level.—Surveyor's poles. Register of levels taken. Contour lines. Plan with levels marked. Reading of topographical maps.

## ALGEBRA.

Solution, without discussion, of equations of the second degree with one unknown. Application to arithmetical and geometrical questions.

Principal properties of arithmetical and geometrical progressions. Use of tables of logarithms with four or five decimal places. Applications to compound interest, calculation of annuities, and extraction of roots. Use of the slide-rule. Use of tables of logarithms of sines, cosines, and tangents.

## VIII.—ACCOUNTANCY AND BOOK-KEEPING.

*General Observations.*—In the commercial and book-keeping course the teaching is to be both theoretical and practical. Hence, the teacher must place commercial documents before his pupils, require them to prepare the proper book-keeping documents in connection with the transactions considered, and his lessons in book-keeping must be based on numerous practical applications. He must not lose sight of the fact that business men pay beginners in accordance with the services which they can render, and that in choosing from candidates who are equal as regards appearance and general education, preference will be given to those who write well, and are quick and accurate at arithmetic. He must therefore, apply himself most particularly to obtaining good handwriting (inclined cursive (*anglaise*), *ronde* and *bâtarde*) [See note on p. 20 above] from his pupils in the fair copies of the exercises in book-keeping, commercial correspondence and arithmetic. For the same reasons, the pupils must be frequently exercised in rapid calculation, mental and written. Finally, great pains must be taken to point out to the pupils the advantage of a rationally ordered system of book-keeping, not only in the case of traders, manufacturers, and agriculturists, but also for private individuals and heads of families in general.

## Second Year.

(One hour a week.)

## COMMERCE.

Different kinds of commerce.

Different kinds of traders and intermediaries.

Exchange.

Documents relating to exchange.

Settlement of indebtedness.

Transport. Formalities. Documents.

## BOOK-KEEPING.

*Principal terms used in Book-keeping.*—To, By, Dr., Cr. Incoming, Outgoing. Accountancy. Book-keeping. The Accountant. The Book-keeper.

*Accounts.*—Theory. Practical reasoned exercises. Two great classes of accounts: impersonal accounts, i.e., of the property comprising the stock of the undertaking; personal accounts, or accounts of third parties having business relations with the business in question.

*The Journal.*—Journal or subsidiary analytical books. Relations of the subsidiary books to the supplementary ledgers.

*The Ledger.*—Supplementary ledgers. Relations of the subsidiary books to the supplementary ledgers.

*Book-keeping for Non-Traders.*—Necessity for writing down one's receipts and expenditure. Memorandum book. Cash book, ruled in columns for receipts and expenditure, and serving as journal and ledger. The series of entries of receipts and expenditure to be entered in this book. Final entries. Determination of the results. Balance. Balance sheet.

Third Year.  
(One hour a week.)

BOOK-KEEPING.

*Classification and Analysis of Accounts.*—Mathematical expression of commercial operations. The classification of accounts which results therefrom: (1) accounts relating to nominal capital; (2) accounts relating to working capital; (3) personal creditor and debtor accounts\*; (4) profit and loss accounts.

*The Journal.*—General or synthetic journal. Diverse formulæ for the entries. Advantage of adding up the money columns in the subsidiary books and the general journal.

*The Ledger and Collective Accounts.*—General ledger; supplementary ledgers. Relations of the general ledger to the general journal. Collective accounts, their utility, their working.

*Balancing the Accounts and the Verification Sheet (Chiffrier Balance).*—Verification of agreement of ledger with journal. Use and working of the verification sheet.

*List of Assets and Liabilities. Balance Sheet.*—Trial balance. Verification of the stock. Adjustments of the stock account. Depreciation. Balance sheet. Balance sheet book.

PRACTICAL EXERCISES.

*Book-keeping for Non-traders.*—Opening balances showing the composition of the capital. Opening of accounts in accordance with this inventory and in classified order. Series of transactions, including receipts, expenditure, deposits in the Savings Bank, buying of furniture or tools, subscriptions to the shares of a co-operative society, etc.—*Closing of the accounts for the trading period.* Stock-taking. Balance sheet.

*Commercial Book-keeping.*—Opening inventory giving the composition of the capital. Opening of accounts in accordance with this inventory and in classified order. Series of transactions (one transaction of each kind) including purchases, sales, returns, payment by cash or on credit terms, receipt and negotiation of bills receivable, delivery and return of bills payable. *Closing of the accounts for the trading period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities; trial balance. Adjustments of the accounts. Balance-sheet. Closing and re-opening of the accounts.

\* The corresponding English classification is as follows:—(1) Proprietary accounts; (2) property accounts; (3) personal accounts.—TR.

ELEMENTS OF COMMERCIAL LAW.

Different kinds of commercial companies. Commercial paper. Transferable securities. Commercial courts.

IX.—PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY.

(Two hours a week in each of the three years.)

*General Remark.*—The course in Physics and Chemistry is to be essentially experimental throughout the three years.

(1) PHYSICS.

First Year.

*Heat.*—Bodies as a rule expand under the influence of heat. Simple experiments. Unequal expansion of different bodies.

*Temperature.*—Mercury thermometer.—Graduation. Centigrade scale. Maximum and minimum thermometers. The pupils are to be made to understand that different bodies require different quantities of heat in order to increase their temperatures by the same number of degrees. Definition of the calorie and of specific heat.

Change of state treated in an elementary way. Fusion. Solution. Solidification.

Brief account of radiant heat and conductivity. Practical applications.

The principal sources of heat.

*Light.*—Luminous, transparent, and opaque bodies.

Light travels in a straight line. Light-rays.

The reflection of light. Plane mirrors; their properties deduced from experiment.

Refraction of light. Simple experiments.

Deviation of the direction of a ray of monochromatic light produced by a prism.

The principal properties of spherical lenses, to be established by means of simple experiments.

Dispersion of light. Simple experiments. Colours of bodies.

*Sound.*—Its production, propagation, reflection. Echo.

*Magnetism.*—Natural and artificial magnets. North and south poles. Reciprocal actions of the poles of the magnets.

Magnetisation of soft iron and of steel. The action of the earth on magnets. The compass.

Second Year.

*Gravity.*—Direction of gravity. The plumb line. The vertical and the horizontal. Weighing. Elementary notions on the pendulum.

*Liquids at rest.*—Experimental demonstrations of their chief properties, and of the pressures which they exert. The principle of Archimedes. Applications.

*Gases.*—Pressure and weight of gases. Atmospheric pressure.

The barometer. Mariotte's [Boyle's] law. Manometers. Interpretation of the readings of commercial pressure-gauges.

Specific gravity. Pumps. The syphon.

*Heat.*—Evaporation in a vacuum. Evaporation. Ebullition. Vapour-tension of water. Elementary account of steam engines.

*Water-vapour in the Atmosphere.*—The principal phenomena due to the water vapour contained in the atmosphere. Fogs. Clouds. Rain. Dew.

*Electricity.*—Its production by friction and by influence. Discharge from points. The electroscope. The Leyden jar. Atmospheric electricity. Lightning conductors.

The electric battery; its principal properties to be demonstrated by experiment. The electric current. Electric resistance. Electric lighting. Electro-plating.

Action of a current on a magnet. Elementary account of galvanometers and their uses.

Magnetisation by currents. Electro-magnets. The principle of the electric telegraph.

#### Third Year.

Very elementary outlines of the theories of force, work, and the simple machines (lever, balance, steel-yard, pulley, windlass). Units of force and work.

Transformation of heat into work, and the reverse.

Description of the principal optical instruments.

Elementary theory of induction. Elementary theory of induction apparatus. Applications. Telephones. Microphones.

Quality of sound; pitch. Musical intervals. Intensity. Timbre.

#### (2.) CHEMISTRY.

##### First Year.

Simple substances. The pupils are to be shown by means of simple experiments that simple substances can unite with each other and so form compounds. The distinction between mixture and combination. Simple examples.

Acids. Bases. Neutral bodies, tested by coloured reagents. Non-metals. Metals. Salts.

Atmospheric air. Oxygen. Nitrogen. Combustion. Water; elementary account of its composition. Principal properties of water. Hydrogen. Applications.

Carbon. Natural and artificial forms of carbon. The most important combustibles.

Elementary chemistry of carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide. Their influence on the human economy.

Elementary chemistry of silica and the principal silicates.

##### Second Year.

The teacher will rapidly revise the first year's course, and on the basis of this revision he will give the pupils the rules of chemical nomenclature, and a statement of the general principles and chief laws of Chemistry. The use of chemical formulæ with atomic

notation. The teacher is to show by simple examples that these formulæ represent bodies by means of symbols, together with their composition, and their chemical re-actions.

Elementary chemistry of nitric acid and ammonia.

Elementary chemistry of phosphorus. Matches.

Elementary chemistry of phosphoric acid: Phosphates used in agriculture.

Sulphur. Sulphurous acid. Its application to the bleaching of linen and silk; the purification of barrels by burning sulphur.

Sulphuric acid. Principal applications. Sulphuretted hydrogen.

Chlorine. Its application to the bleaching of linen and cotton.

Hydrochloric acid.

Action of oxygen, sulphur, chlorine, and of sulphuric, hydrochloric and nitric acids on the common metals. (In this connection, the oxides, sulphides, chlorides and other salts which are of practical importance are to be mentioned.)

Commercial sodas and potashes. Their use in laundry work.

Nitrates of potassium and sodium. Outlines of the chemistry of nitrification. Applications.

Sea salt. Rock salt.

Lime. Mortars. Cements. Glass and pottery.

Carbonate of lime. Sulphate of lime. Plaster. Applications. Outlines of the chemistry of the common metals.

### Third Year.

Organic substances. Their composition.

Short account of the principal hydro-carbons. Illuminating gas.

Common alcohol. Alcoholic fermentation. The application of fermentation to the manufacture of alcohol, wine, beer, and cider.

Common ether.

The teacher must point out that there are other kinds of alcohol besides ordinary alcohol.

*Outlines of the chemistry of the commonest organic acids.*

Acetic acid. Vinegar. Oxalic acid.

Tartaric acid. Tannic acid or tannin. Application to tanning.

Fats.—Saponification. Stearine candles.

Cane and beet sugar.

Starch. Starchy matters. Flours. Bread-making.

Cellulose. Paper.

Outlines of the chemistry of the principal, albuminoid substances.

The most important food-stuffs. Their preservation.

**NOTE.**—The teacher must apply the knowledge acquired by the pupils to local industries, and must as far as possible make them visit the local factories, written account of each of these visits is to be given in by the pupils,

## X.—NATURAL HISTORY AND HYGIENE.

(One hour a week in each of the three years.)

## (1.) ZOOLOGY.

## First Year.

Elementary sketch of the human organism, which is to be taken as a basis for comparison. The great divisions of the animal kingdom.

(The teacher must choose a well-known species from each group as an example to serve as a type with which to compare the allied species. He must dwell on the life-history of the animal, its habits, mode of life, and external characteristics.)

*Vertebrates*.—Mammals; examples to be chosen from the different orders.

Bats. Moles, hedge-hogs, shrew-mice. Rats, mice, field-mice, voles, squirrels, marmots, dormice, rabbits, hares. Dogs, wolves, foxes, pine-martens, beech-martens, weasels, otters, cats, badgers, bears. Oxen, sheep, goats, deer. Horses, asses. Boars, pigs. Elephants. Whales.

Birds; their essential characteristics. Examples to be chosen from among the principal orders. Birds of prey; usefulness of owls and common brown owls. Woodpeckers and cuckoos. Insectivorous *passeres*; the services which they render. Swallows, martins, warblers. Grain-eating *passeres*; house-sparrows. Pigeons. Farmyard birds. Storks, herons. Swans, geese, ducks.

Reptiles; their essential characteristics. Lizards, ring-snakes, and vipers. Tortoises.

Amphibia.—Metamorphoses of the frog.

Fish; their essential characteristics. The importance of fish as food; the principal edible species.

Insects; their essential characteristics. Metamorphoses of the butterfly.

Life history of the cock-chafer, bee, ant. Noxious species of insects.

Arachnida and Crustacea.—A very brief account of these orders.

Worms; their essential characteristics. Earth-worms. Leeches.

Molluscs.—Snails. Oysters.

Zoophytes.—A few words about the simplest animals. Corals. Sponges.

## Second Year.

In describing the organs, the teacher is to take those of the human body as examples.

*Functions of nutrition*.—Sub-division of these functions.

*Digestion*.—The digestive organs. Dentition. Elementary notions on the modifications of the digestive organs in the most important groups of animals.

*Circulation*.—The circulatory system. The heart. Arteries and veins. Mechanism of the circulation. Very simple account of the modifications of the circulatory system in the most important groups of animals.

*Respiration.*—The respiratory system. Combustion due to respiration. Very simple account of the modifications of the respiratory system in the most important groups of animals.

*Animal Heat.*—So-called “warm-blooded” and “cold-blooded” animals.

Absorption and exhalation. Secretions.—Simple glands; compound glands; chief secretions (urine, perspiration, milk). A brief summary of the whole of the phenomena of nutrition; losses and gains of the organism.

*Correlations of Functions.*—Their rôle.

*The Bony Apparatus.* Composition, form, and method of articulation of the bones. Short description of the skeleton.

*The Muscular System.*—Muscular action. Locomotion.

Modifications of the locomotor apparatus [in various animals] fitting it to serve for walking, running, crawling, swimming, and flying.

*The Nervous System.*—The brain; the spinal cord. Nerves. Brief description of the organs of sense (the eye, the ear, the skin). The vocal organs.

#### Third Year.

Main outlines of zoological classification. Characteristics of the various classes.

Characteristics of the classes of the Vertebrates.

*Mammals.* Division of mammals into orders. Useful and noxious mammals. Fur and wool.

*Birds.*—The principal groups. Useful and noxious species. The use of feathers.

*Reptiles and Amphibia.*—Useful and noxious species.

*Fish.*—Bony and cartilaginous fish. Their structure. The principal groups.

*Mollusca.*—Elementary knowledge of their structure. Principal groups. Useful molluscs.

*Arthropoda and Annelida. Insects.*—Simple outlines of the structure of insects. Metamorphoses. A very short review of the principal orders, mentioning only useful and noxious species; special attention is to be given to bees, cock-chafers, aphides, and phylloxera.

*Arachnida.—Crustacea.* Edible species.

*Annelida* (earthworm and leech).—A few words on intestinal parasitic worms.

*Zoophytes and Protozoa.*—A brief account of these groups.

#### (2.) BOTANY.

##### First Year.

Characteristics of plants. Short study of the plant. Form, structure, functions of the different parts. Roots, stems, leaves, flowers. The growth of the plant. Annuals, biennials, perennials.

A few species are to be studied in detail from the point of view of the characteristics furnished by the different parts of the plant. Processes of determination of species to be applied to, common

plants, gathered in the school-garden, or met with in walks taken under the supervision of the teacher.

As soon as the season permits, the teacher must begin with poly-petalous plants having large flowers, and of which all the parts are very distinct. For the study of each group, a well-known and very characteristic plant must be chosen.

A few general ideas to be given on the plants called *Cryptogams*: ferns, horse-tails, mosses, fungi.

The teacher must explain in the same way as with animals how it has been possible to subdivide plants and to classify them.

#### Second Year.

More definite and detailed ideas of the structure and functions of the organs. The teacher must show, either by illustrations or by means of a microscope, the constitution of the different vegetable elements—cells, fibres, vessels; their arrangement to form tissues.

*The Root.*—Differences in form and structure; modifications by culture; functions of roots. Use of roots in agriculture and industry.

*The Stem.*—Differences in form and structure. Development; buds, branches. Stems, and products furnished by stems, of use in agriculture and industry.

*The Leaf.*—Its parts; its modifications in form.

*The Flower.*—Its different parts; their modifications. The characteristics which they furnish for the determination of species. The utilisation of flowers in industry.

*The Fruit.*—Its origin and development. The constituent parts and their modifications. Changes obtained by cultivation. Use of fruits and seed for food and in industry.

*Nutritive Functions.*—Absorption, circulation, respiration, secretion.

*Reproduction.*—Different modes of propagation of plants. Simple principles of grafting, layering, cuttings, are to be given, accompanied, wherever possible, by practical examples. Modifications. Changes produced by cultivation. Use of fruits and seeds for food, and in medicine.

*Classification.*—The great divisions. Classification into natural groups or families.

Application of the characteristics furnished by the different parts of the plant to the determination of its species. Use of *Floras* and of *synopses* [keys].—Botanical excursions. Gathering, preparation and preservation of the specimens. Formation of herbaria. Special study of useful and harmful species, and of the species characteristic of the local flora.

#### Third Year.

(Complement to the first and second years' courses, with greater detail.)

Review of the natural families. Details are to be given with regard to the groups which are of more particular interest in the

region, and more especially with regard to the most important crops.

Botanical excursions as in previous year. The circumstances which favour vegetation and the propagation of particular species are to be studied on the spot.

### (3.)—GEOLOGY.

#### First Year.

Characteristics of minerals.—Study of a few specimens that are useful, widely distributed, and easy of determination. Study of a few rocks, simple or compound, belonging to the locality.

Stratification of rocks; a sketch of their different modes of formation. Present-day phenomena, effects produced by them. What may be deduced from them with regard to past phenomena. Central heat, earthquakes, volcanoes and volcanic products. Some very elementary data as to constitution of the earth's crust.

Igneous rocks. Sedimentary strata.

#### Second Year.

The most important minerals from the point of view of industry and agriculture. The teacher must deal more especially with the minerals that are found in abundance in the region in which the school is situated, or which are utilised there. Fuels, such as coal and peat. The different ores of iron, copper, lead, and zinc. Mineral wealth of the earth. Phosphates employed in agriculture. Gypsum. Clays and marls. Potter's clay.

#### Third Year.

A sketch of the classification of strata and of their chronological order of formation and superposition. Details are only to be given of those strata which occur in the region in which the school is situated.

*Igneous Rocks.*—Their origin; their varieties; the form in which they present themselves. Upheavals and subsidences of the ground; faults. Origin of mountains and valleys.

*Sedimentary strata.*—Their origin; characteristics, stratification, and succession. Enumeration of the strata which are most important on account of the materials which they furnish to industry and agriculture. Fossils; information which they supply as to the successive appearance of plants and animals.

Geological map of France, and especially of the region in which the school is situated.

### (4.)—HYGIENE.

(Syllabus modified by the *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897.)

#### Third Year.

(Twelve lessons of one hour each.)

*Water.*—Different kinds of drinking water: spring water; river water, well water. Only spring water is pure; the other kinds are liable to contamination; ways in which they may be contaminated.

The means of purifying drinking water ; filtration, boiling.

*Air.*—The quantity of air necessary in dwelling-houses, etc.

Dangers of stale air in confined spaces. Renewal of the air. Ventilation. Contamination of the air by dust and gases.

Proximity to swamps.

*Food.*—Chief adulterations of ordinary foods, solid and liquid.

Dangerous animal foods : parasites and infectious germs (trichinosis, measy pork, anthrax, tuberculosis) ; putrid meat (poisoning by pork and pork sausages).

*Beverages.*

1. Aromatic beverages (tea, coffee).

2. Fermented beverages (cider, beer, wine). Action of fermented beverages ; harmful effects on health from misuse.

3. Distilled beverages (brandy). Harmful effects of their habitual use.

4. Alcoholic beverages to which essential oils have been added (absinthe and other *liqueurs*, so-called appetisers (*apéritifs*) and digestives). Grave dangers of their use.

Drunkenness and alcoholism. Influence of alcoholism in parents on the health of their children.

*Contagious diseases.*—Definition of a contagious or transmissible disease. An example is to be taken of a typical disease, the transmission of which is easily effected by experiment ; Pasteur's experiments on anthrax.

A rapid summary of the chief contagious diseases of man ; means by which they are transmitted ; air, water, the respiratory organs, the digestive organs.

Ringworm, itch, eruptive fevers, small-pox, measles, scarlet-fever, tuberculosis.

*Vaccination and Re-vaccination.*—Mortality from small-pox. Preventive measures. Prophylactics. Disinfection. Personal cleanliness.

Sanitary conditions of the house. The sanitary house, the insanitary house. Cess-pools.

Diseases transmitted by human excreta ; typhoid fever, cholera.

*Outline of Sanitary Regulations with regard to Animals.*—Diseases transmissible to man. Rabies, glanders, anthrax, tuberculosis. Slaughtering, burial (Law of 24th July, 1881, on sanitary regulations with regard to animals).

## XI.—THEORETICAL AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

(One hour a week in each of the three years.)

### First Year.

Soil. Sub-soil. Modifications with a view to cultivation. Farming implements. The different operations of agriculture.

Study of plants from an agricultural standpoint. The effect of natural agencies on vegetation.

Domestic animals. Useful and noxious insects.

The garden. Tools. The principal operations of horticulture.

## Second and Third Years.

Soil and Water. Improvement of waste lands. Drainage and irrigation.

Operations and implements used in farming on a large scale. Crops of the region in which the school is situated.

Natural and cultivated pasture land. Viticulture.

Live stock, large and small. The farmyard. Bee-keeping and silk-culture.

Gardening. The kitchen-garden ; orchard ; garden work and products.

Elementary principles of silviculture.

Agricultural economy.

Agricultural book-keeping.

## XII.—COMMON LAW AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

## Third Year.

(One hour a week.)

## I.—COMMON LAW.

## PART 1.—PUBLIC LAW (not including Civic Instruction).

(i.) Elements of the Judicial Organisation.

List of the different judicial tribunals in penal, commercial, industrial, and administrative matters ; their working and their hierarchy. Details with regard to the *juges de paix*.

Legal assistance, forms under which it is granted ; its effects. Solicitors (*avoués*), bailiffs (*huissiers*), barristers (*avocats*).

Attorneys to the *tribunaux de commerce*.\*

(ii.) Financial Institutions.

The budget and the voting of taxes ; direct and indirect taxes ; taxes of which the total is assessed in advance for each commune (*impôts de répartition*) ; regulations for their assessment ; other taxes of which the total cannot be assessed in advance (*impôts de quotité*) ; the collection of taxes ; expenditure of public moneys, the allotment of funds for payment (*ordonnancement*) and payments ; control of public expenditure ; the Houses of Parliament, the Audit-office (*Cour des Comptes*).

(iii.) Military Organisation.

Recruiting, enrolment in the marine forces.

## PART 2.—PRIVATE LAW.

## (I.) Personal Law.

(i.) Nationality.

Acquisition and loss of the title of Frenchman.

Advantages and duties attached to the title of Frenchman ; enjoyment of political rights and title of citizenship.

\*Since there is no exact correspondence between the French and the English systems of law and judicial administration it is obviously impossible by translation to give more than an idea of the scope of the syllabus.

In many cases technical terms have been left untranslated because translations would be misleading. Thus the word *tribunal de Commerce* is not a "commercial Court" in general, but a special Commercial Court with strictly defined functions, there being other Commercial Courts.—Tr.

(ii.) *Certificates of Civil Status (Actes de l'Etat Civil).*

General regulations regarding the keeping of registers and the drawing up of certificates. Special regulations concerning certificates of birth, marriage and death.

(iii.) *Family Law.*

*Marriage*: requisite conditions for marriage; impediments to marriage; opposition; [publication of banns] forms of celebration. Law of December 10th, 1850, concerning the marriage of the indigent poor. Principal legal consequences of marriage. Subordination of the wife; liability as to maintenance and law of inheritance, between husband and wife. Legitimacy of children.

Rights of the husband and wife respectively with regard to their property; marriage contracts; marriage without a contract. A list and short description of the chief marriage systems [determining legal rights of husband and wife with regard to property] is to be given.

*Relations by Blood and Relations by Marriage*: direct line, collateral branches, calculation of the degrees of relationship. Obligation as to maintenance in the case of certain relations by blood or marriage.

*Special Relations between Ascendants and Descendants*: paternal power; moral and legal obligation of parents to educate their children.

*Guardianship.—Guardianship of minors*: how it is vested; means by which it is exercised. Guardians (*tuteur*), guardians specially appointed by the family council (*subrogé tuteur*), the Family Council (*conseil de famille*): an outline of their respective powers is to be given. Functions of the courts of law with regard to guardianship.

*Emancipation of minors.*

*Declaration of Incapacity to act (Interdiction).*—Law of June 30th, 1838, concerning the insane.

(II.) *Laws relating to property.*(i.) *Distinction between different kinds of Property.*

Personal property (*meubles*) and real property (*immeubles*). The classes of property determined by law to be personal property *valeurs mobilières* (stocks, shares, etc.).

Property constituting the public or private property of the State or of departments, communes, or public institutions (*établissements publics*).

Particular attention is to be given to property belonging to communes; its administration, mode of enjoyment, alienation; legal prohibition against its division amongst the inhabitants.

(ii.) *Property and Ownership.*

*Definitions. Property* and classes of property. Extent and limits of the rights of ownership. Expropriation in the public interest. Legal easements for the public service. Legal easements for private benefit.

The teacher must dwell on the legal easements established in the interests of agriculture: improvements of waste land, drainage, having regard to the region in which the school is situated.

*Part rights; boundaries.*

Idea of *possession* compared with ownership. Legal consequences of possession; actions with regard to possession (in some detail); acquirement by undisputed occupation (general ideas).

*Usufruct.* — Easements established by assessment. (Brief account.)

(iii.) Ownership.

*Debtor and Creditor.*—Acts which create obligations. Covenants (contracts), implied contracts, offences against the law, involuntary breaches. Means of assuring the fulfilment of obligations, either by legal measures or by means of covenants. Rule that the goods of the debtor are pledged to his creditors. Joint and several liability; warranties (guarantees); preferred creditors, mortgages (brief account). The extinguishing of debts by the operation of the statute of limitations, with special reference to short limitations.

(III.) Contracts.

Principle of the freedom of contract. Its limitations. Rule that the contracts are binding on the persons concerned. Discrimination between the contract itself and the deed which is designed to furnish proof of it. Different kinds of deeds, designed to furnish proof of contracts. Authenticated deeds (*actes authentiques*)\*, private deeds (*actes sous seing privé*)\*; forms prescribed to ensure the validity of certain private deeds. Exceptional cases in which covenants are valueless unless they are verified by a deed in authentic form. The means by which, as a general rule, covenants may be proved in default of written proof; especially those cases in which proof by witnesses, or presumptive proofs, submitted to the discretion (*la sagesse*) of the judge, are admitted by law. Special regulations regarding proof in commercial matters.

*Ability to make a contract.*—List of disabilities and their legal consequences.

Contracts considered as a means of effecting a *transference of property*.—The additional formalities to be observed when dealing with real property.

The *registration* of written deeds; its fiscal importance; its consequences from a legal standpoint.

Cases in which verbal contracts entail fiscal dues; duties on transfer deeds; duties on verbal lettings.

Practical Study of the most common contracts.'

(i.) Sales.

Transference of ownership in the thing sold. Obligations of the vendor. Guarantee against legal dispossession of the thing sold;

\* *Actes authentiques* are deeds drawn up by, and witnessed before, a public notary; *actes sous seing privé*, deeds drawn up by the parties concerned.—Ta.

guarantee against latent defects, etc. Obligations of the purchaser. Guarantees given to the vendor to secure the payment of the purchase price; privilege and right of cancellation.

Consequences of loss by accident of the thing sold, before delivery.

(ii.) *Leasing.*

*Leasing of property.*—Leases for land and for house property and chattels; practical information with regard to habitable repairs, under-letting, notices to quit, tacit renewal of the lease without re-signing, risks as to rent, etc.—Guarantees given to the landlord to secure the fulfilment of the obligations of the lessee of the land or the tenant. *Farming on the Share System or Under-farming (Métayage).*—Contract with regard to cattle made with the farmer.—*Hiring out of Labour or Industry.*—An account of the relations between employers and workmen employed in industry to be given in industrial districts.

(iii.) *Lending at Interest.—Usury.*

iv.) *Insurance of Property.*

The principles of insurance and their practical applications taking fire insurance as a type.

(IV.) *Transmission of the property of a deceased person.*

(i.) *Successions conferred by the Law.*

General rules as to how these devolve. Legitimate heirs, irregular inheritors. Succession.

Acceptance, renunciation; acceptance with non-liability to debts beyond assets descended.

Division; simple notions with regard to succession.

(ii.) *Devolution of the Succession in virtue of the Expressed Wish of the Deceased.*

*Wills.*—Different forms of wills. The dispositions which may be made by will, with a general indication of their consequences. Cases in which a person may dispose of his property by contract. Gifts of future property by means of a marriage contract, or by a contract between husband and wife made after marriage. Limitations placed, in the interests of certain heirs, on the right of disposing of one's property by gift or by will (disposable portion and residue).

(iii.) *Succession Duties.*

*Succession Duties* due by reason of the transmission of property of a deceased person. The declarations to be made by the interested parties for the payment of those duties. Division from the fiscal point of view.

## 2.—POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Syllabus modified by the *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897.

*Factors of Production.*—Nature, labour, capital.

*Labour.*—Intellectual labour; inventions. Manual labour. Division of labour; advantages and disadvantages of this division. Implements; their necessity.

*Capital.*—Its different forms. The divisions of capital. Fixed capital, circulating capital. Industrial plant and raw material. Co-operation of capital and labour; its results.

*Remuneration of Capital and of Labour.*—Intellectual labour; salaries.—Manual labour; wages, different modes of payment [time-wages, piece-work].

Capital: interest; the justification of interest.

Profit and loss.—Their distribution. Profit-sharing by workmen.

*Sale and Exchange.* — Value, price. Causes which influence variations of price.

Currency.

*Home and Foreign Trade.*—Means of transport. Advantages of cheap transport. Exports and imports. Exchange and its fluctuations.

Historical sketch of Free Trade, Protection, and commercial treaties.

*Credit.*—Its advantages and disadvantages. Credit-currency; bank-notes; commercial bills; bills of exchange; promissory notes; cheques, etc.

Signing of commercial documents. The importance of a signature, once given; its consequences.

*Agricultural Industry.*—Large and small farming. Different forms of the cultivation of the soil. Freehold farming; leasehold farming; the *métayer* system.

*Saving.*—*Savings Banks; Provident societies.*

*Insurance.*—Various kinds of insurance.

*Pension Funds.*

*Mutual Benefit Societies* [including Sick Funds, etc.].

*Co-operative Societies.*—Associations of producers and consumers.

*Trade Societies* [including Trades-Unions, etc.]. Summary of the law of 21st March, 1884 [authorising establishment of Trades Unions, etc.]. Comparison with earlier corporations.

*The Question of Luxury.*

*Alcoholism.*—Influence on the impoverishment and indigence of the individual and the family. Its effect on public wealth. The cost of alcoholism to France; other results: crime, suicide, accidents at work.

*Population.*—Emigration and colonisation.

*The State.*—Chief functions of the State [as exercised by its different departments]. Different kinds of taxes. The Budget.

### XIII.—DRAWING AND MODELLING.

(Three hours a week in each of the three years.)

The teachers are to be guided by the directions given by the Government Drawing Inspectors.

#### First Year.

*Geometrical Drawing.*—Tracing of geometrical outlines; joining up by freehand of the lines executed by means of instruments,

Application to decorative designs on plane surfaces; tinting of some of the exercises.

*Freehand Drawing.*—Numerous dimensioned sketches (geometrical representation); model drawing (perspective representation); drawing of ornament from relief.

*Modelling.*—First exercises from ornament in low relief and from dimensioned sketches.

**Second Year.**

*Geometrical Drawing.*—Elementary exercises in projections; architectural ornament.

*Freehand Drawing* from details of architecture.

*Modelling.*—Recapitulation of the first year's course; exercises from plaster casts (official collection).

**Third Year.**

*Geometrical Drawing.*—Simple cases of intersection of solids; development of surfaces. Working drawings from dimensioned sketches. Elements of linear perspective.

*Freehand Drawing* from the plaster casts of the official collection.

**XIV.—MANUAL AND AGRICULTURAL TRAINING.**

(Four hours a week in each of the three years.)

(1.)—**WORKSHOP TRAINING.**

(As a general rule, every exercise is to consist of the working out of a dimensioned sketch or of a drawing done to scale.)

**First Year.**

*The Carpenter's Shop.*—Elementary exercises in the use of the following tools; first, the saw, plane, rasp, file, and bench-screw; later, the flat chisel, gauging tools and scribes, and different kinds of saws. First exercises in the use of the plane and of the lathe.

Application to the making of useful objects (flower-boxes, boxes).

*The Iron Shop.*—Easy work in shaping iron wire into geometrical forms. First exercises with the chipping chisel, and file [at the bench], and first exercises at the forge.

**Second Year.**

*The Carpenter's Shop.*—Exercises in the use of the plane (continuation). Chief methods of assembling the different pieces in carpentry. Application to the making of useful objects.

*The Iron Shop.*—Continuation of the exercises in the use of the file, chipping chisel, and cross-cut chisel, and at the forge. Simple applications.

**Third Year.**

Extension and completion of the preceding syllabuses for each section.

(2.)—**PRACTICAL AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.**

**First Year.**

The pupils are to be associated as helpers with their seniors in the work of the second and third year's courses.

## Second and Third Years.

*Spring and Summer Work.*—The chief operations in gardening. Culture demonstrations. Grafting. Comparative experiments with crops; different varieties of the same plant grown with the same manure; the same varieties grown with different manures.

Demonstration plots and fields.

Special methods and crops, according to the region.

*Winter Work.*—Preparation of materials used in agriculture; lime in its different forms, copper salts, etc.; their methods of use. An experimental study of the elements of a soil, of vegetable mould, of a plant ash, and of the chief manures (the experiments are to be purely qualitative).

Estimation of lime in a soil, of alcohol in a wine, etc.

## XV.—GYMNASTICS AND PHYSICAL EXERCISES:

(Two hours a week in each year.)

## First Year.

Games. School walks. Drilling exercises (formation of ranks, marching, breaking up and reassembling, doubling, and dividing). Rhythmical marching. Running evolutions in step. Movements in unison with and without appliances (dumb-bells, bar-bells, and clubs). Exercises in boxing. Exercises with the quarter-staff and single-stick. Exercises in pairs with ropes or bar-bells. Ladder exercises; suspension at full length, or with knees drawn up: (horizontal ladders, sloping ladders, ladders with a dorsal board, twin ladders). Vertical poles fixed in pairs. Horizontal beams. Vertical mast. Sloping boards. Different kinds of jumping, excluding jumping from a height. Swimming.

## Second Year.

Games and the same exercises as above. Extension of drilling exercises. Extension of exercises in boxing and exercises with the quarter-staff and single-stick. Fencing. Short distance races. Jumping from a height. Vaulting.

## Third Year.

The same games and exercises as above.

Jumping with a pole.

Exercises on the horizontal bar.

## XVI.—SINGING.

(One hour a week in each of the three years.)

## First Year.

General exercises on the blackboard, in intonation and time. Intervals and rhythm.

Oral and written dictation, in *do* major first, afterwards, when the ear has been well trained to recognise the sounds of the natural scale, in adjacent keys.

Exercises in reading by means of graduated solfeggi. Each pupil must be made to sol-fa separately.

Study of the chief major keys and of *la minor*.  
 Exercises in pronunciation and diction.  
 School songs in two parts.

**Second Year.**

Comparison of intervals; change of tonic and formation of the scale.

Staff notation and its rules. Practice in the use of the treble and bass clefs and of the most commonly used time measures.

Easy dictations and solfeggi in the chief major keys and their relative minors, at first in the treble and afterwards in the bass clef.

School songs in two parts.

**Third Year.**

Recapitulation of the exercises of the second year, in a more advanced form; reading, diction, intonation, time, musical dictation.

School songs in two or more parts. Passages are to be chosen from the most popular works of the great masters, and these are to be studied and sung, with accompaniment if possible. A few details concerning the composers are to be given.

## PART II.

### CURRICULA OF THE PROFESSIONAL SECTIONS.

**Second and Third Years.**

**I.—MORAL INSTRUCTION.**

(One hour a week in each year.)

The programmes for the three Sections (Industrial, Commercial, and Agricultural) are the same as those for the General Course (pp. 10-16).

**II.—FRENCH LANGUAGE.**

(Two hours a week in each year.)

In and after the second year, the pupils of the Industrial, Commercial and Agricultural Sections will only attend the reading lesson each week, and once in two weeks the dictation class or the French composition class alternately. The programmes are the same as those for the General Course (pp. 16-20).

**III.—WRITING.**

(One hour a week in each year.)

The same programmes as those for the General Course (p. 20).

**IV.—HISTORY AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.**

(One hour a week in each year.)

The programmes for the three Sections are to be the same as those for the General Course (pp. 20-26), apart from such curtail-

ments of detail as the teacher may regard as advisable in teaching the pupils of the professional Sections.

#### V.—GEOGRAPHY.

*Commercial Section.*—Two hours a week in each year.

*Industrial and Agricultural Sections.*—One hour a week in each year.

In the Commercial Section, two hours a week being given to geography instead of one, both in the second and third years, the teacher, while following the general programme (pp. 26–32), is to employ the additional hour of which he disposes in studying more completely with the pupils of that Section the commercial geography of France as well as of the chief countries of Europe; he will devote the surplus time which remains to the study of other parts of the globe, but must dwell especially on their commercial relations with France.

The commercial geography of the countries of North and South America is to be studied thoroughly in the second year.

The programmes for the Industrial and Agricultural Sections are the same as those for the General Course (pp. 26–32).

#### VI.—MODERN LANGUAGES.

*(Commercial Section.*—Four hours a week.)

The same programme as for the General Course (pp. 32–33).

Practical applications are to receive special attention; reading and making out of commercial documents, such as invoices, sales accounts, bills of lading, commercial bills, etc. Whenever possible the pupils are to be exercised in reading manuscript letters or autograph copies. Great importance is to be attached to the translation of commercial letters into the foreign language. The exercises in conversation are to be conducted so as to keep in view most particularly the advantages to be derived from them with regard to the commerce of the region.

#### VII.—MATHEMATICS.

*(Commercial and Agricultural Sections.*—Two hours a week. *Industrial Section.*—Three hours a week.)

For the Commercial and Agricultural Sections the syllabus is the same as for the General Course (pp. 33–37); but as the pupils in these sections have only two hours a week instead of three, the necessary curtailments should be applied by the teacher to the developments in theoretical arithmetic and geometry and to the exercises in revision and questioning, which are especially necessary for the pupils in the General Course and for those in the Industrial Section.

For the pupils of the Industrial Section who are being prepared for the competitive examinations for admission to the technical schools (*écoles des arts et métiers*), the schools of engineering apprentices (*écoles des apprentis mécaniciens*), and the schools for naval

artificers (*élèves mécaniciens de la flotte*), supplementary courses are to be organised for the express purpose of this special preparation. The syllabus given below is to serve as a basis for such courses. It is to be observed that this programme is entirely outside the limits of higher primary teaching, properly so-called, and is only justified by the requirements of the competition.

#### ARITHMETIC.

Powers. Integral powers.

Division by a product of two or more factors; cases in which the successive divisions do not come out exactly (without remainder).

Finding of the Least Common Multiple of two numbers by means of their Greatest Common Measure.

A number can be resolved into one and only one set of prime factors.

If two numbers are prime to each other, their powers are prime to each other.

Every number divisible separately by two others, prime to each other, is divisible by their product.

Application of resolution into prime factors, to finding the divisors of a number.

Recurring decimals. The conditions necessary and sufficient in order that a fraction expressed in its lowest terms may be convertible into an exact decimal or into a recurring decimal, pure or mixed.

Extraction of the square root of a whole number or a fraction (1) to the nearest unit, (2) to within  $\frac{1}{n}$  of its value. Definition of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  root of a number which is not an exact  $n^{\text{th}}$  power.

Extraction of the cube root of a whole number or a fraction (1) to the nearest unit, (2) to within  $\frac{1}{n}$  of its value.

#### SOLID GEOMETRY.

Elementary properties of re-entrant polygons. Conditions of equality of trihedral angles. Supplementary trihedral angles. Limits of the sum of the angles of the faces and dihedral angles of a trihedral angle. Conditions under which it is possible to form a trihedral angle with three given faces or three given dihedral angles.

#### ALGEBRA.

A very short explanation of the division of polynomials.—Remainder in the division of an integral polynomial in  $x$  by  $x-a$ .—Division of  $x^m \pm a^m$  by  $x \pm a$ .

Algebraic fractions. Zero exponent, negative exponents.

Calculation of roots. Fractional exponents.

Equations of the first degree. General theorems relating to equations. Resolution of two or more (simultaneous) equations of the first degree. Complete discussion of the formulæ obtained in

the resolution of two equations of two unknowns. Problems involving equations of the first degree ; example of their discussion. Cases of impossibility and of indetermination. Interpretation of negative quantities. Fundamental theorems in inequalities.

Equation of the second degree with one unknown. Properties of its terms, and discussion of the equation.

VIII.—ACCOUNTANCY AND BOOK-KEEPING.

(*Commercial Section.*—Three hours a week. *Industrial Section.*—Two hours a week. *Agricultural Section.*—One hour a week.)

(I.)—COMMERCIAL SECTION.

Second Year.

*Commerce.—Book-keeping.*

*Commerce.*

Different kinds of commerce.

Different kinds of traders and intermediaries.

Exchange. Documents relating to exchange. Settlement of indebtedness. Transport ; formalities ; documents.

*Book-keeping.*

The principal terms used in book-keeping. To, By, Dr., Cr. Incoming, Outgoing. Accountancy. Book-keeping. The Accountant. The Book-keeper.

*Accounts.*—Theory. Reasoned practical exercises. Two great classes of accounts : impersonal accounts, *i.e.*, of the property comprising the stock of the undertaking ; personal accounts or accounts of third parties, having business relations with the undertaking. Mathematical expression of commercial operations.

*Classification and Analysis of Accounts.*—(1) Accounts relating to nominal capital ; (2) Accounts relating to working capital ; (3) Personal creditor and debtor accounts ; (4) Profit and loss accounts. (See Footnote on p. 38 above.)

*The Journal.*—Journals or subsidiary analytical books. General or synthetic journal. Formulæ for daily entries. Formulæ for recurring entries, daily or periodic. Advantage of adding up the money columns in the subsidiary books and the general journal.

*The Ledger and Collective Accounts.*—General ledger. Supplementary ledgers. Relations of the journals and ledgers. Collective accounts ; their use, their working.

*Balancing the Accounts and Verification Sheet (Chiffrier Balance).*—Verification of agreement of ledger with journal. Utility and working of the verification sheet.

*List of Assets and Liabilities. Balance Sheet.*—Trial balance. Verification of the stock. Adjustment of the stock account. Sinking funds [and depreciation]. Balance sheet. Balance sheet book.

*Practical Exercises.*

(1.) *Book-keeping for Non-Traders.*

Series of transactions including receipts and expenditure, purchases for cash or on credit, and final saving, whence capital. Closing of the accounts for the trading period. Balance sheet.

*Book-keeping for the Small Capitalist.*—Opening balances showing the composition of the capital. Opening of accounts in classified order. Series of transactions including receipts, expenditure, deposits in a Savings Bank, purchase of furniture, tools, subscriptions to the shares of a co-operative society for consumers, etc.

*Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance.—Balance sheet.

(2.) *Commercial Book-keeping.*

Opening balances. Opening of the accounts in accordance with this inventory and in classified order. Series of operations including purchases, sales, returns, payment by cash, or on credit terms; receipt and negotiation of bills receivable, delivery and return of bills payable, clearing of accounts, discounting and negotiation of bills, balances.

*Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance. Adjustments of the accounts. Balance sheet. Closing and re-opening of the accounts.

*Third Year.*

*Revision of the Second Year Course.*

*Elements of Business Management.*—Organisation of a business house. The capital necessary. The division of this capital into fixed capital, reserve, and circulating capital. Credit. General expenses. Their influence on final cost. Book-keeping and its importance in commercial economy. Reciprocal duties of the trader and his employees.

*Third Year Practical Exercises.*

(i.) *Book-keeping for the Small Capitalist.*—Series of operations comprising, in addition to the transactions enumerated above, purchases and sales of securities, purchase and management of a small property, sale of such property, etc. *Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance. Sinking [and depreciation] funds. Adjustment of the accounts. Balance sheet.

(ii.) *Commercial Book-keeping.*—Series of transactions including: current accounts at the bank, paying in, drawing cheques; negotiation, discounting and collection of bills, buying of stock-exchange securities. Consigning of merchandise. Transactions on joint account. Working of invoices, warehouse accounts, and account sales. *Closing of the accounts for the year.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance. Adjustment of the accounts. Sinking [and depreciation] funds. Final balance. Balance sheet. Balance sheet book. Closing and re-opening of the accounts.

(iii.) *Account-Current.*—Three methods. Calculation by numbers and aliquot parts. Reasoned exercises.

(iv.) *Elements of Commercial Correspondence.*—Necessity for conducting business by correspondence. Style of commercial

correspondence. Practical exercises bearing on the business dealt with in the exercises on commercial book-keeping.

(2.)—INDUSTRIAL SECTION.

Second Year.

The same syllabus as that for the Commercial Section, Second Year, p. 57. (The practical exercises to be more restricted.)

Third Year.

*Revision of the Second Year Course.*

*Elementary Principles of Industrial Management.*—Organisation of a factory. The capital necessary. The division of this capital into fixed capital, available funds or marketable investments, and circulating capital.

Credit. Elements of final cost; raw materials, labour, general expenses. Book-keeping and its importance in industrial economy. The duties of the employee, the workman, and the manufacturer towards each other.

*Practical Exercises.*

(i.) *Book-keeping for the Small Capitalist.*—Series of transactions including, in addition to transactions enumerated above (*see* the second year syllabus for the Commercial Section, p. 57), purchase and sale of shares, purchase and management of a small property, sale of such property, etc. *Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance. Sinking [and depreciation] funds. Adjustment of the accounts. Balance sheet.

(ii.) *Industrial Book-keeping.*—Opening balances. Opening of accounts in accordance with this inventory and in classified order. Series of operations including purchase of raw materials and turning raw material into manufactured products. Periodic analysis of wages, and general expenses in working accounts. Working of the invoices, warehouse accounts, and account sales. *Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets. Trial balance. Adjustment of accounts. Sinking [and depreciation] funds. Final balance. Balance sheet. Balance sheet book. Closing and re-opening of the accounts.

(iii.) *Account Current.*—Three methods. Calculation by numbers and aliquot parts. Reasoned exercises.

(iv.) *Elements of Commercial Correspondence.*—Necessity for conducting business by correspondence. Style of commercial correspondence. Practical exercises bearing on the business dealt with in the exercises on commercial book-keeping. Advantage of good handwriting.

(3.)—AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

Second Year.

The same syllabus as for the Commercial Section, Second Year Course, p. 57 (very brief practical exercises).

## Third Year.

*Revision of the Second Year Course.*

*Elements of Agricultural Management.*—Organisation of a farm of medium size. The capital required. The division of this capital into fixed capital, available funds or marketable securities, and capital engaged in cultivation and live stock. Elements of prime cost. Raw materials, manure, labour, animal labour, general expenses. Book-keeping and its importance in agricultural economy.

*Practical Exercises.*

*Agricultural Book-keeping.*—Opening balances. Opening of the accounts in accordance with this inventory and in the order of its classification. A series of operations in cultivation and cattle-raising for a farm of medium size, comprising the buying of raw materials and the cultivation and harvesting work for a trading-period. Working out of the accounts of purchase, stores, of cultivation and cattle-raising, and of sales. *Closing of the accounts for the trading-period.* Detailed list of assets and liabilities. Trial balance. Adjustment of the accounts. Sinking [and depreciation] fund. Final balance. Balance sheet. Closing and re-opening of the accounts.

## IX.—PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY.

(For each of the three Sections, two hours a week in each year.)

The same syllabus as for the General Course (pp. 39-41). The applications are to be varied in the different sections in accordance with their special requirements.

## X.—NATURAL HISTORY AND HYGIENE.

(*Commercial and Industrial Sections.*—One hour a week in each of the two years. *Agricultural Section.*—Two hours a week in each year.)

The syllabuses for the Commercial and Industrial Sections are the same as those for the General Course (pp. 42-46). The syllabus for the Agricultural Section is given below :—

## Second Year.

## (1.)—ZOOLOGY.

Complementary study of the organisation of domestic animals. The small number of such animals relatively to the great number of animal species. What they were or are in the wild state ; modifications which they have undergone through domestication. The means employed to adapt them to our needs—selection, crossing, creation of breeds. Conditions necessary in order to obtain and maintain these changes.

The *Dog* : its organisation ; its different qualities. Breeds which it is useful to know. The *Cat*.—The *Horse* : its structure, skeleton, muscular system, tegument. Its dentition, determination of age by the teeth. Feeding ; daily rations, care of the

horses; its various uses and qualities; the chief breeds.—The *Ass* and the *Mule*.—The *Pig*: its uses; the various breeds.—The *Rabbit*.—The *Ox*: structure of the ruminants. Dentition, rumination. Feeding, daily rations, for subsistence, for work, for fattening. Its qualities and utilisation for farm labour and for food; its different products.—The *Cow*: secretion of milk; the different breeds of cattle.—*Sheep* and *Goats*: their uses. The breeds of sheep and goats.

*Farmyard Birds*.—The structure of one of the farm-yard birds, e.g. the fowl, is to be selected as a type; its skeleton, tegument, egg. Feeding and uses.

The *Silk-worm*.—Structure, secretion of the silk. Silk-worm rearing-houses (*magnaneries*).—The *bee*: its structure, habits, uses: wax and honey, etc.

(2.)—BOTANY.

[To be added to the syllabus common to the three Sections (p. 44).]

More detailed notions on plants in their relation to agriculture. The intervention of man in order to modify the natural development of vegetables according to his needs. The plant considered as the means by the aid of which the cultivator can manufacture vegetable matter from the substances contained in the soil and atmosphere.

The kitchen garden, the fruit garden.

Diseases of plants.—Injury caused by insects, etc. The discussion of questions which have a particular local interest.

(3.)—GEOLOGY.

[To be added to the syllabus common to the three Sections (p. 45).]

Short study of the surrounding country from a geological point of view. Influence of the nature of the sub-soil on the composition of the soil. Depth of the arable layers; compactness of the sub-soil; degree of permeability. Necessity for special operations in order to adapt the soil for certain crops. General aspect of the geological formation. Degree of regularity of the beds. Plains and undulations. Meteorological consequences. Proximity of water courses; its advantages and drawbacks.

Third Year.

(1.)—ZOOLOGY.

[To be added to the syllabus common to the three Sections (p. 43).]

More detailed consideration of animals in their relation to agriculture.

Useful and noxious animals.

The discussion of questions which have a particular local interest.

(2.)—BOTANY.

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (p. 44).]

(3.)—GEOLOGY.

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (p. 45).]

## (4.) HYGIENE.

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (p. 45).]

## XI.—THEORETICAL AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

(This instruction is not given in the *Commercial* and *Industrial Sections*.  
Three hours a week in each year in the *Agricultural Section*.)

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (p. 46).]

## OUTLINES OF TECHNOLOGY.

(For the *Industrial* and *Commercial Sections*.)

*Extractive Industries*.—Mines and quarries. Extraction of the principal materials used in buildings. Fuel: coal, coke, peat, and charcoal.—Iron; cast-iron. Steel. Sheet-iron. Iron wire.

*Preparatory Industries*.—Casting, forging, nail-making. Screws. Bolts. Household utensils. Locks. Cutlery. Arms. Chief machine tools.

Commercial acids. Soda and potash manufacture. Salt or chloride of sodium. Starch works. Oils and soaps. Industries connected with the preparation of leathers and skins.

*Food Industries*.—Flour-mills, bakeries, Italian pastes [macaroni, etc.]. Butter. Cheese. Preserved foods. Sugar. Confectionery. Wines. Beers. Ciders. Alcohols and brandy. Vinegar.

*Industries connected with Clothing and Haberdashery*.—Silk. Flax. Hemp. Cotton. Wool. Notions on spinning.

Textiles; their manufacture. Elementary sketch of the finishing processes, of dyeing, bleaching, and printing of cloth.

Hat-making. Shoe-making. Glove-making.

Needles and pins. Buttons. Brushes and combs.

*Industries connected with Housing and Furnishing*.—Elementary principles of house building. Wall papers. Joinery and cabinet-making.

Porcelains. Earthenware. Pottery. Glass and Lead-glass. Candles. Stearine candles. Illuminating gas. Electric lighting.

*Industries supplying the needs of intellectual pursuits*. Paper. Steel pens. Pencils. Printing. Engraving and Lithography.

Outlines of photography and its chief applications to arts and industries.

## XII.—COMMON LAW AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

(One hour a week in the third year in each of the three Sections.)

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (pp. 47-51).]

## XIII.—DRAWING AND MODELLING.

(*Industrial Section*.—Four hours and a half a week in each year. *Commercial* and *Agricultural Sections*.—One hour and a half a week in each year.)

The syllabus for the *Industrial Section* is the same as for the General Course (pp. 51-52) with the following additions:—

*Second Year*: Working drawings dimensioned and finished and coloured conventionally to indicate materials.

*Third Year*: Working drawings of machines or machine-parts made from dimensioned sketches.

*For the Agricultural and Commercial Sections.*

*Second Year.*—Geometrical drawing only.

*Third Year.*—Dimensioned sketches of simple constructions and finished drawings to scale.

#### XIV.—MANUAL AND AGRICULTURAL TRAINING.

(*Commercial Section.*—Two hours a week. *Industrial Section.*—Six hours a week in each year.)

##### (1.)—WORKSHOP TRAINING.

In the *Commercial Section* the syllabus is to be limited to the most elementary and ordinary exercises.

For the *Industrial and Agricultural Sections*, the syllabus is the same as that for the General Course (p. 52) with more numerous applications.

##### (2.)—PRACTICAL AGRICULTURE AND HORTICULTURE.

For the *Agricultural Section* the syllabus comprises the subjects given below to be dealt with in the time allotted in the time-table to manual and agricultural training.

##### (a) *Indoor Work.*

*Study of seeds.*—Identification of seeds of cultivated plants, and of weeds. Seeds of dodder. Destruction of dodder. Determination of the purity of seed-samples.

*Germination.*—Determination of the germinating power of seeds.

*Soils.*—Their composition. Their mineral elements. Mechanical analysis of soils. Sedentary soils; the subjacent rock. Transported soils.

Taking of samples of soil for the purpose of analysis. Distinction between soil and sub-soil.

*Manures.*—External properties of artificial manures. Their preparation, and the way in which they should be distributed. Sampling of commercial manures for the purpose of analysis.

*Agricultural implements.*—Taking apart and putting together. Lubrication. Replacing of damaged parts. The working of the different implements. Upkeep and repairs.

*Study of plants.* Collection of plants. Analysis of hay-mixture.

*The dairy.*—Study of milk. Determination of the percentage of fat in milk. Butter-making. Cheese-making and rennet-making. The measures to be taken in order to ensure absolute cleanliness.

*Dentition and the age of cattle.*—The pupils are to practise on anatomical specimens, and, as occasion offers, on living animals.

*The foot of the horse, the ox, the ass, and shoeing.*—Making of shoes and shoeing.

*Bee-hives.*—Different types of hives. The making of different types of hives, and particularly of those with movable frames.

*Materials connected with gardening.*—Making of straw-matting. Trellis work. Props. Spades. Rakes. Tool-handles, etc.

*Remedies for diseases of plants.*—Making of quick-lime. Preparation of milk of lime, solutions of sulphate of iron, of Bordeaux mixture, and other similar mixtures; *bouillie bourguignonne*, sulphate of copper, etc.

The use of the sprayer.

Steeping of seed-corn.

*Out-buildings and materials.*—Poultry-houses, rabbit-hutches, pig-styes. How to keep them in good condition, washing, painting, etc. Disinfection of the out-buildings. Cattle-sheds, stables, sheep-folds, etc.

*Management.*—Bee-keeping, rabbit, pigeon, and poultry-raising and fattening.

Collections of insects.

(b) *Outdoor Work.*

Use of the spade, rake, roller, mowing machine, etc.

*Grafts.*—Grafts of young trees in the nursery.

*Pruning of fruit trees.*

*Seedlings, transplanting, cuttings, etc.*

*Cleaning operations.*

*Management of dung.*—Preparation and application of the supplementary manures (mineral and other manures). Making of composts. *Application of flowers of sulphur* by means of bellows, as a remedy against mildew in vines, and in different vegetables, peas, melons, etc.

Application of copper mixtures by means of a sprayer to protect potatoes and tomatoes against disease, vines against mildew, pear-trees against scab, etc.

*Harvesting, storing, and preservation of crops and produce.*—Haycocks, stacks, silos, etc.

*Special plots* for the comparative study of different manures and of the different varieties of cultivated plants.

*Visits* to nursery gardens, gardens, agricultural undertakings, and to the neighbouring markets and fairs. Each visit or excursion is to form the subject of a written report by each pupil which is to be corrected carefully by the teacher.

XV.—GYMNASTIC AND PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

(Two hours a week in each year.)

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (p. 53).]

XVI.—SINGING.

(One hour a week in each year.)

[The same syllabus as for the General Course (pp. 53–54).]

*Translated for the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports by*

P. J. HARTOG.\*

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\* The Translator desires to acknowledge his great indebtedness to specialist friends who have been good enough to revise the various technical sections of this translation, although he is alone responsible for any error that may have remained undetected.

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## II.—SCHEME OF WORK AND SYLLABUS OF INSTRUCTION IN HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS.

(For Schools providing a full course, three years' course of study.)

### TIME TABLE AND CURRICULA.

(*Arrêté* of August 18th, 1893,\* Art. 1-3 and Schedule B.)

The apportionment of subjects taught in Higher Primary Schools for Girls is regulated in accordance with the following considerations :—

(1) The time devoted to the courses, which head mistresses, professors and assistant mistresses have to give, is determined by the following table :—

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK.

Subjects.	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.
Moral Instruction - - -	1	1	1
French Language - - -	4	4	4
Writing - - - - -	1	1	0
History and Civic Instruction -	1	1	1
Geography - - - - -	1	1	1
Modern Languages - - -	3	3	3
Arithmetic and Elements of Geo- metry - - - - -	2	1	1
Accountancy and Book-keeping	0	1	1
Physical and Natural Sciences, Hygiene - - - - -	2	2	2
Common Law and Political Economy - - - - -	0	0	1
Drawing - - - - -	3	3	3
Needlework and Domestic Economy - - - - -	4	4	4
Gymnastics - - - - -	1	1	1
Singing - - - - -	1	1	1
Total - - - - -	24	24	24

(2) In addition to the hours devoted to courses of study, properly so-called, the mistresses shall, for the total number of hours required of each of them by the Act of August 14th, 1893, regulating public administration, give supplementary lectures, and, after consultation with the head mistress, the necessary time, whether for superintending preparation, for advice and pedagogic guidance, or for practical work outside the class-room, and during the lessons which permit of this kind of work (gymnastics, walks and scientific excursions, botanical research, horticulture, etc.).

\* Modified by *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897.

Instruction is to be given in accordance with the syllabuses given below.

These syllabuses serve as basis for the distribution of the subjects provided for in Article 37 of the *Décret Organique*, as modified by the *Décret* of January 21st, 1893. The teachers, however, in view of its adaptation to the instruction of girls, may make such modifications as they think necessary, particularly in those schools which do not give a full course, provided always that such modifications are approved by the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

In those schools in which there is organised professional instruction (industrial, commercial or agricultural), the distribution of time and the schemes of special courses shall be fixed for each institution by the *Inspecteur d'Académie* on the proposal of the head mistress, after consultation with the teachers.

*N.B.*—The Curricula\* are divided thus :—A. General Instruction ; B. Professional Sections.

The syllabuses follow each other in the order enumerated the table above, viz. :—

- (1) Moral Instruction.
- (2) French Language.
- (3) Writing.
- (4) History and Civic Instruction.
- (5) Geography.
- (6) Modern Languages.
- (7) Arithmetic and Elements of Geometry.
- (8) Book-keeping.
- (9) Physical and Natural Sciences.
- (10) Common Law and Political Economy.
- (11) Drawing.
- (12) Needlework and Domestic Economy.
- (13) Gymnastics.
- (14) Singing.

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## PART I.

### CURRICULA OF GENERAL INSTRUCTION.

#### I.—MORAL INSTRUCTION.

(One hour a week in all three years. This course to be given by Head Mistress.)

*General Observations.*—The Syllabus for Moral Instruction in girls' schools is, in the main, the same as that in boys' schools.†

The mistresses entrusted with moral teaching in girls' schools shall adapt their lessons to the requirements of their pupils, and shall dwell on certain special duties which fall on girls and women.

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\* Schedule B. of *Arrêté* of August 18th, 1893.

† See above, p. 10, the Scheme for Moral Instruction in Boys' Schools.

*Duties of a girl to herself.*—To strengthen her judgment and will, in view of her peculiar obligations, and the duties awaiting her in family life and society. The subjects of these exhortations include modesty in dress, conduct and language.

*Family Duties.*—The part played by girls in the family should be unobtrusive, modest, and effectual. Maternal duties of eldest sister. Duty of girls to take part in all domestic tasks, not merely without reluctance, but with zeal.

*Social Duties.*—Woman, by kindness, patience and unruffled temper, shows the superiority of concord over discord. Avoiding argument and recrimination, she shows what may be done by persuasion, a conciliatory spirit, the love of peace, and mutual respect.

*Civic Duties.*—As sister, wife, and mother of citizens, woman has in all ages exercised a more or less powerful influence on our morals. To-day, by reason of the more varied and more thorough instruction received, she can strengthen and ennoble our action. Pity and charity are her special gifts, and it is quite natural that, in peace and in war, she inspires us with respect for the laws and love of country.

The mistress should constantly strive to give living interest to her moral course by readings, stories and talks with the pupils.

[The syllabus in moral instruction as given in boys' schools here follows (*See above*, pp. 10-16).]

## II.—FRENCH LANGUAGE.

(Five hours in the first and second year; four hours in the third year.)

[The syllabus is the same as that for boys' schools (*See above*, pp. 16-20), except for the following section, which corresponds to (4) p. 18 above in the boys' syllabus.]

### (iv.) A FEW TRANSLATIONS OF FOREIGN MASTERPIECES.

*Don Quixote* : Selections.

Selections from German poetry.

Auerbach : *The Barefooted Maid*.

Charles and Mary Lamb : *Tales from Shakespere*.

De Foe : *Robinson Crusoe*.

Sir Walter Scott : *The Antiquary*.

Franklin : *The Science of Poor Richard*.

Mrs. Beecher Stowe : *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

Charles Dickens : *Christmas Carol*.

George Eliot : *Silas Marner*.

Mrs. Gaskell : *Cranford*, etc.

## III.—WRITING.

(One hour a week each year.)

[The syllabus is the same as that for boys' schools (*See above*, p. 20).]

#### IV.—HISTORY AND CIVIC INSTRUCTION.

(One hour a week in the first two years only.)

[The syllabus is the same as that for boys' schools (*See above*, pp. 20-26); but it is recommended that, in foreign, political, military and diplomatic history, the facts should be gone through more quickly.]

#### V.—GEOGRAPHY.

(One hour a week in all three years.)

[The syllabus is the same as that for boys' schools (*See above*, pp. 26-32); but the parts of the world outside Europe are to be dealt with in less detail.]

#### VI.—MODERN LANGUAGES.

(Three hours a week in each of the three years.)

[*See above*, Syllabus for boys' schools, pp. 32-33.]

#### VII.—ARITHMETIC AND ELEMENTS OF GEOMETRY.

(First year, two hours a week. Second and third years, one hour a week.)

##### 1.—ARITHMETIC.

###### First Year.

Sums and problems involving the use of whole numbers or fractions.—Household accounts.

Tests of divisibility by 2, 4, 5, 9, 3.—Proof of multiplication by casting out nines.

Legal system of weights and measures.—Its advantages.

Proportion : proportion sums worked by unitary method.

Simple Interest.—Discount.—Rapid calculations of ordinary rates.—Government stocks.—Savings Banks.

###### Second Year.

Square root: Practice in working.—Application.

Recapitulation of the metric system.—Problems.—Application to household accounts.

Ratio and proportion.

Divisions into proportional parts.—Arithmetical rules of partnership, alligation and mixture.

###### Third Year.

Simple problems leading up to determination of numerical equations of first degree.

Recapitulation.

##### 2.—ELEMENTS OF GEOMETRY.

*General Observations.*—The instruction consists of two parts :—  
(1) Drawing, (2) Measurement of surface and bulk.

The object aimed at in (1) is to familiarise the pupils with a few simple geometrical forms, and to teach them to make a few elementary line drawings; it is not thought necessary to insist on exactness; intuition must be appealed to as often as possible, and if a construction cannot be proved without a long series of propositions, the teacher must confine himself to describing without proving it.

Thus, after defining the perpendicular to a straight line, he will point out that the oblique lines drawn to this straight line from a point in the perpendicular are longer than the latter, that they increase as the distance increases between their intersection with the line and the foot of the perpendicular, and that this is the same on both sides alike. These observations, which will be considered self-evident, will suffice to prove the construction of a perpendicular from the middle point of a straight line. It will be admitted that two parallel lines are equidistant throughout; advantage will be taken of the drawing of parallel lines by means of the set square to explain that the corresponding angles are equal, etc. These suggestions, which could easily be multiplied, will suffice to show the spirit in which the teaching should be given. The same remarks apply to (2), in which any demonstrations that cannot be presented in an intuitive form must be avoided.

#### First Year.

The ruler, the compass. The straight line, the circle. One ruler made to pass over another; a solid circle may be made to turn in a hollow, equal and concentric circle. Familiar examples of the rotation of a solid body round a stationary straight line; door and its hinges. Measurements of length by graduated ruler.

Definition of angles. Angles in the centre: equal angles correspond to equal arcs, and conversely; valuation of angles by means of protractor. Division of dial of clock. Right angle.

Perpendicular to a straight line. Oblique lines. Isosceles triangle. Construction of perpendicular from middle of straight line; division of straight line into 2, 4, 8 . . . equal parts. Draw a perpendicular line from a point to a straight line. Circle circumscribed about a triangle. Bisectors of an angle. Tangent to a circle. Triangle inscribed in a circle.

Parallel lines: drawing of parallel lines by means of a set square. Advantage may be taken of the motion of the set square in this construction to give an idea of the translation of a figure in its plane. Given a polygon and a straight line, equal and parallel to one of its sides, construct on this straight line a polygon equal to the first. Parallelogram; ratio of equality between sides or between angles (without demonstration). Rhombus, rectangle, square. A rectangle may be inscribed in a circle. It may be pointed out in this connection, and without further demonstration, that an angle inscribed in a semi-circle is a right angle. Use of this remark in the construction of perpendiculars. Tangent to a circle through a point exterior to it. Tangents common to two circles.

Inscription in the circle of square, hexagon, and equilateral triangle. Examples of embroideries and inlaid floors made with these regular polygons.

Construction of triangles.

**Second Year.**

Proportional straight lines. Division of straight line into equal parts, into parts proportional to given lines.

Idea of similitude: similar and similarly placed figures. Reduce or enlarge a figure in a given ratio.

Measurement of rectangle. (It may be supposed that the unit of length is contained a whole number of times in the two dimensions, and the rectangle may be divided into squares.) Measurement of parallelogram, triangle, trapezium, and any polygon. Evaluation of area of a polygon on the ground. Ratio between the areas of two similar figures. Evaluate approximately any area, by representing it, on any convenient scale, on paper marked out in squares, or by cutting out figures drawn on sufficiently thick paper and weighing them.

Divide up the square constructed on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, so as to show that it is equivalent to the sum of the squares constructed on the other sides. Metrical relation between the sides of a right-angled triangle.

Construct a triangle equal to a given polygon.

Construction (without proof) of the mean proportional between two lines. Construction of a square equivalent to a given rectangle or given polygon.

**Third Year.**

The conception of a perpendicular to a plane. If a square be turned round one of the sides of a right angle, the other side produces a plane. Movement of opening door; line of the hinges is vertical, bottom of the door passes along the floor, which is horizontal. Familiar examples of perpendicular and parallel planes, of straight lines and planes parallel to them; walls of class-room, floor and ceiling, lines of intersection of these different planes.

Forms of prism, rectangular or oblique paralleliped and pyramid. Measurement of their volume. Explanations should be limited to those affecting the rectangular paralleliped and right prism. In the case of other solids, rules and formulæ will be given without any proof.

Forms of cylinder and cone. Measurement of their volume. Form of sphere; large circles, small circles, tangent plane; meridians, parallels, longitude, latitude. (The instruction should be purely descriptive.) Surface and volume of sphere. Application to terrestrial globe.

VIII.—ACCOUNTANCY AND BOOK-KEEPING.

(Second and third years, one hour a week.)

[*See above* Syllabus for boys' schools (pp. 37-39).]

IX.—PHYSICAL AND NATURAL SCIENCES. HYGIENE.

(Two hours a week in all three years.)

1.—PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY.

(One hour a week in all three years.)

(a) *Physics.*

[For the first and second years, *See above* Syllabus for boys' schools (pp. 39-40).]

*Third Year.*

Elementary theory of the lever, balance and steel-yard.

Descriptive lesson on eye-glasses, magnifying glasses, compound microscopes and astronomical telescopes.

Elementary theory of induction and induction machinery.—Application. — Electric light. — Electro-plating. — Telephones. — Microphones.

Elementary photography.

Qualities of sound: Pitch.—Musical intervals.—Intensity.—Timbre.—Recapitulation.

(b) *Chemistry.*

[*See above* Syllabus for boys' schools (pp. 40-41).]

2.—NATURAL HISTORY.

(One hour a week in all three years.)

(a)—*Zoology.*

[*See above* Syllabus for boys' schools (pp. 42-43).]

(b) *Botany.*

[*See above* Syllabus for boys' schools (pp. 43-45).]

(c) *Geology.*

*Third Year.*

Present day phenomena, effects produced by them. What may be deduced from them with regard to past phenomena. Central heat, earthquakes, volcanoes and volcanic products, some very elementary data as to constitution of earth's crust.

*Igneous Rocks.*—Origin. Upheavals and subsidences of soil; formation of mountains and valleys.

*Sedimentary Strata.*—Origin and formation. Elementary sketch of materials used in industry and agriculture. Fossils; information which they give us as to successive appearance of organic creatures.

3.—HYGIENE.

(Scheme modified by *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897.)

Third Year.

*Hygiene.*—Its object. Usefulness.

*Air.*—Quantity of air necessary in dwelling-houses. Danger of stale air in confined spaces. Renewal of air by airing and ventilation.

Damp neighbourhoods.

*Water.*—Different kinds of drinking water; spring, river and well water. Only spring water pure; all others liable to contamination. Different sources of contamination. Means of purifying drinking water; filtration, boiling.

*Dwelling-house.*—Soil, aspect, ventilation. Heating. Lighting; its importance as regards eyesight.

*Food.*—Ordinary liquid and solid food. Chief adulterations. Common means of detecting these. Dangerous animal foods; parasites and infectious germs (trichinosis, measly pork, anthrax, tuberculosis). Putrid meat (poisoning by pork, pork-sausages).

*Beverages:*

(1) Aromatic beverages (tea, coffee).

(2) Fermented beverages (cider, beer, wine). Action of fermented beverages; harmful effects on health from misuse.

(3) Distilled beverages: brandy. Harmful effects of their habitual use.

(4) Alcoholic beverages to which essential oils have been added: absinthe and other *liqueurs*, so-called appetisers (*apéritifs*), and digestives. Grave danger of their use.

Drunkenness and alcoholism. Influence of alcoholism in parents on health of children.

*Clothing.*—Different properties of fabrics: silk, wool, cotton. Form of clothing from hygienic point of view. Danger of tight clothing (corsets, boots and shoes).

Clothing as means of transmitting germs of disease.

*Infant Hygiene.*—Suckling; insufficient or bad food.

*Personal Cleanliness.*—Baths, ablutions. Cosmetics; their dangers.

*Exercise.*—Its influence. Absolutely indispensable in the case of those with sedentary professions. Walking, running, gymnastics.

*Contagious Diseases.*—Means of transmission. Air, water, clothing, hangings, carpets.

*Vaccination, re-vaccination,* mortality from smallpox.

Diseases which may be transmitted by human excreta: typhoid fever, cholera.

Prophylactics, isolation, disinfection.

Diseases of scalp which may be spread, especially in schools, by toilet articles, by hats and caps.

## X.—COMMON LAW AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Third Year.

(One hour a week.)

## I.—COMMON LAW.

*Introduction.*

Written deeds considered as proofs. Authenticated deeds (*actes authentiques\**) and private deeds (*actes sous seing privé\**). Cases in which rights may be proved by witnesses.

## PART 1.

*Persons.*—Certificates of civil status (*actes de l'état civil*). Extracts from registers and family records.

*Marriage.*—Legal age for marriage. Consent of parents and observance of filial duties (*Actes respectueux*). Prohibition and dispensations on account of kinship, by blood or marriage. Domicile as regards marriage and publication. Documents to be given to registrar before marriage. Witnesses.

Disqualifications of married woman. Exceptional case when she can act without authorisation of her husband—opening an account at Post Office Savings Bank.

Competency of woman in trade or business.

Liability as to maintenance, and law of inheritance between husband and wife.

## MARRIAGE CONTRACT.

Community of goods limited to acquisitions made during marriage. Separation of goods; system of dowries.

Marriage without contract. Legal community of goods. Case in which wife's signature is necessary for the sale of real property belonging both to husband and wife.

Legal mortgage executed by married woman.

Guardianship. Guardians (*tuteur*), guardians specially appointed by the family council (*subrogé tuteur*). Family Council. Regulations peculiar to mothers acting as guardians. Trust funds and legal mortgage of minor on property of guardian.

*Emancipation of Minors.*—Legal capacity of emancipated minor. Legal capacity of tradesman who is an emancipated minor.

## PART 2.—PROPERTY.

What constitutes valid contract. Registration and stamp. Purpose of agreements.

*Sales.*—Sale of real property. Registration of deed at mortgage office. Obligation of vendor to deliver and guarantee. Obligation of purchaser to pay purchase money. Obligation of both vendor and purchaser to state actual price in contract. Vendor's privilege and subsequent action in case of non-payment of price. Cost of contract of sale.

*Loans or Bonds.*—Rate of interest in civil and commercial matters. Time bills. Joint and several bonds.

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\* See note on p. 49 above.

*Mortgages.*—Registration at mortgage office and renewal of registration. Withdrawal of mortgage.

*Leases.*—Verbal and written leases. Continued tenancy without renewal of lease. Registration of leases.

*Succession.*—Different kinds of heirs. Succession.

Acceptance. Renunciation. Acceptance with non-liability to debts beyond assets descended.

*Inventory.*—Cases in which it is necessary after a death. Interval allowed for reply or appearance in answer to a process. Form.

Division of estate. Cases in which justice requires that this should be done. Cost of division.

Declaration of succession at registration office. Duties on devolution of property.

*Wills.*—Forms and effect. Disposable portion and residue when testator bequeaths in favour of (1) relations or strangers, (2) husband or wife.

Obligation as to maintenance in the case of certain relations by blood or marriage. Liability of estate of deceased husband or wife as regards maintenance of surviving husband or wife.

## 2.—POLITICAL ECONOMY.

(Scheme modified by *Arrêté* of March 9th, 1897.)

### *Introduction.*

Man and his needs. Political economy and private economy.

Raw material and labour. Necessity of labour, of production.

Intellectual and physical labour.

Division of labour. Machinery.

Woman's work in industrial world.

Wages.

Stipends and salaries. Law of supply and demand.

Inferiority of women's wages.

Participation of work-people in profits.

Co-operative manufacturing societies.

Trade Societies.

Trade and currency.

Money does not constitute wealth.

Trader renders services.

Free trade and competition.

Exports and imports.

Credit. Currency of credit. Commercial bills. Commercial signature. Importance of signature given. Results.

Results of signature by a non-trading or non-commercial woman on bill of exchange.

Expenditure. Proper and improper expenditure.

Alcoholism. Influence on the impoverishment and indigence of individual and family. Effect on public wealth. What alcoholism costs France. Other results: crime, suicides, accidents at work.

Means of reducing expenses. Co-operative housekeeping and economical cooking ranges. Co-operative Provision Societies.

Savings and investments.

Savings Banks. Provident societies.

Pension funds. Mutual Benefit Societies [including Sick Funds, etc.]. Insurance. Life insurance. Insurance against fire, storm, etc.

Public expenditure and revenue. Indirect taxation. Stamp duties. Direct taxation.

## XI.—DRAWING.\*

(Three hours a week in all three years.)

### First Year.

*Introductory Principles.*—Object of drawing—a written language. Essential qualities—accuracy and clearness.

*Lessons in Observation.*—Explanatory study of *form*. Calculation; comparison at sight of different magnitudes. Analysis of forms of one or two models: proportions, harmony of different parts of a whole in view of laws of balance. Relation of form of objects to their purpose.

Character of model: general aspect; dominant dimension.

Axis of symmetry. Centre of gravity.

Effect of distance on appearance of objects: diminution of size, distortion, foreshortening.

Geometrical representation and perspective. Placing.

Rapid revision of geometrical outlines, figures alone and in combinations. Exercises on blackboard and on paper.

First elements of apparent perspective: perspective of parallel lines, square and circle. Setting out geometric solids at sight, and at the same time ordinary objects analogous in form to these solids. (Whenever possible, white objects or those of light and uniform colour are to be chosen).

Examples: Study of cube and parallelepiped. Sketches. Boxes, books, drawers.

Study of pyramid. Metal weights, tray, stool.

Study of cylinder. Wooden and metal measures, sieve.

Study of cone. Milk can, bucket, basin.

Study of sphere. Globe, bowl, dish-cover.

### Second Year.

Rapid sketches of fragments and ornamental subjects taken from model in relief, and consisting preferably of stems, leaves, flowers, fruit, boughs, palm leaves, streamers.

Elementary principles of decorative composition: fitness, unity in variety, balance of masses, etc. Different methods of ornamentation: symmetry, repetition, alternation, etc. Sources for papers: nature, works of art.

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\* For pedagogic directions, see *Mémoires et Documents Scolaires publiés par le Musée Pédagogique*, Part 35, *Enseignement du Dessin*. (Paris. Ch. Delagrave, and also Hachette, 1398.)

Production by class of a set of papers, making the collection by the help of (1) the best geometrical outlines and sketches of various designs executed previously; (2) sketches taken in museums or from local monuments; (3) photographs, engravings, various water colours, and patterns of printed or figured stuffs, embroideries, laces or wall papers, etc., all objects conformable to good taste and easy to obtain.

Lessons in arrangement: combination by the help of collected papers; composition of simple new designs. Subject diagrams.

Adaptation of these arrangement lessons to composition of designs for embroidery, tapestry braiding, etc.

#### Third Year.

Applied decorative composition. Flora and fauna of ornament.

Plant study from nature. Finding interesting forms from a decorative point of view. Study of local flora, both fresh and dried. Aspect of flower, disposition of foliage, fruit or seed and roots. Sections of flowers, fruit and seed. Flowers laid flat.

Birds, insects and shells of neighbourhood considered from ornamental point of view, particularly silhouette.

Interpretation. Transformation of objects studied into decorative objects. Simplification. Amplification. Exaggeration of character of forms. Exercises in invention.

Adaptation of these exercises in invention to feminine industries; needlework and other work suitable for clothes, furniture and house decoration.

## XII.—NEEDLEWORK AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

(Four hours a week in all three years.)

### 1.—NEEDLEWORK.

(Four hours a week in first and second years; three hours a week in third year.)

#### *Pedagogic Directions.*

The instruction in manual work given in Higher Primary Schools is, as in elementary schools, educative in character. By variety in the lessons and by more extensive applications it gives the pupils instruction in all branches of knowledge necessary in practical life. It is not professional, and is limited to household work which may easily be done by any woman when ministering to the daily needs of her family. By a judicious application of drawing to needlework, by a retrospective glance at dress and feminine works of art, by a brief study of the principles that govern combinations of form, colour and material, good taste is cultivated, the spirit of invention developed and work made more agreeable and remunerative.

*Syllabus.*

**First Year.**

(Four hours a week.)

(1) Ordinary sewing and mending ; revision of subjects contained in syllabus for Primary Schools,\* application to very simple linen articles (chemise, bodice, baby's cap, bib, pillow-case, etc.).

(2) Cutting out and making up. Designing patterns and cutting out articles mentioned above. Application to very simple linen articles (chemise, bodice, baby's cap, bib, etc.).

(3) Knitting, crochet, netting. Application. Reproduction of designs ; application to common articles.

(4) First sketch of dress at different periods. Demonstration illustrated by pictures.

**Second Year.**

(Four hours a week.)

(1) Ordinary sewing and mending. Hand and machine work.

(2) Cutting out and making up ; designing patterns, cutting out and making of such articles as apron, baby's petticoat, articles for layette or trousseau.

(3) Embroidery, study of stitches, scalloping, braiding, feather-stitching, hem-stitching, fancy stitches, work on samplers. Application to made-up articles.

(4) Elementary sketch of dress at different periods.

**Third Year.**

(Three hours a week.)

(1) Ordinary sewing and mending. Hand and machine work.

(2) Cutting out and making up ; designing patterns. Blouses (plain and trimmed), plain skirts, simple articles for layette or trousseau.

(3) Embroidery and trimmings. Reproduction, arrangement and composition, on set subjects, from designs suitable for trimming of clothes : embroidery, braiding, etc. Working of these designs on stuff.

(4) Millinery. Trimming and arranging of very simple hats.

(5) Historical study of dress and feminine arts and crafts. (Demonstration, as far as possible, from artistic collections.)

**2.—DOMESTIC ECONOMY.**

**Third Year.**

(One hour a week.)

(1) Domestic Economy. Its importance.

(2) Woman's rôle in the family ; her part in the management of the house.

(3) Necessity for order, forethought, and economy.

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\* Consult "*l'Organisation Pédagogique et Plan d'Etudes des Ecoles Primaires Publiques.*" (Delalain Frères. Paris. Price 40c.)

(4) Budget: household accounts, apportionment of expenses, equalisation of income and expenditure.

(5) Employment of time: distribution of work for day, week and season.

(6) House: choice, situation. Hygienic conditions, upkeep, rent, taxes, renting agreement, inventory of fixtures, lease, notice to quit.

(7) Furniture: choice and up-keep. Special attention to be given to bedding.

(8) Clothing: choice of materials and styles; simplicity, conditions of good taste in toilet; preservation of textiles and furs.

(9) Food: cleanliness and care of kitchen utensils. Choice of food and drink; drinking water. Nutritive qualities. Adulterations.

(10) Preparation of food. Elementary principles of cooking. Ordinary and economical recipes. Household stores. Keeping of food and drink.

(11) Lighting and heating. Economic and hygienic suggestions as to different methods of lighting and heating. Different sorts of fuel. Supplies.

(12) Laundry work: washing, soaping. Removal of stains. Ironing. Danger of carbonic oxide.

(13) Gardening: usefulness and attraction. Woman's share in work of farm: poultry yard, dairy, etc.

(14) Purchases in general. Provision of chief articles of every day consumption. Suitable periods for making purchases. Limitation of supplies to needs and resources. Danger of buying on credit.

### XIII.—GYMNASTICS.

(One hour a week in all three years.)

Various games. Movements accompanied by song. Running. Jumping (not from height). Ladder exercises. Sloping boards. Elementary exercises in balance. Walks.

### XIV.—SINGING.

(One hour a week in all three years.)

#### First Year.

General exercises on blackboard in intonation and time.

Intervals and rhythm.

Oral and written dictation, first in *do* major, afterwards, when the ear has been well trained to recognise the sounds of the natural scale, in adjacent keys.

Exercises in reading by means of graduated solfeggi. Each pupil must be made to sol-fa separately.

Study of principal major keys and of *la* minor.

Exercises in pronunciation and diction.

School songs in two parts.

**Second Year.**

Comparison of intervals, change of tonic and formation of the scale.

Staff notation and its rules. Practice in the use of the treble and bass clefs, and of the most commonly used time measures.

Easy dictation and solfeggi in the chief major keys and their relative minors, first in the treble, and afterwards in the bass clef.

School songs in two parts.

**Third Year.**

Recapitulation of the exercises of the second year, in a more advanced form, reading, diction, intonation, time, musical dictation.

School songs in two or more parts.

Passages are to be chosen from the most popular works of the great masters: these are to be studied and sung, if possible, with accompaniment.

A few brief notes concerning the composers to be given.

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**PART II.**

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**CURRICULA OF PROFESSIONAL SECTIONS.**

**SYLLABUS OF PROFESSIONAL SECTIONS: INDUSTRIAL,  
COMMERCIAL, AGRICULTURAL**

**Second and Third Years.**

For the three sections—Industrial, Commercial and Agricultural—it has not been thought necessary to draw up a special syllabus, or time-table determining the hours to be given to each; the general syllabus and time-tables will serve as syllabus and *minimum* time-table.

In conformity with Article 3 of the Order of August 18th, 1893, the time-table and syllabus of special courses are fixed for each institution, on the proposal of the head mistress, after consultation with the masters and mistresses, by the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. It will be expedient, when determining this accessory syllabus and fixing the supplementary hours of teaching, to take local needs into account in the fullest measure, so as to facilitate the entry of the pupils as much as possible into the commercial and industrial establishments of the districts.

*Translated in the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.*

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# LIFE IN A FRENCH HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL.

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## LIFE IN A FRENCH HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOL.

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In explaining the aims of his well-known Report on "The French System of Higher Primary Schools" in 1897, Sir R. L. Morant wrote :—

"It has been the main endeavour of this Memorandum to present the spirit which has animated the French Government in their efforts to maintain their present system of higher primary schools, and to show the chief principles which they have sought to embody in that system. No doubt, in very many places, the work of individual schools in France will not be found to correspond at all closely to some of the principles herein set forth; but it is usually more instructive to consider a system at its best and in its general intentions, rather than from the results of modifications due to special or local circumstances." \*

This is as true now as it was then, but the general survey having once been made, it may be of interest to see something of one little patch of earth at as close quarters as possible. That must be my justification for describing in the following pages the life and working of the French Higher Primary School where I spent one year as English master, from October, 1900, to August, 1901.

### I.—SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND ORGANISATION.

The school buildings were old. One old man of over seventy, whose acquaintance I made, told me he had been educated at the school. It is in need of renovation. This will take place shortly, for plans are being pushed forward to build a new primary school alongside of the higher primary, and the latter will undergo various alterations at the same time. The schoolroom and classrooms were well lighted; the schoolroom in particular was very well provided with windows, and at night lighted by electricity. All the walls were whitewashed. A few maps and natural history diagrams adorned the walls. The rooms were heated by stoves. These stoves were kept going by the pupils, who were rather unsuccessful in making the rooms warm. This was not altogether their fault, for the stoves were in a dilapidated condition.

The desks (or rather tables) were not of the best modern types. The boys kept their books in lockers which were placed all round the schoolroom. In the schoolroom there was also a large case, part of which contained the library books; the other part displayed a few physical instruments and specimens of the boys' work in the manual instruction classes. There were about 300 books in the

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\* Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. I, p. 336.

school  
library.

library. There was a very good selection of large histories, geographies, and manuals of French literature. The boys, too, had a fair choice of lighter books; among these were translations of Fennimore Cooper, Mayne Reid, and Dickens. The first two named are special favourites with French boys.

Books were given out at special "preparations," two or three times a week. They were returned immediately after preparation.

The boys had a room assigned to them for keeping boxes or hampers. In this way they were able to supplement meals taken in the *réfectoire*.

parloir.

The *parloir* was a small reception room where parents and friends might come and see the boys any day from 12 to 1 and 4 to 5.

Upstairs there were three rooms—the *dortoir*, *vestiaire*, and classroom for drawing.

dortoir.

The *dortoir* was a large, bright and fairly lofty room over the classrooms, *réfectoire*, *parloir*, etc.

There was accommodation for about forty beds; these were placed round the room and down the centre.

There was no other furniture of any kind in the room. Boys washed over a large sink, above which was a long narrow cistern fitted with several taps. Water had to be carried up to fill this every morning.

vestiaire.

The *vestiaire* and *salle de dessin* were situated over the school-room.

The boys kept their clothes in large lockers round the sides of the *vestiaire*.

the School  
year.

Boys were divided into three classes called years. This word "year" will always be used in speaking of the classes. This arrangement simplifies the organisation of the school. Special importance is paid in France to the school year. From the 1st of October till the end of July work goes on regularly. There are three terms, but the breaks between the first and second and the second and third are so short that the whole year really is but one term. New boys come in large numbers in October; they are placed in the first year, and there they remain till the following October. There are no promotions during the year and no new boys come in in the course of it.

Terms in French schools, therefore, do not correspond to those in most English schools, where a new term means a new start, new boys and a fresh programme.

regulations  
r  
mission.

Every boy entering a higher primary school must possess the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires*.

Theoretically he should pass an entrance examination also, but in practice all those are admitted who have the *certificat* and have subsequently followed the *cours supérieur* in the primary school for at least one year.

he  
ertificat  
Etudes  
rimaires  
lémen-  
ires.

The *certificat* is a burning question among primary teachers. Mr. Brereton in his Report on "The Rural Schools of North-West France" enters very thoroughly into the subject. It is sufficient

to say here that pupils may enter for the leaving *certificat* at the age of eleven, that is, when they are in the *cours moyen*. Hence the need of a boy continuing his studies for another year after having obtained the *certificat* before he is admitted to the *école supérieure*. Mr. Brereton points out the low standard required in this examination. I am fully in accord with him, after seeing the examination conducted, and having experience of the capabilities of the successful candidates. The examination is held in the summer, and the schoolroom of the higher primary school is requisitioned for the purpose. The boys have practically a holiday in consequence. In the morning the masters gave them some interesting lessons (one master read extracts from Rostand's *L'Aiglon*); in the afternoon they were sent for a walk to be out of the way.

The occasion is really a gala day for primary teachers and pupils. They flock in from the neighbouring villages early in the morning. The written examination goes on till midday. In the afternoon the candidates with their teachers crowd the playground, awaiting the result. At about four o'clock the inspector reads out the names of the successful candidates—sixty-nine pass out of seventy! This seems like a farce. The oral examination is still more so, for it is a foregone conclusion that every one will pass.

The candidates are formed into groups of six or eight and are questioned by different members of the Commission.

Oral examinations are always public in France. The room filled quickly with spectators and so much talking was indulged in that I was unable to gather what questions were being asked.

The first year, proving to be the largest class (it contained about thirty-two boys), was always taken in the schoolroom.

The First  
Year (or  
Class).

It was a difficult class to teach. The boys had come from different primary schools, where teaching and discipline were variable quantities, and the low standard in the certificate examination did not weed out boys who were not capable of benefiting from the teaching given in the *école primaire supérieure*. I often wondered how certain boys could possibly have found their way into the school. It was deemed advisable, therefore, to form a second division for those who could not cope with the work. This division was excused English and Manual Instruction. The arrangement hardly proved a success, for the lower division boys had to do "study" in the same room as the upper division, who were being taught. Personally, I should have preferred a big class (including duffers) rather than a smaller class plus the supervision of boys doing study.

Specialization began in the second year. The official programme allows for four divisions: general, commercial, industrial, agricultural.

Specializa-  
tion in  
Second and  
Third Years.

If reference be made to the school-time-table at X—it will be seen that arrangements were made for two of these only: the general and industrial.

There was, however, a so-called commercial section. It cannot be said that much attention was paid to this section. Its plan

of work certainly did not correspond to that laid down in the official programme. The boys in it joined the industrial section in extra mathematical work (the general section meanwhile taking reading and recitation) and were present at some of the English lessons of another year. They, as a section, received no special English lessons.

On the other hand, the *Directeur* was anxious to get as many boys as he could to enter the industrial (*professionnelle*) section.

The school was styled *École primaire supérieure et professionnelle*. This did not mean that it was one of those *écoles pratiques de commerce et d'industrie* which give a thorough technical training, corresponding, as far as possible, to a regular apprenticeship, and which come under a different inspection. It seemed to me to fall in exactly with the general aim of higher primary schools; that is, it placed within the reach of every really intelligent child the means of obtaining (I quote here from Sir R. L. Morant's Report of "The French System of Higher Primary Schools") :—

"(i.) A continuation and completion of the subjects he has learnt in the elementary schools.

"(ii.) A practical acquaintance with such branches of knowledge, literary, scientific, and general, as bear directly on the various occupations in life in some one of which he will afterwards be engaged.

"(iii.) Such general hand-and-eye training and workshop practice as will engender habits of manual industry, increase dexterity and develop taste, and at the same time both halve the labours and double the fruits of that necessary apprenticeship (in the true sense of the word) at the workshop, the warehouse, the shop counter, or the counting-house, for which it is meant to be not so much an alternative as a preparation."

The  
Ultimate  
Purpose of  
Higher  
Primary  
Schools.

The  
Industrial  
Section.

The industrial section—at least the most promising pupils in it—aimed especially at passing the entrance examination (very difficult) to the *Écoles d'Arts et Métiers* at Cluny and Angers. No less than six boys were successful in doing so in 1900. The *Directeur* describes this as a *succès brillant*.

In these examinations advanced work is required in *mathématiques, dessin* and *travail manuel*, and it is to these three subjects that a large amount of time is allotted in the *section professionnelle*. Thus mathematics receives three extra hours, manual instruction six to eight hours instead of three to four (in the general section); drawing, seven to eight hours instead of three or four. To allow for these extra hours, the section drops English, Agriculture and Reading and Recitation.

Examination  
Successes.

To show in what directions boys were being turned out—and how ably the school was fulfilling its mission—I cannot do better than give a list of examination successes gained since the present Head Master came to the school :—

## EXAMINATION SUCCESSES, 1894-1901.

1. Concours des Bourses :	
(Ecoles supérieures, Lycées, Ecoles supérieures de Commerce, Agriculture, Arts et Métiers)	34
2. Brevet élémentaire	52
3. Ecoles normales	25
4. Certificat d'études primaires supérieures	27
5. Postes et Contributions indirectes	11
6. Ecoles nationales d'Arts et Métiers ; Ecoles supérieures de Commerce, Agriculture	16
7. Divers (pharmaciens, dessinateurs)	3
Total	168

At the present moment there is less tendency to enter the *Ecoles Normales* than formerly, while the examinations for *postes* and *contributions indirectes*, and for the *Ecoles nationales d'Arts et Métiers* are becoming very popular.

Each "year" had a register for marks. Most subjects had two sets of marks : one for a lesson prepared and heard orally (*leçon*), another for written work (*devoir*). The maximum was always 10. It is worth noticing that masters gave fractions of marks. Thus a boy might receive  $6\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $7\frac{1}{2}$ .

Every fortnight the top boy in each year had to add up and average the marks for every boy in his class.

As said further on, the masters did not give marks to every boy when examining the lesson. Only a few boys were questioned at each lesson. This arrangement necessitated a system of averages.

Every alternate Friday at 4.15 there was a masters' meeting in the Head Master's study. At such meetings the masters reported on the conduct of the boys, and marks were deducted from the 10 in cases of complaint. A master could, therefore, punish a boy in two ways :—(1) give him an imposition to be done in play-time ; and (in more serious cases) (2) report him at the staff meeting and have marks deducted.

One master was then chosen to act as clerk. He wrote down on a printed sheet the average mark for *leçon*, *devoir* and *conduite* of every boy.

A boy's maximum for the fortnight was therefore 30. If he succeeded in reaching a total of  $22\frac{1}{2}$  he was entitled to a blue card called *Témoignage de Satisfaction*. This *témoignage* benefited pupils in two ways :—(1) it carried with it two supplementary marks, which were added to a boy's total when estimating averages at end of term ; (2) it gave a "permit" on the third Sunday in the month to a boy who wished to go and see his friends.

The first and second boys in each class received an additional *témoignage* (a pink card) which gave three and two marks respectively.

Further, a boy who succeeded in getting a *témoignage* in two successive fortnights received a white card entitled *Billet d'Honneur* ; this carried with it five supplementary marks.

When the marks had been settled, one of the staff read a paper bearing on the subject or subjects he taught. A discussion followed the reading of the paper.

Although masters often grumbled at the two hours taken from their leisure time, these meetings gave an excellent opportunity for ventilating grievances and for friendly talk.

I was much struck with the free and confident way in which masters and Head Master discussed matters. It contrasted so forcibly with that almost slavish deference which an assistant pays to his Head in some English schools (in private, certainly, if not in public schools).

The papers read were afterwards sent to the *Recteur de l'Académie*. It was usually thought that these papers were tossed aside by the *Recteur*, and suggestions never listened to.

In one case at any rate this was not so. Monsieur A. in his paper on Geography Teaching mentioned that the school was badly off for wall maps. Some weeks later a good number of maps arrived at the school.

When it came to my turn, I read a paper on "The Reform Method of Teaching Modern Foreign Languages." The Head Master was very pleased with it. There are few things which I did at X—which established my position so much as the reading of that paper.

Fortnightly  
Mark Lists.

At 4 o'clock on the day following the meeting, the whole school assembled in the schoolroom. The Head Master briefly reviewed the work and conduct of the boys during the fortnight, read out the marks (which were afterwards posted up) and distributed the *témoignages*.

Terminal  
Examina-  
tions.

There were written examinations—called *Compositions*—every term. The maximum for each composition was ten.

These examinations were begun a month after beginning of term and were arranged to run on to the end—at the rate of two a week. There was thus no pressure of work at the end of every term. The *Compositions* were always written in special books.

Reports.

Reports were sent to the parents at the end of term. Brief notes were made on the *Conduite, Tenue, Caractère, Santé, Application* and *Progrès* of the boy. A list of the average marks gained for every subject during term, together with his work and place for the *Compositions*, was given. Then came his place in the class. Finally the Head Master wrote a general *appréciation* of the pupil.

Inspection.

The school underwent inspection several times during the school year. Visits were paid by the *Inspecteur Général de Paris*, the *Recteur de l'Académie*, the *Inspecteur de l'Académie* and the *Inspecteur Primaire* (who lived in the town).

The most serious inspection was that of the *Inspecteur Général*. He spent a whole day at the school, and at 4 o'clock called together the staff, in order to give his general impressions of the work and offer criticisms.

He advocated the use of the *cahier de roulement*, a feature in

primary schools, and criticised the careless way in which notes were taken in Class I., but in general he seemed very pleased with the work and conduct of the boys.

I should add that the Head Master spent some hours during every week visiting the different classes and listening to the lessons given.

Most higher primary schools provide for boarders. At X——, Boarders. of the eighty-four pupils on the roll at the beginning of the year, forty-three were "*internes*" (boarders).

The fees for the boarders were very low, only 400 francs = (£16)\* Fees. per annum. Yet it was commonly said that the Head Master made a profit of 100 francs on each boarder. This is explained by the fact that boys had to provide all their bed linen and all they wanted for the table (silver, knife, glass, etc.). The only article the Head had to provide was the bedstead. The boys, too, did most of the work of the servants. Extra help was of course required in the kitchen; and a man-servant waited at table and did the scrubbing; beyond this the presence of forty boarders entailed no burden on the Head Master's household.

Eight of the boarders were in possession of *bourses* (scholarships). Scholarships

These *bourses* are given to the children of poor parents on condition that they show proof of intelligence and pass an examination. [Particulars of this examination are given under the heading "Examinations."]

Five or six *bourses* are offered yearly in each department. The value varies. In the department in which the town of X—— is situated, the value was 450 francs. As a matter of fact, the whole scholarship is not awarded; the candidate receives a quarter, half, or at most three-quarters. Those who hold the scholarship must spend three years in a higher primary school. The Head Master, not the parents, receives the money attaching to the scholarship.

In most schools there are also *bourses* for day scholars. These are given to boys whose parents are too poor to keep their sons at school when they might be earning money.

At X—— there were no *bourses d'externat*.

During the course of the school year, October 1st to July 31st, Holidays. there are two holidays, both of them short.

At Christmas time, Christmas Day and New Year's Day are the only official holidays. In practice there is a week, for boys go home on Christmas Eve and do not return till the 2nd or 3rd of January.

Ten days are allowed at Easter. Besides these two holidays, which break the year into terms, there are a few other occasions when boys who live near the school (and most of them do) go home. These are: (i.) *La Toussaint*—including several days in the first week in November. In 1901 this day fell on a Friday. Boys had Friday, Saturday and Sunday as holidays.

\* Most day scholars joined the boarders at study at 4.45—6.45. For this they paid 3 francs a month.

(ii.) *Mardi gras* (Shrove Tuesday); (iii.) *La Pentecôte* (Whitsuntide); (iv.) *Le 14 juillet, fête nationale*. On this day boys got a permit from early morning to late at night. It is the one day in the year when a boy (and, for that matter, everybody) can do exactly as he likes, without fear of punishment.

Impressions  
on the  
Training  
given.

I shall be much disappointed if this short description of the organisation and work of the higher primary school at X— does not convince readers of the high efficiency of the teaching, of the hard work and devotion of the teachers and of the splendid opportunities afforded to even the poorest boys of getting a good general education, and at the same time one which prepares them for their after-career. If, however, one were to ask whether the education received made "men" of the boys, whether it was a stimulus to a boy's moral life, it must be confessed that it is very largely a failure.

Life in a higher primary school is monotonous and barren. The day is long and too crowded with classes and preparation. There is no time for healthy exercise, for the outlet of animal spirits. The boys see the masters during class-time, for the remainder of the day they are under the incessant supervision of the *surveillant*.

English and  
French  
boarding  
schools  
compared.

Once a term the first and second boys of each year dine with the Head Master's family and the staff. After dinner games are indulged in and a very pleasant evening is spent. But this is the only occasion I can recall of boys coming in contact with the Head Master's wife and family.

An English boarding-school generally provides a fair amount of family life in which the boys come under softening influences. There are many institutions which relieve the monotony of the boy's daily life and teach him self-reliance and manliness. Outdoor sports, indoor games, natural history societies, debating clubs, entertainments, etc., all help to make his school life wholesome and bright.

But these find no counterpart in French schools, and it is the want of them which offers the strongest criticism of the value of the education given.

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**II.—THE CURRICULUM.**  
**TIME-TABLE. 1900-1901.**

		8-9.	9-9.55.	10.15-11.	11-12.	1-2.	2.10-3.	3-4.	
LUNDI	3	Générale Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Arithmétique	Morale	Orthographe Exercices de Math.	Anglais. Exercices de Math.	Histoire Chimie Lect. et Récréation	Dessin géométrie. Travail man. Anglais	Dessin géométrie. Travail man. Arithmétique.
	2		Histoire	Géométrie	Orthographe Travail man.	Gymnastique. Travail man.			
	1		Composition fran.	Histoire naturelle	Orthographe	Gymnastique.			
MARDI	3	Générale Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Lect. et Récréation Exercices de Math.	Géométrie	{ Ecriture	Dessin d'imit.	Physique Algèbre Géographie	{ Etude Travail man. Travail agric. Travail man.	Géographie. Travail man. Travail agric. Travail man. Dessin géométrie.
	2		Arithmétique	Grammaire	Ecriture	Chant.			
	1		Agriculture	Grammaire	Orthographe	Gymnastique.			
MERCREDI	3	Générale Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Histoire naturelle	Composition fran.	{ Agriculture Dessin géométrie	Etude. Dessin géométrie. Agriculture. Dessin géométrie. Etude.	Comptabilité. Géographie Géométrie	{ Travail agric. Travail man. Dessin d'imit.	Travail agric. Travail man. Dessin d'imit. Anglais.
	2		Lect. et Récréation Exercices de Math.	} Physique	{ Anglais Dessin géométrie				
	1		Morale		Histoire				
JEUDI	3	Général Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Algèbre	Histoire	Anglais Travail man.	Etude. Travail man. { Etude. Travail man.	Lecture Récréative	Jeux de plein air ou Promenade.	
	2		Morale	Histoire naturelle	Travail man.				
	1		Physique	Composition fran.	Etude				Etude.
VENDREDI	3	Générale Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Arithmétique	Droit usuel	Chant	Gymnastique.	Chimie Histoire Lect. et Récréation	Travail man. { Lect. et Récréation Exercices de Math.	Travail man. Anglais. Exercices de Math. Arithmétique.
	2		Composition fran.	Géométrie	Dessin géométrie	Dessin géométrie.			
	1		Géométrie	Géographie	Ecriture	Chant.			
SAMEDI	3	Générale Professionnelle Générale Professionnelle 1ère division 2e. "	Géographie	Grammaire	Lect. et Récréation Dessin géométrie	Etude. Dessin géométrie. Etude. Dessin géométrie. Etude.	Géométrie Comptabilité Grammaire	{ Econ. politique ou Technologic	Orthographe. Orthographe. Dessin d'imit.
	2		Arithmétique	Géographie	{ Arpentage Dessin géométrie				
	1		Chimie	Exercices de Math.	Anglais				

DINER ET RÉCRÉATION.

Time-Table, 1900-1901.

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF HOURS FOR EACH SUBJECT.

	3e année Section		2e année Section		1ère année Division	
	Gén.	Prof.	Gén.	Prof.	1ère	2e
Morale - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Grammaire française - - -	1	1	1	1	2	2
Lecture et Récitation - - -	2	-	2	-	2	2
Composition française - - -	1	1	1	1	2	2
Histoire et instruction civique	2	2	2	2	1	1
Géographie - - - - -	2	1	2	2	2	2
Anglais - - - - -	2	-	2	-	3	-
Mathématiques (Exercices com- plémentaires.	-	3	-	3	1	1
Arithmétique - - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Algèbre - - - - -	1	1	1	1	-	-
Géométrie - - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2
Comptabilité - - - - -	1	1	1	1	-	-
Physique - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Chimie - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Histoire naturelle - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Agriculture - - - - -	3	-	3	-	1	1
Droit usuel - - - - -	1	1	-	-	-	-
Dessin - - - - -	3	7	4	8	4	4
Travaux manuels - - - - -	2	8	3	6	2	-
Arpentage - - - - -	-	-	1	-	-	-
Gymnastique - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	2
Chant - - - - -	1	1	1	1	1	1
Economie politique ou Tech- nologie - - - - -	1	1	-	-	-	-
Ecriture - - - - -	1	1	1	1	2	2
Orthographe - - - - -	2	1	2	2	3	4

**History.**

History was looked upon as one of the most important subjects in the curriculum. This was in a large measure due to the personal influence of the teacher, who not only took infinite pains in the preparation of his lessons, but made his pupils recognize the importance of the work and the need of hard study. Discipline was perfect. One always felt in listening to these lessons that the boys were keenly interested and were doing their level best to meet the wishes of the teacher.

The official programme allots one hour per week to the first and second years, two hours to the third. This was thought insufficient in the case of the second year, so that another lesson was added. The general plan of work was as follows:—

**FIRST YEAR.**

(One lesson a week.)

History of France from 1453-1789.

**SECOND YEAR.**

(Two lessons a week.)

History of France from 1789 up to the present time.

## THIRD YEAR.

(Two lessons a week.)

*First Lesson.*—General history of the whole world (except France) during the 19th century, with special stress on events since 1850.

*Second Lesson.*—Rapid revision of the history of France, chiefly for examination purposes.

The lessons were given in a strictly methodical way, and as practically the same methods were followed in other subjects, I propose to enter into some detail. The first twenty or twenty-five minutes of the hour were spent in oral questioning on the previous lesson.

Questions were never asked all round the class, as is the case frequently in England. Four or five pupils only were called upon to answer. These in turn had to reproduce the main points of the lesson. In this way the vicious method of allowing a boy to scrape through a history lesson by merely mentioning one or two names and a date or two was avoided. To get a good mark a boy had not only to give a correct and fairly full answer, but to arrange details in an orderly way, and give expression to them in sentences, carefully chosen and clearly enunciated. This method makes a boy think clearly, teaches him to speak before others, and prepares him for that all-important subject, composition.

As no boy knew when he would be called upon, he always had to have his lesson ready, although he would very likely not have a question.

The calling up of only a few boys did not prevent the teacher from sometimes putting a question to the class in order to elicit a point which the boy who was being examined did not know. After the questioning, a short summary of the new lesson was dictated.

Here is a summary of a lesson given in the second year on the causes of the Franco-German war :—

## GUERRE FRANCO-ALLEMANDE.

*Les Causes.*

- § 1. Situation difficile de l'empire vers 1869.  
Progrès de l'opposition. Nécessité d'une guerre.
- § 2. L'empire et les puissances étrangères.  
La France n'a pas d'allié.
- § 3. Grandeur puissante de la Prusse :—  
Le service militaire.  
Les hommes d'état.  
Luttes, 1864 et 1866.
- § 4. Difficulté entre la France et la Prusse :  
La question de la rive gauche du Rhin, du Luxembourg.  
La déclaration de guerre.  
La question Hohenzollern.  
La dépêche d'Éms.  
Mobilisation allemande et française.

The lesson which followed was rather a lecture than a lesson, delivered from pretty full notes.

The pupils drew a line down the middle of the page of their history exercise-book, and on one side of the line wrote down as

much of the lesson as they could, the other side being left for developing the notes with the aid of their text-books during study.

In the first year boys were not allowed to take notes. The dictated summary of the lesson was a little fuller than that given in the second and third years, and they had to supplement this by about a page of notes taken from the text-book.

A special word of praise must be given to the teacher for the delivery of his lesson. It was admirably expressed and had a literary flavour about it which made it a pleasure to listen to.

The note-taking was open to criticism. Boys tried to take down too much and consequently missed several points of the lesson. As one might suppose, the writing and spelling were frequently at fault.

The Inspector-General from Paris commented on this. A teacher cannot, however, be expected to supervise all the notes. All he can do is to advise the boys to write less and let the notes take a more tabular form. The inspector suggested that the teacher should insist on the boys making a most careful revision of the notes in study-time with a view to the correction of spelling mistakes, especially in proper names.

It should be noted also that in France, as in other countries on the Continent, general modern history is studied.

The third year devoted one lesson a week to the study of the modern history of countries all over the world. For this they had a special text-book. But the ordinary French histories devote chapters to the histories of foreign countries to a much greater extent than do we in ours.

Geography.

By a wise arrangement the same master teaches both History and Geography.

As in the case of History, the official programme of Geography was not strictly adhered to; two hours were devoted to it instead of one in first, second, and third years, and the Colonies were studied in the second and not in the third year.

The work was arranged as follows :—

#### FIRST YEAR.

(Two hours a week.)

Lessons on physical, mathematical and astronomical geography. Special study of Oceania, America and Africa.

#### SECOND YEAR.

(Two hours a week.)

*First Lesson.*—Europe and Asia.

*Second Lesson.*—French Colonies.

#### THIRD YEAR.

(Two hours a week.)

*First Lesson.*—France.

*Second Lesson.*—Geography required for Post-Office and other Civil Service examinations.

The work was thus chiefly topographical (railway réseaux, chief stations, chefs-lieux and sous-préfectures of the departments, steamship routes, cables, etc.).

The method employed was similar to that in history, *viz.*, oral questioning, dictated summary of lesson, lesson. Two lessons were devoted to most countries, the first dealing with the physical features, the second with political. As a specimen we may take the summary of the first lesson on Germany.

## L'ALLEMAGNE.

*Géographie physique.*

- § 1. Situation.—Superficie.
- § 2. Côtes de la mer du nord, de la mer Baltique, basses, sablonneuses et marécageuses.
- § 3. Relief du sol :—
  - 1. Quadrilatère de Bohême.
  - 2. Montagnes de l'Allemagne centrale et méridionale.
  - 3. Plaine septentrionale.
- § 4. Hydrographie : Le Danube, le Rhin.  
Fleuves de la plaine centrale.
- § 5. Climat : Influence océanique et continentale.

Very great stress was laid on map-sketching. The teacher drew with wonderful accuracy and rapidity on the blackboard, and never with the aid of an atlas. The boys had to draw the map at the same time. All oral questioning was done at the blackboard, an outline of some sort or other being a *sine quâ non*.

For homework the boys had to read over and correct their notes, amplify them with the aid of the text-book, and draw another map—generally coloured—filling in all the names mentioned in lesson.

In the case of France and the continents, such as Africa, the boys were shown special devices to draw a correct outline.

The lessons often erred in being too full. The boys of the second year especially gave evidence of being over-burdened with names. Their answers were too often an exemplification of the proverb, "*Qui trop embrasse, mal étreint.*" The geography text-book in use was very full of statistics and the comparative method was followed throughout.

The master did not shirk any statistics which are discouraging to Frenchmen, *e.g.*, the rapid increase of population in Germany, England and the United States; the great commercial activity of the same countries; and the comparatively stationary position of France. He made great efforts to create interest in the French colonies, pointing out their vast extent and the great need for Frenchmen to leave their country and take positions abroad.

He cited the French Canadians as proof against the assertion that the French have no aptitude for colonization.

One lesson per week was accorded to the second and third years. Grammar  
A rapid revision of the text-book was made, attention being concentrated on difficult points.

Instruction was given chiefly with a view to aiding the composition, but time was found for a little historical grammar. The blackboard was freely used for writing down sentences and having them corrected. The boys as a rule showed weakness both in accidence and syntax; they made mistakes which would flatter an English schoolboy's knowledge of French grammar.

I was present at a revision lesson of irregular verbs in the third year and made a note of the answers given. The boys were called up in turn and asked to go through about half-a-dozen tenses.

The first boy was all at sea with the verb *boire*; the second boy gave correctly the Fut. of *mouvoir*, the Imperative of *aller* and *mouvoir*, but failed in the Imperative of *pouvoir*, *valoir*, *vouloir*; a third did not know the Indicative Present of *se vêtir*, the two present participles of *fleurir*, and he misspelt the Present Subjunctive of *être*; a fourth did not give correctly the Present Subjunctive of *voir*, and the past participles of *résoudre*.

A question on the formation of the Imperfect Subjunctive went almost all round the class.

A visit paid to the second year displayed similar weakness. Questions were being asked on the place of pronouns. Several blunders were made before the sentence "*je vous le donnerai*" was properly written. One boy wrote "*rendez me les*" on the board. It is taken for granted that as due importance is paid to composition, dictation and literature, lessons in grammar are more or less subsidiary.

In the first year, two lessons were given per week; these proved none too many. The first lesson was on rules of grammar, the second on the conjugation of verbs with exercises in analysis and parsing.

Dictation.

These lessons were supplemented by three dictations a week. The following plan was adopted:—

*First Hour.*—Dictation of difficult words with explanation of their meaning. Boys were required to make up suitable sentences.

*Second Hour.*—Dictation of detached sentences, relating to rules learnt in the last grammar lesson.

*Third Hour.*—*Un morceau suivi*, prose or verse.

The boys in the second and third years—with the exception of the industrial section—had two dictation lessons a week; the first dealt with difficulties attaching to certain words, the second was a *morceau suivi*.

The second year had in addition to their lesson in grammar, one in *lexicographie*, i.e., in the formation of words.

Composition.

It is generally well known that the teaching of composition in French schools is considered of the highest importance. Every French boy knows that if he presents himself for public examination composition will be an obligatory subject, failure to pass in it will cause him to fail in the whole examination and he must reach a high standard of efficiency. Further, the style of answer required in other subjects (such as *la morale* and history) will severely tax his powers of composition.

To meet this demand more time is devoted to the subject than in English schools, and I venture to say it is taught in a more thorough and systematic manner. It will be of interest to give an outline of the method.

In the first year two lessons are given a week, in the other years one. The official programme allows only one lesson in each year.

The first part of the lesson was taken up in writing down the subject of the composition and giving hints for treating it, the second part was devoted to a discussion of the previous composition which had been corrected and handed back to the boys. General mistakes in the handling and development of the subject were dealt with, as well as individual mistakes.

The composition had to be written as homework. After having made an outline or summary (which was insisted upon) the pupil ruled three columns on his paper. The two outer were broad, the inner one narrow.

He wrote in the right outer column. The master made corrections in the middle column, indicating the kind of mistake (grammatical vagueness, illogical conclusion, etc.).

On receiving his composition corrected, the pupil had to re-write the sentences which were faulty in the left outer column. The papers were looked through a second time by the master and finally discussed in class.

Two marks were given, one for the composition, the other for the corrections.

I add a few compositions set in the three years to give an idea of the variety of subjects chosen :—

#### SUBJECTS SET IN COMPOSITION.

##### FIRST YEAR.

1. Vous connaissez la fable de la cigale et la fourmi. Racontez-la en remplaçant les personnages de *La Fontaine* par des personnages humains.
2. Narration. Sommaire :—Vous avez été témoin d'une lutte inégale entre un mauvais sujet vigoureux et brutal et un jeune garçon timide injustement attaqué. Racontez cette lutte.
3. Récit. Sommaire :—Impressions et souvenirs que vous sont restés du jour où vous avez passé l'examen du certificat d'études.
4. Récit imaginé :—  
Un arbre raconte son histoire.  
Faites-le parler.
5. Faites le portrait physique de celui de vos camarades qui vous est le plus sympathique.
6. Un de vos camarades, fils d'un cultivateur aisé, vous écrit qu'il ne veut pas embrasser la profession de son père parce que d'après lui, le métier de cultivateur est le plus pénible, le moins lucratif et le plus dédaigné. Il préfère entrer dans un bureau à la ville.  
Vous répondez à cette lettre de votre ami.
7. Racontez l'histoire d'un ouvrier qui est devenu ivrogne.

##### SECOND YEAR.

1. Montrez les avantages de l'ordre et de la propreté en classe.
2. Développez ce proverbe, "Ne remettez jamais au lendemain ce que vous pouvez faire le jour même." Terminez le développement par un récit.
3. Vous vous êtes foulé le pied.  
Cet accident vous oblige à garder le lit.  
Vous écrivez à l'un de vos amis pour l'informer de votre état et le prier de vous apporter un livre de lecture intéressant.
4. Vous faites un songe. Les laboureurs vous refusent leurs grains, les vigneronns le produit de la vigne, les artisans leurs services, tous

les hommes leur protection. Dites l'épouvante dont vous êtes saisi, et la joie que vous ressentez à votre réveil. Concluez.

5. Décrire la campagne telle que vous l'avez vue un jour de novembre aux abords de la rivière X.

#### THIRD YEAR.

1. Au moment de la déclaration de guerre avec l'Allemagne, un industriel français, qui a fondé en Suisse une exploitation prospère, abandonne ses intérêts pour venir défendre son pays. Dans une lettre à un ami, il annonce et explique sa résolution.
2. Dissertation :—Quels sont les avantages de la franchise et quels peuvent en être les inconvénients. Vous terminerez par un court récit où vous prouverez qu'il n'est pas toujours bon de dire tout ce que l'on pense.
3. A la suite d'une leçon d'histoire sur la Convention, deux de vos camarades ont engagé une discussion au sujet de l'assassinat de Marat par Charlotte Corday. L'un justifie le crime, l'autre le condamne. Rapportez ce dialogue.

Reading,  
Recitation,  
Literature.

Demogeot's admirable "Textes Choisis" (in 2 vols.) was in the hands of all the pupils. With such scholarly criticisms of the authors and suitably chosen extracts, the pupils had good opportunities of acquiring literary taste.

The lessons were given in a methodical way, though sometimes they were wanting in interest. This was partly the cause of the indifferent work done by many of the boys. Recitations badly learnt, slovenly reading and general listlessness marred the lesson. This was especially the case with the boys in the second year. Only the general section took the lesson. I believe this depletion of the class made those present look on the lesson as an *affaire de plaisir*, in which real work was not wanted.

There were two lessons a week.

In the first, a passage was read with a few explanations in order to learn how to read with expression. Then followed a thorough explanation of the piece, a summary of which was written on the board and taken down by the boys. A short exercise—usually the analysis of a sentence—was set for homework. In the second lesson this exercise was corrected and questions asked on the passage explained.

Then followed the recitation of a piece of verse or prose which had been explained the previous week.

A new recitation was given, likewise selected from something which had been studied.

The following is a summary of a lesson given in the second year :—

#### SPECIMEN LESSONS.

*Alexandre Dumas père.*

*Courte biographie* (né 1803 à Villers :—

Cotterets, arr. de Soissons, mort près de Dieppe, 1870).

L'homme, son caractère.

L'écrivain, son esprit.

Ses œuvres (dramatique, romancier).

*Lecture Expliquée* [See "Caractère de Nodier," Demogeot, Vol. 2. p. 203.]

*Situation du morceau.*

Idee principale. Nodier était un homme original.

*Divisions du Morceau :—*

1. Les petits défauts.
2. L'esprit (original et paradoxal).
3. La bonté du cœur.

*Caractère du Morceau.*

Portrait.

*Commentaire :—*Intimité d'Alexandre Dumas et de Nodier. Hommes faits pour se plaire l'un à l'autre, qualités et défauts communs.

1. *Le Fond :—*

Nodier plaît à Dumas.

Le portrait est plein de vivacité, de finesse, de justesse, d'humeur.

Expressions à expliquer :—adorable, vice, défauts, originalité, homme de génie, fâneur, Figaro, délices, privilège, ingénieur, coloré, probable, réalité, systèmes, paradoxal, etc.

2. *La Forme.*

Style naturel et facile, plein de souplesse, de variété, de couleur, d'éclat.

La propriété des termes, l'emploi des mots figurés, plutôt que les figures, font la couleur ou style (pas de métaphores). Style, langue de la conversation, fine, charmante, spirituelle. Alinéas nombreux, phrases bien coupées.

If a piece of poetry was the subject of the lesson, great care was taken to make the boys understand the "forme," i.e. metre, number of syllables, etc. French boys found in verse the same difficulties as English students of French find, the "liaison" and pronunciation of the final "e."

Mr. Cloudesley Brereton has given in Vol. 7 of Special Reports "La a full account of the teaching of morals (*la morale*) in primary schools.\* It is not proposed to deal here with the religious question. I propose merely to describe the methods used in our school, and to give a few specimen lessons.

The master who took the subject was eminently fitted for his work. He was of a philosophic turn of mind, very quick at detecting flaws in a boy's reasoning, and always ready with an example taken from practical life to illustrate some theoretical point.

The official programme is long and complicated, and in many cases did not meet with the master's ideas of treating the subject.

The chief headings were :—

*First Year.*—Conscience.—Man's power over himself.—Society and its duties.

*Second Year.*—Human life and its duties.—Man in society ; in the family ; in the nation.

*Third Year.*—Revision of years one and two.—Greater detail.

One lesson a week was given in each year. No text-book was used.

The master wrote a *résumé* of the lesson on the blackboard, which was taken down by the pupils at the same time. Then followed the lesson. The pupils had to expand the *résumé* for homework. Exercise books were periodically examined by the master. Simple stories and anecdotes were frequently given in the first year.

It was in the third year (and to some extent in the second year) that the work appeared to be above the heads of the pupils. The

\* p. 101 ff.

course is really one in ethics. The questioning took up a large amount of time. This would be an admirable and interesting way of procedure if the pupils had read and thought out the different problems. Such was not the case. There was too often a total lack of seriousness displayed in answering difficult questions.

After questioning and the writing down of the summary of the lesson to be given, there was frequently no time left to develop the lesson.

As there was no text-book to consult, a boy would come into class after having merely read over his summary. Hence he replied to questions in a haphazard way.

The value of *la morale* as a school subject must depend on the personality of the teacher and the general tone of the school. If the state of these two factors is good, the study of the subject forms a useful supplement to the other lessons and reacts favourably on them.

One must admire the good sense and sound advice given to the boys in many of the lessons. The teacher rightly laid great stress on social duties. The word "solidarité" was one of the keynotes of all his teaching. Chauvinism was never encouraged. The institutions and laws of other countries were fairly dealt with.

The following lesson on "La Nation" was given in the second year:—

#### SPECIMEN LESSON.

##### *La Nation :*

Les mêmes lois de solidarité, de justice, et de fraternité doivent présider aux rapports des individus entre eux dans la Nation, qui tient le lien entre la famille et la société humaine.

*La Nation.*—Définition : C'est une grande famille formée par les liens d'hérédité par la communauté de la race, des mœurs, de la langue, du sol, des intérêts, des institutions et des lois, du passé historique, des sentiments et des volontés.

##### *Développement de cette définition :*

*La nation est le vrai milieu social.*—C'est dans la nation et par elle que l'individu exerce ses droits et accomplit ses devoirs. Il y acquiert une idée plus large de la solidarité, de la justice et de la fraternité. Il y puise l'esprit national, caractère, esprit collectif résultant de sentiments, d'idées communes aux membres d'une même nation.

##### *La patrie et le patriotisme :*

L'idée de la patrie est analogue à l'idée de nation et se compose des mêmes éléments. Mais l'idée du lieu qui nous a vu naître, auquel nous nous sommes attachés, celui qu'ont occupé nos ancêtres et qu'occupe notre nation.

Le patriotisme est l'amour de la patrie, de la nation dont on fait partie ; sentiments et devoirs que le patriotisme implique.

English.

The programme allots three hours to English (or German) in the first and second years, and two hours in the third. It was only in the first year, however, that I had three lessons. It depends on the locality of the school as to whether English or German is the foreign language chosen.

A school situated in the east of France would naturally choose German.

I have no statistics on this point, but I believe that German

is more taught in Higher Primary Schools than English. Our school was quite an exception in having an Englishman to teach English. An Englishman can only be qualified to teach his native language in France by possessing the diplomas that every French teacher must possess, which means, of course, that he must go through the "mill" of examinations and become a naturalised Frenchman.

I had not these qualifications, so that my position was anomalous. In the eyes of the boys and in the town I was *Professeur*, but I owed my position to the headmaster. I was responsible to him alone. Not being on the register I was not recognised by the State, and consequently received no salary.

Several masters on the staff had a good grammatical knowledge of English; two could understand the spoken language and make themselves understood. One of them (the history teacher) would have been able to give excellent lessons.

I do not see that there is much to be gained by having an Englishman, provided there is a master on the staff who has made a special study of the language and has stayed some time in England. Speaking generally, I should say that the lot of an Englishman in a French school would not be an enviable one. I was told by a French student (from Paris)—before I went abroad—that no foreigner had a chance of entering a French school, and supposing he had permission to teach, no French boy would stand him.

Happily this did not prove to be correct. The work went very smoothly in years one and two. I had ample opportunities of seeing how the classes behaved with other teachers, and I do not think the discipline in mine compared unfavourably with theirs. If it did, it was due more to my own imperfections as a teacher and disciplinarian than to the fact of my being a foreigner. I was not so successful in the first year. There were, however, special difficulties in connection with this class which are noticed in another place. It must be remembered that I worked under favourable conditions:—

1. I was not the first Englishman who had taught English in the school.
2. The Head Master was very anxious to have an Englishman, and he made every one understand this.
3. With the exception of my classes I was not expected to exercise control over the boys, hence there was little chance of running foul of them.

At one of the masters' conferences I read a paper briefly describing the "new method" of teaching modern languages. The Head was delighted and was anxious for me to adopt it in the school. Unfortunately he did not remove the difficulties that beset its *installation*:—1. There were no pictures. 2. No book written on reform lines. 3. Not sufficient time allowed. My teaching had therefore to be a compromise between the old and new methods.

The boys were provided with two text-books, a grammar with vocabularies and exercises, and a Reader. The Reader contained nursery tales and rhymes taken from English Readers. It made the mistake of being graduated according to length of words. Thus the first pieces contained words of one syllable only, introducing perhaps many difficulties of idiom.

As I have said before, the masters on various occasions tried to impress upon the boys the necessity of learning foreign languages and mixing with other peoples. It cannot be said, however, that the boys themselves could understand the utility of languages from their surroundings. Very few, indeed, would be likely to see any land but their own, few would leave the department in which they had been born, and the occupations which they were to take up would probably require no knowledge of English or German.

Without showing any particular aptitude for languages and no great zest, they displayed on the other hand no repulsion to the study of them. Several of them, indeed, did very well and made considerable progress in conversation.

If more time were devoted to languages and more rational methods used, I am sure that the French boy would prove to have greater linguistic powers than he is at present given credit for.\*

#### Mathematics.

I saw very little of the work done in mathematics. To an English student of French this subject does not possess the same attractions as the literary side. In the first year two hours a week were assigned to Arithmetic and two to Geometry. Algebra was not begun till the second year and even then there was only one lesson a week. It seems strange that geometry should possess double the importance of algebra in the matter of hours.

Geometry does not mean "Euclid" as in so many of our schools. Plane geometry was studied in years one and two, solid in the third. In algebra the second year went as far as simple equations, quadratics and progressions were tackled in the third.

In arithmetic the metric system had a good deal of attention paid to it. From what little I saw of the mathematical work, it struck me that too much stress was laid on theory to the detriment of practice. This is encouraged by examinations. An examination paper will consist of two questions only, one a proof, the other a problem.

As a result of this method, I found boys were slow and inaccurate in calculations both on paper and at the blackboard.

In this way mathematics is made too hard and dry a subject for young boys, and those of only average intelligence.

Boys in the second year had lessons in land-measuring and surveying (*arpentage*). These were given by the Head Master, and on account of their often being given practically in the open air were popular with the pupils.

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\* Since the above was written the direct method of teaching languages has been introduced in French schools,

Every boy had three lessons in science per week, one in chemistry, one in physics, and one in natural history. There was thus plenty of ground covered, but the manner of covering it left a great deal to be desired. The teacher was terribly handicapped in having no laboratory and no museum. A cupboard in one of the class-rooms was reserved for chemical apparatus, the master had to perform his experiments on a small table—the same one used by the other masters when giving a lesson in that room. The boys had thus no opportunity of doing practical work.

Chemistry under such circumstances is merely the study of a text book. A few instruments were available for physics, and in botany (taken during the summer) the boys brought specimens from the fields.

This represents the sum total of practical work in science.

One can easily infer that there was a tendency to cram—a long programme, insufficient time to carry it through, the absence of practical work, are three factors which tend to ruin good science teaching. The master was not to blame, he saw only too well the difficulties in his way, but he was unable to remove them.

I give here a short synopsis of the work attempted in the three years :—

#### PHYSICS.

*First Year.*—Simple notions on heat, acoustics, optics, magnetism and electricity.

The boys had a text-book. They copied *résumés* of each lesson given in the book, but they took no notes.

*Second Year.*—Hydrostatics, the steam-engine, barometer, hygrometry, electricity, batteries, the electric light, telegraphy.

The pupils in this year were obliged to take notes.

*Third Year.*—Mechanics and dynamics.—Revision of subjects in years one and two.

#### CHEMISTRY.

*First Year.*—Oxygen, nitrogen, carbon, air, water, silica, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide.

*Second Year.*—Revision of first year.—Compounds of nitrogen.—The elements and chief metals.

*Third Year.*—Organic.

#### NATURAL HISTORY.

*First Year :—*

1. Physiology.
2. Zoology—types of the Vertebrates and Invertebrates.
3. Botany—the chief organs of a plant. A few types.
4. Geology—some notions on volcanoes, glaciers, different rocks.

*Second Year :—*

1. Zoology—comparative anatomy.
2. Botany—anatomy, functions of the organs.
3. Geology—revision of First year.—Chief minerals.

*Third Year :—*

1. Zoology—classification
2. Botany—classification.
3. Hygiene.
4. Geology.—Rock formation.

Manual  
Instruction.

For *Travaux Manuels* (Manual Instruction), the ground floor of a cottage situated at the back of the playground served as a workshop (*atelier*).

The larger room was all too small for the requirements of carpentry, the smaller did for a forge.

In the first year, two hours were allotted to manual instruction. For five months the boys did woodwork, the second half of the year being devoted to ironwork.

In the second year specialization began. A boy had to choose between ironwork and woodwork. Those in the industrial section had six hours a week, the others three.

In the third year the same programme was followed, but boys in the industrial section had from eight to ten hours a week. Two or three boys took up work at the forge.

It will be seen that all boys went through practically the same programme, the only difference between the general and industrial sections being the quantity of work done.

With the exception of the smithy work it cannot be said that any trade-apprenticeship was attempted.

Boys in the industrial section were qualifying for entrance examinations to the *Ecoles d'Arts et Mètièrs* at Angers and Cluny. My experience bears out therefore the remarks that Sir R. L. Morant makes on this subject in his Report on Higher Primary Schools.

Some of the work turned out in wood and iron was displayed in glass cases in the schoolroom.

The headmaster showed me with pride bookcases in his study which had been made by the boys.

On visiting the workshop one day, I found the third year at work. Two boys were at the forge. One was beating the iron, the other holding the iron with tongs. Two others were turning. The rest were being examined. The work to be done was described on the blackboard. Two pieces of wood were given to each boy to be very carefully planed, tenons and mortises to be made first by sawing, secondly by the use of the mortise chisel, right angle to be verified, and lastly the tenon to be fixed in the mortise by glue or screws. Four hours allowed for the piece of work.

## Agriculture.

Mr. Medd, in his report on "Rural Education in France,"\* says of Higher Primary Schools, "Few of them, however, have an agricultural side, and they are rarely to be found in the country districts."

Our school exemplifies Mr. Medd's statement. There was no agricultural side, and I am rather inclined to think that in the ordinary classes in agriculture no really hard work was done.

The lessons were given by the agricultural professor of the *Arrondissement*, one per week in each year. In the second and third years these were supplemented by a *promenade scolaire* of two hours, when visits were paid to the professor's *champ de*

\* Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. 7, p. 302.

*démonstration*, to gardens and to neighbouring farms. Boys in the industrial section did not learn agriculture.

Since reading Volume 7 of the Special Reports on Educational Subjects, I am forced to conclude that the admirable work done in agriculture in some of the primary schools of the north-west of France finds no counterpart in the higher primary school with which I am acquainted.

I was much struck by the attention given to drawing and the splendid results achieved. No less than four hours a week were devoted to it in each year, while in the industrial sections this number was increased to eight. The lessons were given in a special class-room, which was well lighted and contained a large number of suitable models. The master was a skilful draughtsman and had the advantage of being on the regular staff (he was mathematical master). Drawing.

Every boy had to take the subject. In many English schools drawing is an "extra" and is taught by a visiting master; those boys who are not gifted, or who do not care to pay the extra fee, are relegated to another master, who takes the drawing because he happens to be free at that time. Now there is none of this in French schools. Drawing is considered one of the most important class-subjects, consequently there is good hard work done in it.

The method of marking it is instructive. Every drawing when completed carries a maximum of thirty marks: ten for the general outline, ten for detail, and ten for lettering. These are plainly indicated on the drawing.

By this method all drawings are most carefully finished off, the heading or explanation of subject adding to, and not detracting from, the general effect.

The work included freehand, model, geometrical, perspective and mechanical drawing. Some amount of stumping and painting was also done.

It now remains to say a few words on some of the less important subjects of the curriculum.

Boys in the third year had lessons in common law. These were given by a lawyer from the town. I am not able to judge very well of the work done. This much I know—the teacher was often late and irregular, his lesson was a lecture and rather indifferently followed by the boys. Common Law.

For the first five months of the school year, the third year had lessons in political economy, these gave place in the second half of the year to lessons in technology. Political Economy.  
Technology.

Bookkeeping was taught in the second and third years—one hour a week only was allotted to it. The distinction between single and double entry was discussed. Boys of the second year were taught the use of the day-book, how to post from it into the ledger, to balance and prove their books, and draw up a balance sheet. Book-keeping.

In the third year this work was revised, and the use of the day book, cash book, etc., pointed out. An imaginary house of business

was then taken, set going, and its work described in detail. A boy thus got a good idea of what business life is like.

**Writing.**

Writing was taught throughout the school, one hour a week in the second and third year, and two in the first. A point worth noticing is the teaching of ornamental writing. The effect of this was seen in the exercise-books of all the boys.

I found boys skilful in writing several hands. Thus the heading of a lesson (in an exercise-book) was always written in ornamental characters, the dictated summary of the lesson was written in another style, while the notes would be taken down in the boy's usual handwriting.

The writing of the school varied very much in quality. As a whole, however, it may be said that exercise-books were well-kept.

**Singing.**

Singing was taught separately to the three years. The Sol-fa system was in vogue and a few simple songs were learnt.

It seemed to me a pity that the boys could not have been assembled together occasionally for a singing lesson. As it was the lessons seemed tame. One of the boys had a cornet; matters were a good deal enlivened when he was asked to come into the classes and accompany the singing.

**Gymnastics.**

The boys had one lesson in gymnastics per week. They made use of the town gymnasium, which was situated quite close to the school. The town instructor gave the lessons.

The apparatus was adequate and in fairly good condition.

Besides exercises on the apparatus, the boys were practised in *mouvements d'ensemble*.

What little work I saw done did not give me a very favourable impression.

**Conclusion.**

I have now passed in review all the subjects of the curriculum. This has been done at some length in a few of the subjects. Certain details which I have given may seem trivial, but I have thought it important to show the methods employed by French teachers, even if they are commonplace and similar to those known to us in England.

I wish it to be understood that the hours, syllabus, etc., have been in all cases taken from my own experience of the classes and the school time-table and from conversation with the teachers.

No analysis of the official programme has been attempted. This programme can be bought for 3d. A careful study of it, followed by a comparison with the particulars I have given, will, I hope, convince everyone that the teachers were by no means slaves to it.

There is, on the contrary, considerable elasticity shown in the time-table, though I cannot say how much is authorized. Enough has been said to show that teachers had ample scope to display their own individuality and method. Teachers know the contents of the programme and discuss among themselves its good points and its bad points, but in class one would scarcely guess its existence. I never remember having heard the word used before the boys.

## III.—THE STAFF.

The *Professeurs* of the *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures* go through the same course of training as the *Instituteurs* of the *Ecoles Primaires*; that is, three years in an *Ecole Normale*. The teachers in the *Ecoles Primaires* are either *stagiaires* (probationers) or *titulaires* (fully certificated). The *stagiaire* must possess at least the *brevet simple* (or *brevet élémentaire*), he becomes a *titulaire* by passing an examination known as *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. Training and  
Qualifica-  
tions.

A similar arrangement obtains in the *Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*.

A teacher must in this case have the *brevet supérieur*, he is then a *délégué*; he becomes a fully-qualified *professeur* only when he has passed an examination known as *certificat d'aptitude au Professorat des Ecoles Normales et des Ecoles Primaires Supérieures*. These *délégués* of the higher primary schools have three years allowed them to get this *certificat*. If at the end of three years they have not got it they are liable to be put down into an *Ecole Primaire*. Whether this is strictly carried out I cannot exactly say, but I should hardly think so, on account of the great difficulty of the examination and the very small number who pass each year. There are generally about 200 candidates, from sixteen to twenty pass the written examination. These are reduced to eight or ten after the oral. Certificat  
d'aptitude  
au Pro-  
fessorat.

Masters in general regard the examination as a bugbear—and rightly so, considering its severity.

Candidates must choose *Sciences* or *Lettres*.

At one centre last year there were eight candidates. Three of these (all ladies) took *Sciences*, five (one, a lady) took *Lettres*.

As I was able to get the questions set in *Lettres*, I reproduce them here.

1. *Littérature*. (4 hours allowed.)

Un critique contemporain a dit: "Victor Hugo est peu sensible, il n'est pas tendre."

Dites, en vous appuyant surtout sur les auteurs du programme ce qu'il faut penser de cette opinion.

[The question set in 1900 was, "Peut-on simplifier notre syntaxe grammaticale? Comment et dans quelle manière?"]

2. *Histoire et Géographie*. (5 hours allowed.)

[Syllabus. History of Europe twelfth and thirteenth centuries and from 1789 to 1815. Geography of the United States. The Basin of the Rhone.]

(i.) Quel sont les principaux caractères du 13<sup>e</sup> siècle en France, au point de vue politique, social, économique et intellectuel?

(ii.) Etude de géographie physique. Le Rhône depuis sa source jusqu'à Lyon.

\* 3. *Philosophie appliquée à l'Éducation*. (4 hours allowed.)

De l'esprit scientifique.—Qu'entend-on par ces mots? Dites quelles qualités il suppose. Montrez qu'il est aussi nécessaire à l'étude des lettres qu'à l'étude des sciences proprement dites, et qu'il doit pénétrer même l'enseignement primaire.

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\* It should have been mentioned above that no candidate can present himself for the examination unless he has been teaching at least two years.

4. *Langues vivantes : Anglais.* (4 hours allowed) (Candidates may use a dictionary.)

(i.) Thème.

Passage of fourteen lines taken from Victor Cherbuliez to be translated into English.

(ii.) Version.

A passage from Washington Irving to be translated into French.

The *Oral Examination* is held at Paris. I am unable to give the questions asked, because my friend failed in the written examination.

The examination is conducted in the following way :—

1. A lesson to be given before the Commission on some subject of history, geography or literature (French).

2. Correction of a composition written by a student in a Training College.

3. A lesson in *lecture expliquée*—the piece taken from programme prescribed in Literature.

4. Questioning on history, geography or literature.

5. *Langues vivantes.*

Translation at sight from one of the prescribed books.

[The prescribed books were Goldsmith's "Traveller" and Froude's "Oceana."]

Conversation.

It will be seen that the questions are by no means easy. To spin out enough matter for a four hours' paper on the one question set is a severe test.

But the chief difficulty of the examination is due to its competitive character.

It is a foregone conclusion that only twenty candidates will be accepted in the written examination. However good the majority of the papers may be, it is only the first few which will be accepted.

Salaries.\*

The masters are divided into five classes in the matter of salaries.

The 5th class is paid 1,700 francs per annum.

„ 4th „ „ 1,900 „ „

„ 3rd „ „ 2,200 „ „

„ 2nd „ „ 2,500 „ „

„ 1st „ „ 2,700 „ „

These salaries are paid by the State, masters receive instalments on the first of each month.

In addition to this fixed amount a master receives a lodging allowance (*indemnité de logement*). Further there is an *indemnité de résidence*, which varies in amount according to the population of the place. The smaller the town, the smaller the *indemnité*. These two payments are provided by the town and are paid quarterly.

At X—the lodging allowance was 150f. and the *indemnité de résidence* 100f.

\* The rates of salaries and the system of promotion have been revised since this paper was written. The new regulations are given on pages 137-8 of this volume.

Promotion is effected in the following way: a master *may be* promoted into a higher class after three years' service in the lower; he *will*, as a matter of course, be promoted after six years. Promotion.\*

The indemnities remain the same for all classes.

*Directeurs* are similarly divided into five classes; their salaries are a little higher. For instance, a *Directeur* in the first class has a salary of 3,300fr. i.e., 600fr. more than the assistant in the same class.

The *Directeurs* of Higher Primary Schools add to their salary by the profits made on their boarders.

It is only natural to find that masters grumble at their salaries. They are undoubtedly very low, and considering the high standard of efficiency attained by the masters should be much higher.

An Englishman on reading the figures must, however, bear in mind that:—

- (i.) The French teacher is a civil servant and his tenure of service is therefore secure;
- (ii.) He will have a pension on reaching the age of fifty-five.
- (iii.) In common with his fellow-countrymen the French teacher is strictly economical.

Nearly all the masters at X— gave private lessons. The fixed rate was two francs the hour.

I am not aware that they added to their incomes in any other way.

The French *professeur* is fortunate in having a fixed limit to the amount of work he has to do. Number of hours' teaching and "duty" per week.

He can cry "halt" when he has given twenty lessons and taken five hours duty during the week. The duty consists of taking "study" from 4.45 to 6.45. The regulation number of hours was complied with in principle.

The *Professeur de Sciences* gave twenty-six lessons, six above the maximum; but in compensation he did not share in the duty, so that his total number of hours of work was only one in excess of the maximum 25.

It must be remembered, also, that he was manual instructor, and for these lessons there would be little need of out-of-school preparation.

Another advantage which the *professeur* possesses is that the time-table is so arranged that he very rarely has to teach for more than two hours at a stretch.

Here is the time-table of the *Professeur de Lettres*:—

	Classes.		Duty (Study).
	Morning.	Afternoon.	
Monday	8-11	1-2	4.45-6.45
Tuesday	8-10	—	—
Wednesday	8-10	1-2	4.45-6.45
Thursday	8-10	—	—
Friday	8-9	1-3	1.45-6.45
Saturday	9-11	2-4	—

Total:—Teaching, 18 hours. Duty, 6 hours.

\* See Note on previous page.

His work was much heavier than the time-table would lead one to suppose, for, as he taught all the composition in the school, much of his time at home was spent in correction of papers.

Devotion to  
the school.

What struck me throughout my stay at X— was the splendid spirit of work shown by the staff and the harmony which prevailed among its different members.

A more hard-working, earnest and yet genial set of men it would be difficult to find.

I take this opportunity of acknowledging their very great kindness to me. At all times they were ready to help me in my studies, to answer questions I put to them on French ways and customs, and to make my life in France as pleasant as possible. Should any special event take place in the town, I always knew that I had a guide or companion at my disposal.

Eagerness to  
learn  
English.

They had all studied English at the *Ecole Normale* and were anxious to improve their knowledge by arranging exchange lessons with me. One hour a week we all met together for an "English" conversation. These reunions were very pleasant, and led to very profitable exchange of views.

The  
Surveillant.

The *surveillant* or duty master is the servant of the head-master and not of the State. He is appointed by him and is paid by him. The pay is generally 40 francs a month. With the exception of class-time and preparation from 4.45–6.45 he is always on duty. He sleeps in the dormitory—the bed is curtained off from the pupils—and is therefore responsible for the getting up and going to bed of the boys. He superintends the boys in the *réfectoire* (dining-room) and is always with them in the playground, during walks, and at evening preparation. Sometimes he is asked to take a little mathematics in the first year.

Having practically no teaching to do, he has little opportunity of winning respect from the boys. The latter look on him as their natural enemy.

During my stay at X— I came across two *surveillants*. The first had just left the Training College, where he was senior student. He was very anxious to rise in the profession and studied very hard while the boys were at class. The conscientiousness with which he fulfilled his "duty" made him unpopular with the boys, but his earnestness and industry have brought him reward, for he is now *Professeur* in a technical school.

His successor—found after great difficulty—was a youth taken from the third year of an *Ecole Supérieure*. Intellectually, therefore, he was not above the third-year boys. Under such circumstances he could not claim authority over the elder boys. Although he was more popular than his predecessor on account of his being more "chummy" with the boys, his influence over them was not so good.

IV.—THE PUPILS.

A BOARDER'S DAY.

Let us now consider how a boarder spent his day.

At 6.30 the great bell—hung outside the building—woke him up. Raising. Half an hour was allowed to dress and make the beds.

At seven the bell rang for *déjeuner*. The boys lined up on each Breakfast. side of the corridor and at a signal from the *surveillant* filed into the *réfectoire*. Here a bowl of *café au lait* and dry bread awaited them. Boys generally soaked the bread in the coffee. At a sign from the *surveillant* they again lined up in the corridor

Then followed the *Service de propreté*. The *surveillant* drew up Service de a weekly list of boys and the duties they had to perform. These propreté. duties were no sinecure; class-rooms and corridor had to be swept and dusted, ink and chalk distributed, fires to be lighted, playground tidied, etc.

Day boys were required to assist.

The third-year boys were exempt from service, but they had to see that the younger boys did the work properly. It will be seen that there was not much leisure between breakfast and school.

At eight o'clock the bell rang for school. All boys were drawn Class-time. up in two lines in the playground. The *surveillant* called out "*A droite!*" "*Avancez!*" and the boys proceeded to their classes.

Classes went on from eight o'clock till twelve. There was a break of a quarter of an hour at ten o'clock.

The boys did not display much animation in recreation time. Recreation.

Like English boys they had their seasons for certain games. They had their fling at marbles and later at peg-tops, but they had no inclination to play round games, such as prisoners' base, King Cæsar or rounders. The *Directeur* tried time after time to make them organize some games, but all his efforts were vain. The boys persisted in walking up and down the playground in little "sets," talking, discussing, grumbling. If the weather were hot they would be found lying about against the walls wherever a cool spot might be discovered.

There was no break between end of school and dinner.

For dinner, the boys sat at three tables arranged to form three Dinner. sides of a square. The *surveillant* had a small table to himself in the middle. The tables were covered with yellow oilcloth. The absence of a white tablecloth did not improve the look of the room.

The boys were divided into squads of six, one third-year boy at least in each squad. It was his duty to serve out the vegetables and the meat (which was previously cut up into the required number of pieces before being brought to table).

He also poured out the wine—one bottle held just enough to fill six small tumblers. Wine was the only drink provided at the two meals, dinner and supper. The wine could, of course, be diluted with water.

The following is the weekly menu, varied slightly from time to time :—

Sunday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Meat.	Potatoes.	Biscuits.
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Meat.	Salad.	Dessert.	
Monday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Haricots.	Sausage.	
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Meat.	Salad.	Dessert.	
Tuesday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Poached Egg.	Potted meat.	
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Stewed meat.	Preserved fruit.	Dessert.	
Wednesday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Boiled Meat.	Prunes.	
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Stewed meat.	Potatoes and oil.	Dessert.	
Thursday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Stewed meat.	Preserved fruit.	Biscuits.
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Beef.	Salad.	Dessert.	
Friday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Haricots.	Sardine.	
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Tinned tunny	Omelette.	Dessert.	
Saturday.	<i>Dîner.</i>	Soup.	Boiled Meat.	Rice.	
"	<i>Souper.</i>	Boudin (black pudding).	Omelette.	Dessert	

The above menu appears much better than it really was. The meat was badly cooked, of poor quality, and very insufficient in quantity. Vegetables were not eaten with the meat.

The dessert varied. During the autumn and first part of winter grapes, walnuts or chestnuts were provided. Later came almonds, and in summer occasionally cherries.

The man-servant waited at table. He brought in the dishes (plates were not changed) and then was kept busy cutting bread. Bread was the one article of food which was distributed *ad lib.* And this was very necessary, for meals were few and far between and there was not much else to eat. French people are proverbially great bread-eaters; in French boarding schools it is indeed the staff of life.

The behaviour of the boys at table was very bad. The *Directeur* occasionally looked in and found fault, but the *surveillant* was in sole charge, and he had not sufficient influence to mend matters. The boys were too noisy, and the room after a meal presented a dirty appearance. The method of leaving boys to themselves at mealtime is one that needs early reform. I spoke to the *professeurs* on the subject and they were unanimous in saying that the internal arrangements of the boarding school were bad, and were a blot on whole training of boys.

Afternoon  
School.

" Long  
recreation."

The boys had half-an-hour's play before afternoon school. Classes went on from 1 to 4. A break of a quarter of an hour was allowed at 2 o'clock. At 4 there was the "long" recreation. It was only three-quarters of an hour. Considering that the boys had been in school for three hours, and that two hours study was to follow, the time for play was far too short. To make matters worse boys wrote their impositions then and "turned" work was heard. In this way a bad boy was in the schoolroom from 1 till nearly 7 o'clock!

Even those who were free did not, as I have said above, know how to make the most of their liberty.

Preparation.

Preparation from 4.45 to 6.45 was presided over by a *professeur*. Most day-scholars were present, and the schoolroom was consequently full. Supper followed, after which there was a few

minutes' leisure before beginning the second preparation, which lasted from 7.30 to 9.

The boys went up to bed immediately after this.

Such was a boy's working day.

Seven hours in class, three and a half hours' preparation! By the time 9 o'clock came a boy was exhausted—and no wonder.

Thursday was a half-holiday, though no English boy would <sup>Thursday</sup> designate it by such a name. It began with preparation from <sup>half-holiday.</sup> 1 to 2. Boys could, however, borrow books from the library and read during this time.

At 2 o'clock the pupil dressed, then went for a walk or to the playing field. He returned in time for the usual afternoon preparation at 4.45. So even on a half-holiday he spent three hours in the schoolroom.

When out for a walk boys were obliged to walk in rank until they were outside the town. They frequently gave trouble to the *surveillant* by getting too far in front or lagging behind.

The time allowed was not long enough to have a really good ramble in the country and forget the cares of school routine.

Remarks on the playing-field will be made a little further on.

Sunday did not bring the boy the rest and change he was sorely <sup>Sunday.</sup> in need of. He was up at 6.30 as on the other days of the week.

Preparation 8 to 10. At 10 o'clock he dressed ready for Church. The *Directeur* himself took the boys to *messe* at 11 o'clock. This hour 11 to 12 was one of bliss to the *surveillant*. It was the only time in the day that he was free from the boys.

At 1 o'clock the bell rang for preparation. Boys could read library books at this time if they wished.

From 2 to 4 they went for a walk. Then followed the ordinary preparation from 4.45 to 6.45, and from 7.30 to 9. It will be seen that Sunday was a hard, depressing day. It was really harder than the other days, for class work is not so wearying as incessant preparation. Five and a half hours' preparation can only be a weariness to body and mind.

During the months of May, June, July, the time-table was <sup>Summer</sup> slightly modified. The boy rose at 5.30 (except on Sunday) and <sup>time-table.</sup> did one hour's study before breakfast. On Thursdays and Sundays he was free after supper and went to the playing-field or for a walk. This arrangement was good in one way, for it was too hot to go out in the afternoon. But unfortunately no work was excused. The *whole* of the afternoon (1.45 to 6), therefore, with the exception of a break of three-quarters of an hour, was taken up with preparation. Four hours' study in a hot schoolroom is killing work. By supper time the *surveillant* and boys were exasperated and exhausted, and too weary to enjoy properly the recreation which followed.

I have said that on Thursdays (and sometimes on Saturdays) the <sup>Sports</sup> boys went to the playing field instead of for a walk. I believe this is rather exceptional in higher primary schools, but our *Directeur*

held modern views and wished his boys to learn cricket and football. This is a step in the right direction. Unfortunately it is not carried far enough. The exigencies of the time-table do not allow sufficient time to be given to sports.

The field was about ten minutes' walk from the school.

In winter football was indulged in.

The boys had no special dress for games, and as the field was not drained, its state in bad weather prevented boys from playing.

It was not large enough to allow two games to be played at the same time. Hence forty boys had to play together. It was not possible under the circumstances to teach them scientific football (Association). The game consisted of a general helter skelter after the ball.

There is no doubt, however, that football (chiefly the Rugby code) is fast coming into favour in France.

In summer, the field bore quite an animated appearance.

Some boys were devotees of croquet, others settled down to a game of skittles, while the rest went in for cricket. I do not think cricket is quite suited to a Frenchman. It is one of those games that needs—according to foreigners—to be taken sadly. However we had a number of very interesting little games. Monsieur A. was an enthusiastic cricketer, the *surveillant* learned to like the game, and some of the boys shaped very well. They had ideas of their own, too, which I could not succeed in getting rid of.

They soon understood that it is the duty of a poor batsman to play steadily and keep his wicket up, while the better batsman makes the runs.

The only way of playing steadily in their opinion was not to move the bat at all. I vainly tried to show some of them how to move the bat and play the ball. "No," said they, "it is much safer to keep the bat still and let the ball hit it."

On a few occasions the boys went to the river to bathe. Two or three could swim fairly well.

Sports' expenses were met by a subscription of 3 francs. This modest sum had not only to provide for cricket and football material, but for the rebinding of library books, and for the cartridges used in the *exercices de tir*.

**Exercices de tir.** These "*exercices de tir*" (target practice) are obligatory for the boarders, but nearly all the day-scholars took part also.

The boys were provided with a rifle, an exact model of the Lebel (the army regulation rifle, but of smaller size). The target was placed in the grass-plot in front of the head-master's study. Monsieur A. superintended the firing. The best six shots in the school entered for the higher primary school competition. Of the twenty-five schools which entered, the school in which I was teaching came tenth on the list.

**Religion.** Boys attend eleven o'clock *messe* on Sundays. This is the sole religious instruction they get during the week. Anything like "school prayers" is unknown.

Children in France receive their first Communion at the age of eleven or twelve, hence all boys in the school had gone through the ceremony previous to their coming to the school.

The *curé* never visited the school, consequently I never heard of any "Confession."

I noticed that there was a tendency to sneer at the Bible and religion whenever these were mentioned—as sometimes happened in the *morale* lessons.

If the boys lacked some of the qualities which we associate with Moral tone. "public school spirit," happily there is a brighter side to the picture. In spite of much wrangling and cliquishness among the boys, for which the organisation is largely to blame in not providing healthy outlets for animal spirits, they are affectionate and friendly to one another. There were several striking cases of David and Jonathan. They worthily upheld the Frenchman's reputation for politeness. The elder boys particularly were courteous in the extreme. One cannot but admire the ever-ready watchfulness to be polite in the smallest details.

Considering that I was *Anglais* and did little for the boys I think the friendliness and courtesy shown by them to me was remarkable. Not least among old pupils, whose memories I cherish, do I place the boys at the Higher Primary School at X—.

## V.—PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS.

French schoolboys have to undergo the same ordeal of examina- Number and tions as their fellow-sufferers in England. Setting on one side use. the examinations for special purposes, such as those for the civil service and entrance examinations, nearly every boy would take one or more of the following during his school career : in the primary school the *certificat d'études primaires*, in higher primary schools the *certificat d'études primaires supérieures* or the *brevet simple* and in secondary schools the *baccalauréat*.

It is to be noted that these examinations occur at the end of a school course, they are the goal which a boy should aim at before leaving school altogether or passing on to another school.

The custom of several forms in a school being examined, such as obtains in many English schools, where the boys take the various stages of the Oxford and Cambridge Locals or College of Preceptors examinations, is not found in France. Thus, in higher primary schools, a boy does not enter for an examination until he is in the third year.

These examinations generally take place in summer. A boy's Overwork. time-table, as has been said, is very full all the year round ; the addition of one or two examinations at the end of the year makes his burden a great deal heavier.

I am bound to say that the boys of the third year made splendid efforts at success. From early morning till 9 o'clock at night,

they were hard at work, frequently working through their scanty recreation.

There is no doubt there was overwork among these elder boys. Unfortunately they cannot see the need of physical exercise, consequently by the time the examination comes they are unfit to do themselves justice.

I purpose making a list of the questions asked in the examinations of 1902. Papers are not printed in France. The presiding examiner dictates the questions. It is thus difficult to get to know what is actually set.

Pupils were kind enough to tell me after the examination what questions were set. Under these circumstances allowance must be made for errors.

#### A. BREVET ÉLÉMENTAIRE

Brevet  
élémentaire.

The passing of the examination for the *brevet simple* (or *démé- taire*) is obligatory in the case of all those who aspire to enter the normal schools. As a large number of pupils in the higher primary schools go in for teaching, it is one of the most popular examinations among third-year boys.

Every candidate must be at least sixteen years of age on the 1st of October in the year in which he presents himself for examination.

The examination takes place at the *chef-lieu* of the department, and is held by a commission consisting of at least seven members, presided over by the *Inspecteur de l'Académie*.

The subjects are divided into three series:—

(i.) Dictation.—French Composition.—Arithmetic.

(ii.) Writing.—Drawing.—Gymnastics.

(iii.) Oral:

Reading and explanation of text.

Questions and Arithmetic.

History.—Civic Instruction.—Geography of France.

Solfa Music.

Physica.—Natural Science.—Agriculture.

No candidate is allowed to take the second series unless he has half the maximum of marks in the first. Similarly he must have half the maximum in Series 2 before passing to the 3rd series. Every subject has a maximum of twenty, except gymnastics and music, which are marked out of ten.

The questions set are not the same in the different *chefs-lieux*, and as the papers are corrected by different commissions, the standard of passing varies.

Thirteen candidates from X— presented themselves. The weaker ones, fearing the severity of the *inspecteur* at the *chef-lieu* ( $\alpha$ ), chose for their centre the *chef-lieu* ( $\beta$ ) in the next department where the presiding examiner was known to be less severe. Their plan, however, was not successful; of the eight who presented themselves at ( $\beta$ ), only one passed, while of the five at ( $\alpha$ ) only one failed.

The examination last year played havoc everywhere. The school at X—— in passing five out of thirteen was not below the average. The failure of most of the candidates did not surprise the *professeurs*.

For the sake of comparison I give the questions asked at the centres  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in the Appendix.

#### B. EXAMEN DU CERTIFICAT D'ÉTUDES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.

Theoretically the *Examen du Certificat d'Études Primaires Supérieures* corresponds in higher primary schools to the *certificat d'études* in primary schools. Examen du  
Certificat  
d'Études  
Primaires  
Supérieures.

In practice the two examinations differ widely, for whereas in primary schools a large number of the pupils enter for the *certificat* and obtain it with ease, in higher primary schools few enter and many fail.

One may give two reasons for the low number of candidates :—

1. The *certificat* is of little practical use. The intelligent third-year pupil wishes to pass an examination which will be of use in leading to some career, he does not wish to expend much work on an examination which only brings honour. Thus he chooses the *brevet simple*, the entrance examinations to technical schools, or competitive examinations for civil service appointments.

2. The examination appears to be unnecessarily severe. French composition and *la morale* are papers which are dreaded by the candidates.

Efforts are being made to render the examination more popular, and especially to lower the standard required for passing. The subjects of the examination are arranged so as to correspond with the different sections in the school (general, commercial, industrial, agricultural).

*Subjects for all Candidates :—*

1. *La morale*.
2. Composition.
3. Science.
  - (a) a question in Arithmetic or Geometry.
  - (b) „ „ „ Physics or Chemistry.
  - (c) „ „ „ Natural History or Hygiene.<sup>1</sup>
4. Drawing.

*Special subjects* (varying according to the section).—A foreign language, or drawing, or agriculture.

*Oral* (varies according to section).—General section :—

1. Reading with explanation, grammar.
2. History and geography.
3. Mathematics, natural sciences.
4. Conversation in the foreign language.

*Practical work :—*

- Section general : manual (wood or iron).  
 „ commercial : bookkeeping, shorthand.

Section industrial : manual (wood or iron).

„ agricultural : agriculture.

There is also an examination in singing and gymnastics.

Each subject has a maximum of 20 assigned to it (except singing and gymnastics, which have a maximum of 10). In order to pass the whole examination a candidate must get half marks in the practical work, and the total number of marks obtained in all subjects must be 50 per cent. of the maximum total.

The result of the examination last year was considered very satisfactory, four of the pupils at X—— passing out of six.

The written examination was held at the school, the oral and practical at the *chef-lieu* of the department.

The questions asked, for which I am indebted to one of the candidates, are given in the Appendix.

#### C.—EXAMEN DES BOURSES POUR LES ECOLES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.

Examen des Bourses pour écoles primaires supérieures. The general conditions for obtaining scholarships are stated in the chapter on school organization.

The questions asked at the *chef-lieu* in 1901 are given in the Appendix. Thirty-eight candidates presented themselves for examination; only thirteen passed the written examination, two of the thirteen failed in the oral. Of the seven pupils who entered from X—— three passed (all of these were in the second year).

A. M. SAVILLE.

## APPENDIX.

## SPECIMEN EXAMINATION PAPERS.

## I.—BREVET ÉLÉMENTAIRE.

*Written Examination.*1. *Composition*.—

Centre  $\alpha$ . La Fontaine, dans une des plus jolies de ses fables, raconte qu'un jour le lapin se laisse vaincre par la tortue qui l'avait provoqué à la course.

Vous supposerez que le lapin raconte sa mésaventure à quelques-uns de ses amis.

Centre  $\beta$ . Inventez une suite à la fable "La Cigale et la Fourmi," de manière à en tirer une leçon morale.

2. *Arithmetic*.—Centre  $\alpha$ .

1. Un marchand avait acheté 40 m. de drap qu'il revend avec un bénéfice égal aux  $\frac{1}{100}$  du prix d'achat. S'il avait revendu ce drap avec un bénéfice de 15 % sur le prix de vente, il aurait eu 24<sup>f</sup>.15 de bénéfice de plus. On demande le prix d'achat du drap.

2. Démontrer que  $100 \times 100$  est plus grand que  $99 \times 101$ . Faire un simple raisonnement en s'appuyant sur la définition de la multiplication et remplacer pour le raisonnement 99 par  $(100 - 1)$  et 101 par  $(100 + 1)$ .

Centre  $\beta$ .

1. Expliquer la Réduction des fractions  $\frac{3}{4}$ ,  $\frac{5}{8}$ ,  $\frac{6}{9}$ , au même dénominateur.

2. Un champ a la forme d'un trapèze, dont les bases ont respectivement 35 decamètres 4 centimètres et 4 hectomètres 67 decimètres, et la hauteur 188 mètres. On prend ensuite deux points : EF sur la grande base DC; de sorte que DE=190 mètres et DF=196 mètres; et l'on mène deux parallèles; EG, FH, déterminant les bords d'un chemin partageant le champs en deux parties égales. On demande :

(1.) La surface du champ.

(2.) La distance AG.

(3.) La surface du chemin EFGH.

(4.) La surface de chacune des deux parties du champ.

3. *Dictation*.—

(Passage read through, then dictated slowly, passage read again. Ten minutes given to revise. Pupils to punctuate.)

4. *Writing*.—

Une partie de l'orthographe en grosse cursive, fine et moyenne cursive, grosse ronde et grosse bâtarde.

5. *Drawing*.—

Centre  $\alpha$ . Un pupitre à musique (croquis coté).

Centre  $\beta$ .—Chaise vue en élévation, plan, profil, dos (croquis coté).

*Oral Examination.*1. *Gymnastics*.—

Centre  $\alpha$ .—Le garde-à-vous. Longueur des différentes sortes de pas et vitesse de ces pas. Demi-tour à droite : les commandements de ce mouvement de pied, ferme et en marchant.

- Centre  $\beta$  :
- (1.) Faire aligner, doubler, marcher une escouade.
  - (2.) Expliquer et faire exécuter le demi-tour.
2. *History* :—
- Centre  $\alpha$ .—Les cent jours. Attributions du conseil municipal.
- Centre  $\beta$ .
- (1.) Règne de Louis XVI. ; ses ministres. Guerre de l'indépendance d'Amérique.
  - (2.) Louis XI. et Charles le Téméraire.
3. *Geography* :—
- Centre  $\alpha$ .—L'Algérie.
- Centre  $\beta$ .—La côte de la Manche physique ; les villes sur la côte, les départements, préfectures et sous-préfectures, les fleuves côtiers, et géographie économique des diverses parties de ce pays.
4. *Arithmetic* :—
- Centre  $\alpha$ .—Théorie du 3 : cas de la division.
- Centre  $\beta$ .
- (1.) Tout nombre qui en divise deux autres, divise leur plus grand commun diviseur. Le démontrer.
  - (2.) Énoncer, démontrer et appliquer le 2<sup>e</sup> cas de la soustraction des fractions.
5. *Science* :—
- Physics : La pompe aspirante et foulante.
- Chemistry : L'acide sulfurique—préparation—usages.
- Natural History : La fleur. Réproduction des végétaux.
6. *Reading* (with explanation) :—
- Centre  $\alpha$ .—Les Bûcherons (André Theuriet).
- Centre  $\beta$ .—Lire et expliquer une partie de "L'âne et le chien."  
Analyser logiquement et grammaticalement une phrase.

## II.—CERTIFICAT D'ÉTUDES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.

### *Written Examination.*

1. *La Morale* (1½ hours) :—  
Vous devez aimer votre grande patrie la France ; vous devez aussi aimer votre petit pays, c'est-à-dire le pays natal. Comment devez-vous, considérer ces deux amours ?
2. *Composition française* (1½ hours) :—  
Vous faites une promenade dans un grand bois. Décrivez le spectacle que vous avez sous les yeux. Dites pourquoi vous trouvez du plaisir, et montrez combien il est à la fois cruel et maladroit de déboiser un pays.
3. *Dessin* (2 hours) :—  
Mise en perspective une table simple à quatre pieds.
4. *Mathematics and Natural Science* :—
  - (1) Un problème d'arithmétique.
  - (2) Un problème de géométrie.
  - (3) Donnez succinctement les propriétés et les usages des principaux métaux usuels.  
Insistez sur le plomb, et les oxydes et les carbonates de ce métal.  
L'eau : pure, potable et naturelle.
5. *Anglais* :—  
A short piece of English prose to translate into French. (Dictionary allowed.)

## Oral Examination.

1. *Science and Mathématiques.*
  - (1) Théorème et problème sur les nombres premiers.
  - (2) Chimie : la benzine, ses applications industrielles.
  - (3) Botanique : Caractères généraux des crucifères ; principales plantes.
2. *Histoire et Géographie :—*
  - (1) Règne de Philippe II. d'Espagne. Généralités sur le règne de Charles X. et la conquête de l'Algérie.
  - (2) Côte de la Manche ; nature et détails de la côte.
3. *Littérature et Lecture expliquée :—*  
 " L'infiniment grand et l'infiniment petit." (Pascal—Textes classiques de Demogeot.)  
 Lecture et explication de la 1<sup>ère</sup> partie.  
 Analyse grammaticale de quelques mots ; biographie de Pascal.  
 Divisions de la Philosophie.
4. *Anglais :—*  
 Lecture et traduction d'un morceau.  
 Questions sur le vocabulaire et les temps principaux de quelques verbes.
5. *Travaux manuels :—*  
 Menuiserie : assemblage à parement.
6. *Chant :—*  
 Questions sur la théorie (mesures composées ; contretemps).  
 Exécution d'un morceau.
7. *Gymnastique :—*  
 Mouvements aux appareils (trapèze, barre fixe, anneaux, barres parallèles, corde lisse).

## III.—EXAMEN DES BOURSES POUR LES ECOLES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.

## Written Examination.

1. *Dictée :—*  
 " L'amour de la patrie " —Ernest Lavisse.
2. *Mathématiques :—*
  - (a) Trouver la fraction équivalente à  $\frac{9}{25}$  et qui ait pour dénominateur 28. Démontrer que les deux fractions sont équivalentes.
  - (b) Deux bicyclistes parcourent la route de P. à B. dans les conditions suivantes ; le premier bicycliste a fait 975 tours de la roue de devant lorsque le second part de P., il fait 47 tours de roue pendant que le second en fait 36 ; mais 48 tours de roue du second bicycliste en valent 67 du premier. Combien de tours de roue du second bicycliste aura-t-il fait avant d'atteindre le premier ? (Il s'agit toujours de la roue de devant).
3. *Composition Française :—*  
 Un de vos camarades de classe, fils d'un cultivateur aisé, vous écrit qu'il ne veut pas embrasser la profession de son père, parce que, d'après lui, le métier de cultivateur est le plus pénible, le moins lucratif et le plus dédaigné. Il préfère entrer dans un bureau à la ville.  
 Vous répondez à cette lettre de votre ami.

## Oral Examination.

1. *Histoire et Géographie de la France et de ses Colonies :—*
  - (1.) Date de la première République.
  - (2.) Les principaux événements sous la Convention.
  - (3.) La France est-elle un pays industriel ?
  - (4.) Qu'est-ce qui favorise l'industrie d'un pays.
  - (5.) Les principales industries de la France.

**2. Lecture Expliquée :—**

Lire à haute voix (un morceau) et donner des explications.

**3. Morale et Instruction Civique :—**

- (1.) Qu'est qu'un homme vertueux ?
- (2.) Pourquoi l'homme ne doit-il pas maltraiter les animaux ?
- (3.) Comment qualifiez-vous l'homme qui les maltraite ?
- (4.) Qu'est-ce que la morale pratique ?
- (5.) Qu'est-ce que la morale théorique ?

**4. Arithmétique :—**

- (1.) Soustraire deux nombres fractionnaires. Donnez la règle.
- (2.) Qu'est qu'une fraction décimale ?
- (3.) Qu'est qu'une fraction ordinaire ?

**b. Géométrie :—**

Comment fait-on pour calculer la surface d'un parallélogramme ? d'un losange ? Le carré est-il un losange ?

**6. Histoire Naturelle :—**

Que savez-vous sur les insectes ?

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SUMMARY OF THE OFFICIAL REGULATIONS  
AFFECTING THE TRAINING AND POSITION  
OF TEACHERS IN STATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS  
IN FRANCE.

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## SUMMARY OF THE OFFICIAL REGULATIONS AFFECTING THE TRAINING AND POSI- TION OF TEACHERS IN STATE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN FRANCE.

*NOTE.*—This summary is intended to show the extent to which the training and position of teachers in public primary schools in France is imposed or regulated by the State. The information has been taken from official sources, and the conditions summarised are those in force in June, 1906, but it must be clearly understood that this is a collection of “paper regulations” only, and that no attempt is made to estimate how far the regulations are modified or ignored in practice.

The obvious disadvantages of attempting to represent a living organisation by a summary of the regulations which nominally govern it are mitigated in the present instance because this paper serves as preface to Mr. Dumville’s (p. 159 *f* below). I have felt, moreover, that it would be impossible to attempt to realise the force of written laws—without living under them—and that a *partial* interpretation of the effects of regulations would be more inadequate than the regulations themselves. The following pages can only be put to their full use by those already acquainted with the subject, who will know better than I do with what limitations they are to be taken.

H. E. M.

### I.—QUALIFICATIONS AND POSITION OF TEACHERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

#### A.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.\*

In order to teach in a State elementary school a man must be at least eighteen years of age, a woman seventeen years. No one can direct a school before twenty-one years of age, or a school to which a boarding institution is attached, before twenty-five years of age. Minimum Requirements.

No one can be a member of the staff in a State primary school unless he or she is of French nationality.

No one can teach, even as probationer, in an elementary school unless he (or she) holds the most elementary of the teachers’ certificates—the *brevet élémentaire* (see pp. 152–3).

No member of a religious order is allowed to teach in an elementary school whether public or private. Religious Restrictions.

The State teacher is at liberty to attend the services and submit to the observances of his (or her) religion as a private person, but he may not do so officially, that is to say at the head of his pupils.

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\* In France primary education includes, by law : “*enseignement primaire élémentaire*” (elementary schools for children of compulsory school age—six to thirteen years—and infant schools) and “*enseignement primaire supérieur*.” Regulations affecting teachers in higher elementary schools are therefore included in this summary (see pp. 136–139). Infant schools include *écoles maternelles* and *classes enfantines*. The former are mixed schools to which children can be admitted from two to six years of age. The latter are intermediate classes between the *écoles maternelles* and the elementary school proper, and can only exist as attached to one or the other ; children are admitted between the ages of four and seven. Teachers in infant schools are assimilated, as far as State regulations are concerned, to teachers in elementary schools. The following regulations, therefore, apply equally to teachers in infant schools unless specially mentioned otherwise.

On the other hand, he cannot be obliged to take his pupils to church or in any way to undertake religious duties in relation to them.

Civil  
Servants.  
Military  
Service.  
Bonds of  
Service as  
Teachers.

French primary teachers are direct servants of the State.\*

Two years of military service are now required from teachers as from other French citizens.

Training College students, who receive their education, board and lodging free at the expense of public funds, must undertake to teach for ten years in public elementary schools in France or in French possessions (see below, p. 143).

Diplomas  
and  
Training.

Teachers in primary schools are divided into *stagiaires* and *titulaires*. *Stagiaires* are appointed by the Academy Inspector †; they must hold the *brevet élémentaire* and must be at least eighteen years of age (men) and seventeen (women). *Titulaires* are fully certificated teachers; they are appointed by the Prefect †, under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction, on the nomination of the Academy Inspector. In order to be fully certificated, or made *titulaire*, a teacher must have had at least two years' experience in a public or private school, and must hold the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* (for which the minimum age is twenty, see pp. 155-6). That is to say a *stagiaire* can become a *titulaire* after two years' experience and after passing the necessary theoretical and practical examination, at the minimum age of twenty. The time passed as students in Training Colleges counts towards the required teaching experience of two years, from the age of eighteen for men, seventeen for women, the minimum age of admission to Training

\* This statement applies, of course, to primary teachers recognised as such by the State. For instance, those who are employed solely in boarding houses attached to schools and not in the schools themselves, are not, as stated below, State servants; teachers in girls' schools in communes with less than 400 inhabitants and in infant schools in communes with less than 2,000 inhabitants, to take another example, have also no claim to pensions, because these schools are an optional and not a compulsory burden on the commune.

† France is divided into eighty-seven Departments, the subdivisions of the Department being the *arrondissement*, *canton*, *commune*. Further, for educational purposes, France is divided into seventeen divisions called *Académies*, each Academy consisting of a certain number of Departments. At the head of each Academy is the *Recteur*, appointed by the President of the Republic, whose authority extends over all institutions of public education (higher, secondary, primary) in the Academy. For primary education his authority on certain points is limited by that of the *Prefets*, of whom there is one in each Department. The administration of elementary education is centralised in the hands of the *Prefet* assisted by the *Conseil Départemental*, of which he is president, the *Inspecteur d'Académie* being vice-president; four councillors elected by their colleagues, the Director and Directress of the Departmental Training College, two Primary Inspectors appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, two primary men and two primary women teachers chosen by their colleagues, are members of the Council. There is an *Inspecteur d'Académie* in each Department, who acts as the permanent representative of the *Recteur* and who is appointed by the Minister; he is practically the head of the primary education in his Department. Primary Inspectors, of whom there are between 400 and 500, are servants of the Central Government, appointed by the Minister and placed under the immediate control of the Academy Inspector; they must hold a special certificate (which is the same as that for Directors of Training Colleges, see below, p. 157).

Colleges being sixteen (see page 143); dispensations from the *stage* of two years may be granted by the Minister at the suggestion of the Departmental Council. Every year the Departmental Council draws up, after investigating the claims of candidates, a list of *stagiaires* who are qualified to become fully certificated teachers, and this list must be published in the local official organ.

In addition to the diplomas named above as compulsory, viz. the *brevet élémentaire* for all teachers and the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* for *titulaires*, many teachers in elementary schools, especially in Paris, hold the *brevet supérieur* (see pp. 153-5) which is always to be taken at the end of the second year by students in Training Colleges, but which may also be taken without passing through a Training College. The *brevet supérieur* is compulsory for some of the higher posts, e.g., in *cours complémentaires* and higher elementary schools, which will be named later, but is optional for teachers in *écoles primaires élémentaires*, though the highest grades of elementary teachers proper can only be reached by teachers holding this diploma (see below "Promotion" p. 133). The latest statistics available (those for 1902) give the total number of teachers in elementary schools holding the *brevet supérieur* as 18,080 (9,426 men, 8,654 women), and of teachers who hold only the *brevet élémentaire* as 47,967 (27,365 men and 20,602 women).

It is not compulsory for teachers to pass through a Training College, though it is compulsory for each Department to support a Training College for men and one for women. The College course lasts three years, and the age for admission is from sixteen to eighteen years. Teachers leaving the College have the first choice of vacant posts. Further, students who have passed the examination at the end of the College course are only obliged to take the practical tests in their final certificate examination (*certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*). Statistics are not available showing the actual proportion of teachers in elementary schools who have passed through Training Colleges.\* The Training College regulations are given below (pp. 139-152).

From what has been said it is clear that a teacher can become fully certificated at the earliest at twenty years of age, whether he (or she) passes through a Training College or not.

The minimum age for admission to Training Colleges being sixteen, and to probationary (*stagiaire*) posts in elementary schools eighteen (or seventeen for women), it follows that there are several years in the life of the future teacher to be accounted for after leaving the elementary school and before entering the Training College or the teaching profession. These years are not covered by State regulations. The compulsory school age is from six to thirteen years, but children who hold the *certificat d'études primaires élémentaires*, for which they may sit from the age of eleven onwards, are dispensed from further obligatory school

\* The number of Students who have passed through the Training Colleges for Elementary Teachers during the fifteen years ending in 1902 is 5,909 men and 6,256 women.

attendance. As a matter of fact, an increasing number of intending teachers take the course (three years or more) of the higher elementary school, where special facilities are given them for studying for the examination of the *brevet élémentaire*.

To resume briefly—the full, though not the invariable or compulsory, education and training of the State elementary school teacher is as follows: from the *école maternelle* or *classe enfantine* to the elementary school at six years of age; from the elementary to the higher elementary school from the upper standard (*cours supérieur*) of the elementary school at about thirteen years of age; from the higher elementary school to the Training College at (minimum) sixteen years of age; from the Training College to probationary service in an elementary school at eighteen to nineteen years, full certification (one or) two years later. During this period the certificates and diplomas obtained are as follows:—*certificat d'études primaires élémentaires* (elementary school), *certificat d'études primaires supérieures* and *brevet élémentaire* (higher elementary school), *brevet supérieur*, *certificat de fin d'études normales* (Training College), *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* (after two years' teaching). Only the last but one of these is taken exclusively by Training College students. To these should be added as an examination not qualifying for a diploma, the entrance examination to Training Colleges.\*

#### Directors.

A *titulaire* in charge of a school containing more than two classes takes the title of Director (or Directress); under this head an additional salary is received. Directors and Directresses must be at least twenty-one years of age.

A Director or Directress of a school including more than five classes and registering during the preceding year at least 300 pupils, may be dispensed from conducting a class by decision of the Departmental Council, provided that the Academy Inspector, the Prefect, and the Municipal Council are agreed, and subject to the approval of the Minister of Public Instruction.

The Director or Directress of an elementary school to which a *cours complémentaire*† is attached, and the teacher in charge of this *cours*, in addition to being fully certificated (*titulaire*), must hold the *brevet supérieur*. They are included in the elementary, not the higher elementary, *personnel* of the Department. The teacher in charge of the *cours* receives a supplementary salary, and, like the Director, must be at least twenty-one years old.

#### Assistants.

In schools containing several classes, the head teachers are helped by assistants, whose number is fixed by the Departmental Council and who may be either *titulaires* or *stagiaires*.

In an infants' school (*école maternelle*), if the average number of presences exceeds fifty, an assistant is appointed. The Directress must be a *titulaire*.

\* It should be remembered that it is always possible for French elementary school teachers to advance in their profession. The examinations for the highest posts in the service (e.g. members of Training College staffs, Primary Inspectors) are open to those who have begun as teachers in elementary schools.

† A *cours complémentaire* is a one year's course or class, attached to and under the same direction as an elementary school, and is not to be confused with higher elementary schools (see below, p. 136 f).

A woman (*femme de service*) is attached to every infant school; she is appointed by the Directress with the approval of the Mayor, and her salary is paid by the Commune.

Instruction is given by men in boys' schools, by women in girls' schools, infant schools, and in mixed schools. A woman may be allowed to act as assistant in a boys' school if she is a near relation of the Director of the school. A Departmental Council can provisionally allow a man to direct a mixed school provided that a mistress of needlework is attached, and can authorise suspension of the restrictions as to relationship for women in boys' schools. Teachers in Mixed Schools.

The mistresses of needlework in mixed schools directed by men are appointed by the Academy Inspector. Their salary is fixed by the Prefect on the proposal of the Academy Inspector, but it cannot exceed 80 francs a year, and does not qualify for a pension.

If a teacher wishes to receive boarders in the school which he (or she) directs, he must inform the Academy Inspector and the Mayor of the Commune, and submit to the latter a plan of the premises, which must be in accordance with State regulations. The Mayor informs the Municipal Council, whose verdict is submitted to the Academy Inspector through the Prefect. The final authorisation rests with the Departmental Council. None of the duties connected with the *internat* can be imposed on the staff of the school, but the Academy Inspector may permit one or more teachers to undertake special duties for remuneration or in exchange for advantages granted by the Director. Teachers exclusively attached to the boarding-house are not public (*i.e.*, State) teachers. Boarding Institutions.

When a teacher is transferred from one Commune to another for educational purposes, the decision lies with the Academy Inspector in the case of *stagiaires*, and with the Prefect acting on the proposal of the Academy Inspector in the case of *titulaires*. Transference.

A teacher cannot absent himself (or herself) without having obtained permission from the Primary Inspector and without having given notice of this permission to the local authorities. If the absence lasts more than three days the permission of the Academy Inspector is necessary; leave for more than a fortnight can only be granted by the Prefect. In urgent and unforeseen cases a teacher can leave without any condition but that of immediately informing the local authorities and the Primary Inspector. Leave of Absence

Leave of absence for reasons of health is granted by the Prefect on the evidence of a medical certificate, and the teacher can be authorised to draw his (or her) complete salary during the first three months, half or at the most two-thirds during the second three months; after this he receives no salary. The six months during which salary is received are pensionable. Leave of absence for personal convenience carries with it no right to salary.

Temporary substitutes are chosen by the Academy Inspector from students leaving the Training Colleges, or from among candidates for posts as *stagiaires*; failing these, anyone fulfilling the legal conditions for teaching in an elementary school may be appointed. Supply Teachers.

The supply teachers receive, apart from travelling expenses paid at the rate of 10 or 20 centimes per kilometre, 2.50 francs a day

during each separate appointment. They have no further allowance for board or residence, and their service is not pensionable. The total length of their actual work as supply teachers may be reckoned towards the two years' experience demanded for full certification. The cost of supply teachers is at the charge of the State.

**Holidays.**

In addition to public holidays (Christmas Day, Whit Monday, etc.), elementary schools of all classes are closed for a week at Easter and for six weeks in the summer. The summer holidays may be extended to eight weeks in higher elementary schools and in elementary schools where holiday classes are arranged. In *écoles maternelles* the staff are entitled to six weeks' summer holidays, but the schools themselves are not necessarily closed if the Departmental Council undertakes to defray the cost of deputies.

**Superintendence outside School Hours.**

The teachers in elementary schools are responsible in turns for superintending the pupils during recreations and those who do not go home between morning and afternoon school, or who are kept in as a punishment after school.

Supervised study may be organised after afternoon lessons on the proposal of the Primary Inspector by decision of the Academy Inspector. The superintendence of such study is optional for assistants but obligatory for the Director. It is allowable to charge the pupils fees and to give the Director special remuneration.

**Prohibitions.**

Public teachers are forbidden by law to undertake any commercial or other business, administrative functions or religious offices, whether paid or voluntary. With the permission of the Departmental Council a teacher may act as Secretary to the Mayor of the Commune.

It is not allowable to employ as teacher in any school anyone who has been convicted of a criminal or moral offence, who has been deprived in whole or in part of civil rights, or who has been absolutely dismissed from the teaching profession.

**Penalties.**

There are five degrees of punishment or disciplinary penalties, which may be inflicted on teachers in State elementary schools for neglect of duty:—

(1) Reprimand, pronounced privately by the Academy Inspector with the sanction of the Departmental Council;

(2) Censure, pronounced by the Academy Inspector on the proved accusation of the Departmental Council, with or without insertion in the official Bulletin;

(3) Removal from a particular school, pronounced by the Prefect, on the proposition of the Academy Inspector, on the proved accusation of the Departmental Council;

(4) Suspension for a time, not exceeding five years, pronounced by the Departmental Council;

(5) Absolute dismissal, pronounced by the Departmental Council.

The only one of these which does not apply to "*stagiaires*" as well as "*titulaires*" is (3) removal.

The teacher who is removed (3) can appeal to the Minister of Public Instruction. In the last three cases (removal and

temporary and absolute dismissal), teachers have the right of appeal before the *Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique*,\* and in the last two cases they may have counsel's assistance.

In urgent cases the Academy Inspector can provisionally suspend a teacher, who does not meanwhile lose his (or her) salary, but he must provide for a temporary substitute, and immediately inform the Prefect of the circumstances of the case.

Teachers who are *titulaires* are divided into five classes, of which the lowest, that entered by *stagiaires* on becoming fully certificated, is the fifth. The class is attached to the individual, and remains with him (or her) on passing from one Department to another. All promotions date from the 1st of January.

Promotions are made from one class to another both according to length of service and according to merit. As regards length of service teachers are promoted to the fourth and third classes after five years' service in the fifth and fourth respectively, to the second after six years in the third class. Promotions to the first class are made solely by merit. Only teachers who hold the *brevet supérieur* are admitted to the first two classes.

The number of promotions according to merit from the fifth to the fourth class, from the fourth to the third, and from the third to the second, is equal to a tenth of the number of promotions according to length of service; from the second to the first class, it is equal to a sixth of the number of teachers who have passed six years in the second class.† No promotion by merit can be granted to a teacher who has not passed three years in his (or her) class. The list of teachers recommended for promotion by merit is prepared by the Academy Inspector, on the reports of the Primary Inspectors, passed by the Departmental Council and submitted to the Minister.

The salaries of teachers in elementary schools are paid by the State and are fixed as follows:—‡

	Men.	Women.		Men.	Women.
Stagiaires -	1,100	1,100	3rd class -	1,800	1,600
5th class -	1,200	1,200	2nd class -	2,000	1,800
4th class -	1,500	1,400	1st class -	2,200	2,000

Directors or Directresses (*titulaires* in charge of a school of more than two classes) receive a supplement to their salary of 200 francs, increased to 400 francs if the school includes more than four classes.

\* The *Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique*, of which the Minister of Education is president, consists of representatives of all grades of education; it advises as to curricula, examinations, methods of teaching, regulations, etc., and acts as the final court of appeal in disciplinary matters affecting teachers.

† A temporary measure is in force until 1908 by which the number of promotions from the second to the first class is equal to a sixth of the number of teachers who have passed three years in the second class.

‡ As regards rate of salaries, and in certain other respects, the regulations affecting teachers in Paris are different from those generally in force, but it has not been thought necessary to give the Paris regulations separately, in detail.

In schools which include a *cours complémentaire*, the teacher in charge of this class receives a supplementary 200 francs (hereafter these teachers are counted with Directors).

In addition to their regular salary, paid by the State, teachers are entitled to lodging or a corresponding indemnification fixed by the Prefect, and to an *indemnité de résidence*, both paid by the Commune.

The *indemnité de résidence* varies according to the population of the commune. It is intended to cover the extra expense of living in large towns, and is not included in the sums calculated for pensions. For Directors and Directresses it varies from 100 francs a year in communes of 1,000 to 3,000 inhabitants, to 800 francs in communes with 100,000 inhabitants and upwards. In Paris it is 2,000 francs. The amount is only half for other teachers (*titulaires*), and a quarter for *stagiaires*.

Lodging or its monetary equivalent is an obligatory charge for the Commune for all teachers (*titulaires* and *stagiaires*) in elementary schools.

The annual indemnification where suitable lodging cannot be provided is fixed by law; it varies from a minimum of 75 to 125 francs in communes with less than 1,000 inhabitants, to 300 to 400 francs in communes with 100,000 inhabitants and upwards. These rates are increased by a fifth for Directors and Directresses, and by a quarter for men or widows who have children. The actual sum paid is fixed in each case by the Prefect, with the advice of the Municipal Council and the Academy Inspector.

The law has likewise determined what constitutes the minimum "suitable housing" as follows:—For head teachers (men and women), married or single, in communes with less than 12,000 inhabitants: a kitchen and living room combined, and three other rooms (the rooms are to have stoves unless otherwise mentioned); with more than 12,000 inhabitants: a kitchen, a sitting room and three other rooms. For a married assistant teacher (*titulaire* or *stagiaire*), man or woman, and for the head master or mistress of a village school: a kitchen, living room, and two rooms; for an unmarried assistant master (*titulaire* or *stagiaire*): two rooms (one with stove), an unmarried assistant mistress to have in addition a separate kitchen. All the teachers must have in addition the use of a cellar or shed. In the case of married couples, of whom both are teachers, the Commune is only obliged to supply the quarters, or the corresponding indemnification, due to a married master.

Pensions.

Teachers in State elementary schools are civil servants and are entitled to civil pensions. The main conditions and regulations are as follows:—

Teachers may claim their pension at fifty-five years of age and after twenty-five years' service. The years passed as students in Training Colleges are reckoned as years of service from the age of twenty. The annual pension amounts to half the average salary, including all emoluments unless specially excepted, received during the six years when the highest sum was earned, with increase for each year of service, in addition to the twenty-

five, of one-fiftieth of the salary. In no case can the pension exceed three-quarters of the average salary during the period of service; at the same time it must never be less than 600 francs for a man or 500 francs for a woman. Teachers who are unable to continue their work owing to ill-health are dispensed from the condition as to age. Exceptional pensions, to which the above rates do not apply, may be granted in certain specified cases (such as accidents caused in serving the State, or acts of devotion in the public service), irrespective of age and length of service. When a pension has been claimed, a teacher is kept in his (or her) post at full salary until the first instalment has been actually received. A teacher who resigns or is dismissed forfeits any claim to pension; if reinstated, the first period of service is counted.

In view of the pension, a teacher's income is subject to the following reductions: 5 per cent. on all sums received under the head of salary; a twelfth of the same sums at the time of appointment, or in case of reinstatement, and a twelfth of each further increase; reductions on account of absences\* or penalties.

The widow of a teacher can claim a pension when her husband had obtained his pension, or when he had accomplished the necessary length of service (twenty-five years), provided that the marriage took place six years before the husband ceased work. The widow's pension is a third of that due to her husband, but it cannot be less than 100 francs, unless this exceeds what the husband had or could have obtained. Special arrangements are made for exceptional cases, *e.g.*, where the husband lost his life in the pursuit of duty, or in saving life.

Orphans who are minors are entitled under the same circumstances to the same amount that the widow would have received (she being dead or disqualified from drawing the pension); this amount is divided among the orphans (whatever the number of the family) in equal portions, and is paid until the youngest of the children is twenty-one years old, the portion of those who die or attain their majority devolving upon the younger child or children.

Every year, on July 14th, the Minister awards medals and other distinctions to teachers in public elementary schools. The names of teachers (men and women) suggested for these rewards are submitted to the Minister by the Departmental Councils. The proposals are laid before the Departmental Council in the first place, by the Academy Inspector for "honourable mention" and bronze medals; for silver medals, by a special Committee consisting of the Academy Inspector (president), the Primary Inspectors, the Director and Directress of the Departmental Training Colleges, and two delegates elected by the Departmental Council. These distinctions are distributed as follows:—A silver medal for each group of 300 teachers (and one extra for a fraction exceeding 150); a bronze medal for each group of 120; an honourable mention for each 80. No one can obtain "honourable mention" who has not served at least five years as fully

Distinctions.

\* Leave of absence, owing to ill-health, is reckoned as service towards pension during the first six months while the salary is paid.

certificated teacher; no one can obtain the bronze medal who has not received "honourable mention" at least two years previously; the bronze medal must be held for at least two years before the silver medal can be obtained. The silver medal carries with it an annuity of 100 francs (not reckonable for pension) and a special badge. Retired teachers who have been in service for twenty-five years and who hold the bronze medal can obtain "*le titre d'honoraire*."

Special distinctions, chiefly for the higher branches of the service, consisting of decorations of "*officier d'académie*" and "*officier de l'instruction publique*," medals (with gifts of 60 to 100 francs), gifts of books, congratulatory letters, extra holidays, are awarded annually to teachers who have distinguished themselves in some special recognised direction, such as success in teaching a particular subject (*e.g.*, drawing, agriculture), the education of adults,\* historical or scientific or pedagogic work, the propagation of vaccination. A special silver medal (with 500 francs) is also awarded every two years to the Directress of an *école maternelle*.

**Educational Conferences.** Every Department is obliged to hold educational conferences, at which attendance is compulsory for all State primary school teachers (*titulaires*) who can be spared from school duties, unless special dispensation is granted by the Academy Inspector. There is generally a conference in each district (*canton*) about twice a year, or two or more districts may combine. The conferences may be mixed by decision of the *Recteur*, otherwise separate ones are held for men and for women. The actual organisation is left to local authorities. The Academy Inspector, or failing him the Primary Inspector, is president, and the members of the conference appoint a vice-president and a secretary from among themselves.

The conferences are devoted to a study of questions of theoretic and practical pedagogy—especially practical. At the last meeting of each school year subjects are proposed for discussion in the following year; the list of subjects is submitted to the Academy Inspector and published as soon as possible.

The Minister engages to give a sum equal to that voted by the Departmental Council to defray the cost of travelling, etc. incurred by teachers attending conferences.

#### B.—HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Higher Elementary Schools are separate institutions, with a course of two or three years. Instruction is free. Boarding institutions (charging fees) are often attached to the schools.

**Qualifications of Staff.** Directors and Directresses of higher elementary schools must be at least twenty-five years of age and hold the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat des écoles normales et des écoles primaires supérieures* (see below, p. 156).

Assistant teachers must be twenty-one years old and hold the *brevet supérieur*; they are chosen by preference from among

\* No public teacher is *obliged* to teach in adult classes.

fully certificated teachers (*titulaires*). They take the title of "professors" when they hold the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat*.\*

Directors and professors are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, assistant teachers by the Prefect on the proposition of the Academy Inspector.

In case of an insufficient number of candidates holding the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat*, *licenciés* can be appointed Directors and professors by the Minister; they serve a provisional year before final appointment, but receive salaries as professors. *Licenciés* who hold the *brevet supérieur* and the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* can be definitely appointed without a year's probation.

Extra teachers for special instruction (modern languages, book-keeping, manual work, drawing, needlework, agriculture, singing, gymnastics, military exercises) may be appointed by the Prefect on the proposition of the Academy Inspector if they hold the special diploma for teaching one (or more) of these subjects (see page 158), and failing professors or assistant teachers who hold the necessary diplomas.

Professors of higher or secondary education may be delegated by the Minister to give lessons or courses which form part of the curriculum of higher elementary schools.

The Commune pays the salaries of teachers in charge of workshops, and also of foremen and skilled workmen employed for the technical and manual instruction in the workshops.

Directors and assistants are divided into five classes of separate Promotion grades. All teachers begin in the lowest class, and promotion from one class to another is only by merit and not, as in the case of elementary schools, partly according to seniority. Teachers can be promoted after at least three and at most six years in the preceding class.

The salary of Directors varies from 2,000 francs (5th class) to Salaries 3,000 francs (first class), of Directresses from 2,000 to 2,800 francs. Those who hold the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat* receive 500 francs in addition as part of their salary (*viz.*, recognisable for pension).

Assistant teachers: 5th class, 1,400 francs (men and women); 1st class, 2,400 francs men, 2,200 women.

\* Higher Elementary Schools.

	No. of Schools.	Teachers holding Professorat.	Teachers not holding Professorat.
Boys - - -	225	641	447
Girls - -	122	297	223

Outside teachers in charge of special subjects receive a salary reckoned at 50 to 100 francs per year for each hour of instruction per week, but their salary does not qualify for a pension.

Directors (and Directresses) and regular assistant teachers receive, in addition to salary, lodging or its equivalent and an *indemnité de résidence* provided by the Commune. The minimum housing, according to official regulations, is:—For Directors and Directresses: kitchen, sitting-room, three other rooms (with stove); for married assistants: kitchen, sitting-room, two rooms (with fireplace); unmarried assistants: two rooms (with stoves). The *indemnités de logement et de résidence* for Directors and assistants are the same as those appointed for Directors and Directresses of elementary schools (see above, p. 134).

Pensions.

Pension rules are the same as in the case of elementary teachers (see above, pp. 134–5).

Number of  
Hours' Work  
a Week.

The maximum number of hours of teaching that can be demanded of the staff per week is fixed as follows:—In addition to general superintendence, the Director (or Directress) is to give ten hours' teaching in schools with a three years' course, fifteen hours in schools with a two years' course; in schools with a three years' course which are placed under the same direction as an elementary school containing more than three classes, or in schools with a two years' course which contain more than 150 pupils, the Director may be relieved from all teaching except moral and civic instruction, by a decision of the Departmental Council approved by the Minister. Professors and assistant teachers: twenty hours' teaching and five hours' superintendence. No duties of superintendence can be imposed on any of the staff outside the hours when day pupils are present. For the hours in addition to the above when they are on duty, professors receive 150 francs a year for each hour per week, and assistant teachers (who are not professors) 100 francs; these sums are not included in their salary for pension purposes.

Professors and staff assistants who hold one of the diplomas for special subjects (see p. 158), if they give this instruction in addition to their general duties but without exceeding the regulation number of hours of teaching required, receive, in addition to their salary (but not pensionable), 300 francs a year for modern languages and for drawing; 200 francs for book-keeping, for manual work, and for agriculture; 100 francs for singing and music; 50 for gymnastics. If hours in addition to those normally imposed are devoted to this special instruction, professors and staff assistants receive an additional sum at the rate of 100 francs a year for each extra hour per week; but the two additional grants together cannot exceed 600 francs for modern languages and drawing, 500 for book-keeping, manual work and agriculture, 300 for singing and music, 200 for gymnastics.

In schools which only receive day pupils the members of the staff share, as arranged by the Director, in the work of superintending recreations. In schools which have a boarding-house, no duties relating to the *internat* can be imposed on the staff of the school, but the Academy Inspector can authorise one or more

teachers to undertake supplementary duties, outside class hours, for special remuneration or in exchange for other advantages. Teachers or officers employed only in the boarding-house and not in the day school are not State servants.

Holidays are the same as in elementary schools, with possible extension (see p. 132).

## II.—TRAINING COLLEGES.

### A.—ELEMENTARY TRAINING COLLEGES.

The *écoles normales primaires* are institutions intended to train teachers for public primary schools of all grades (infant, elementary and higher elementary).

According to law, every Department must be provided with a Departmental Training College for men and one for women, but two Departmental Obligations. Training Colleges for men and one for women, but two Departmental Obligations. There are eighty-four Training Colleges for men and eighty-four for women in the eighty-seven Departments of France.

The Departments build and maintain in repair the buildings and State furniture of their Training Colleges, and the State undertakes Support. the other expenses: salaries of staff, board of students, etc.

Training Colleges are under the direct control of the Rector, Administration. subject to the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction. They are under Government Inspection, and Rectors and Inspectors meet at Paris every year to discuss questions concerning the Colleges.

Attached to each Training College is a *conseil d'administration*, appointed for three years, consisting of the Academy Inspector (president), four members appointed by the Rector and two members of the staff elected by their colleagues. The functions of the managing committee are to advise on the budget of the Colloge, look after the students' welfare, maintenance of premises, etc.

The staff assembles every month to discuss questions of curriculum and discipline.

All the Training Colleges are residential. On the proposal of Residential. the Rector and with the approval of the Minister, non-residents may be allowed to attend the course on the same conditions as regular students.

There are no fees; instruction, board and lodging are entirely free Instruction and Residence Free. to all students, who are also exempt from the usual fees for public examinations.

Students provide their own regulation uniform to be worn when they go out.

Every year the Minister fixes, on the proposal of the Rector, Number of and with the advice of the Departmental Council, the number of Students. students to be admitted to each Colloge. The number is said to vary according to the importance of the Department and the needs of the service. According to the latest published statistics (1902), there were 3,825 students in men's Colleges and 4,017 in

women's. There were between thirty and thirty-nine students in twenty-six men's Colleges, over fifty in twenty-five, forty to forty-nine in eighteen, twenty to twenty-nine in thirteen and under twenty in two. The numbers in women's Colleges were slightly higher, there being over fifty students in thirty-three Colleges.

Length of Course.

The course lasts three years. Scholarships for a fourth year can be granted to students who wish to prepare for the higher elementary Training Colleges (see below pp. 150-2).

Religious Observances.

The students in Training Colleges are given every facility for the observances of their religion. In women's Colleges the students are taken to church on Sunday at the request of their parents.

Discipline

The punishments to which students are liable are: they may be forbidden to go out by the Director (or Directress); warned by the Director; reprimanded before the assembled students, by the Director or the Academy Inspector according to the gravity of the offence; temporary exclusion not exceeding a fortnight, pronounced by the Rector on the report of the Academy Inspector with the concurrence of the managing committee; definite expulsion pronounced by the Minister on the report of the Rector. Any pupil committing a serious offence can be immediately sent home by the Director, who must inform the Academy Inspector, who in turn informs the managing committee.

In women's Colleges, students may only correspond with persons whose names have been supplied to the Directress by their parents at the beginning of the school year.

Holidays.

Students are allowed to go out on Sundays and holidays. Women students are taken for a walk unless they have received invitations from friends. All the students wear a uniform when they go out.

Summer holidays last seven weeks. Easter holidays last from the Thursday before Good Friday to the following Monday week.

Students' Privileges on Leaving College.

Students who leave the Training Colleges after a full course are entitled, according to the diplomas they hold, to the first vacant posts in the Department. A student who leaves the Department in which the Training College in which he (or she) has been trained is situated must be provided with an exeat from the Academy Inspector.

When they first take a post in a public school, ex-students are granted a sum, fixed by the managing committee and paid from College funds, for purchasing school books which they may choose themselves.

Staff.

The staffs of Training Colleges are appointed by the Minister and their salaries are paid by the State.

At the head of the College is the Director or Directress (who may be a married woman), who must be at least thirty years old, hold both the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat* or the *licence ès lettres* or *ès sciences* and the *certificat d'aptitude à l'inspection des écoles primaires et à la direction des écoles normales* (see pp. 156-7). Directors are generally drawn from among the Primary Inspectors, Directresses from members of Training College staffs. Directors and Directresses are divided into five

classes, with salaries varying from 3,500 to 5,500 francs Staff—  
 (Directors), 3,000 to 5,000 francs (Directresses). They also *continued.*  
 receive free lodging. At Paris the salaries are 7,000 to 10,000  
 francs for the Director, 6,000 to 9,000 for the Directress. In  
 addition to the general administration of the College and control  
 of the students, the Director teaches morals and pedagogy.

In order to be a professor, a teacher must hold the *certificat au professorat* (see p. 156). Every professor must give sixteen to twenty hours teaching a week, of which not more than sixteen hours are to give rise to correction of exercises. The salary varies from 2,500 (5th class) to 3,400 (1st class) for men; 2,200 (5th class) to 3,000 (1st class) for women. In Training Colleges with over seventy students the number of professors (not including the *économe*) is fixed at five; in Training Colleges with between thirty-six and seventy students there are four professors (two science, two literary); in Training Colleges with less than thirty-six students, there are three professors, in which case the Director (or Directress) is charged, without special remuneration and in addition to pedagogy and morals, with the duties of a fourth professor, either on the literary or science side according to his diploma, but his hours of teaching must not exceed sixteen if science, eighteen if literary.

Failing properly qualified professors, assistant teachers may be appointed provisionally. They must hold the *brevet supérieur* and the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*, and they receive a fixed salary of 2,000 francs (men), and 1,800 francs (women).

Special masters can be appointed for teaching modern languages, drawing, singing and music, gymnastics, manual work, provided that they hold the recognised diploma for their branch of instruction, and failing professors holding the same diploma. When professors hold a diploma for one of these special subjects and teach it in addition to their regular work, they receive the following extra remuneration (not recognised for pension): modern language, manual work, drawing, 300 francs each; singing and music, 200 francs; gymnastics, 100 francs. If these subjects are taught outside the regulation hours, an additional 100 francs per year for each extra hour a week is received, but this must not do more than double (in case of gymnastics treble) the original remuneration. When special masters and mistresses holding the necessary diplomas are appointed for these subjects, they receive a salary (not pensionable) fixed as follows for each hour of teaching a week: modern language, 150-200 francs; drawing, 150-200 francs; singing and music, 100-150 francs; manual work, 100-150; gymnastics, 80-120. The salaries are increased after periods of five years by 20 or 25 francs. If teachers not holding the special diplomas are alone available they are only appointed provisionally and receive the lowest rates.

In men's Colleges agriculture is taught by the Departmental professor, or failing him by a master specially appointed by the Minister.

Skilled workmen can be employed in men's Colleges with the approval of the Minister, to assist the professor of manual work,

Staff—  
*continued.*

by whom they are appointed with the concurrence of the Director. Their salary is fixed by the Minister on the proposal of the Rector, but it cannot exceed 150 francs a year in Colleges with less than seventy students, or 200 francs in other Colleges.

In Training Colleges with over sixty students, in addition to the teachers named above, a special officer is appointed, called the *économiste*; he (or she) is charged with the direction of the household, and acts as a sort of housekeeper or bursar. The *économiste* teaches book-keeping, and in women's Colleges domestic subjects; he (or she) may take other subjects if properly qualified. In Colleges with more than 100 students, this officer can be relieved from any teaching. Candidates for this post must hold the *brevet supérieur* or the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. They must be at least twenty-one years old, and have passed a year working under the *économiste* of a Training College, during which year they receive no salary but may receive free board and lodging; at the end of the year they have a special examination. Like the rest of the College staff, they are appointed by the Minister. On taking up their duties, they must deposit a security, the amount of which is fixed by the Ministers of Public Instruction and of Finance. Their salary varies from 1,800 francs (5th class) to 2,800 francs (1st class) with, in addition, free lodging.

In Training Colleges with less than sixty students, the duties of *économiste* are undertaken by a member of the staff who receives in addition to his (or her) salary a sum of 500 francs.

In men's Colleges the staff, except the Director and the *économiste*, are non-residents, but members of the staff may be authorised to live in College and in return to help with the superintendence of the students. In women's Colleges members of the staff can only live out of College with the permission of the Rector. Any member of the staff boarded at the College must pay 400 francs a year.\*

In Training Colleges for women the staff all help in the work of superintendence. In men's Colleges one or two professors, who receive special remuneration (500 francs if one master does the superintendence, 300 each if two do it), are charged with this duty. Outside teachers as well as resident staff are expected to take part in the life of the College, sharing in walks, talks, etc., apart from lessons.

The Rector, on the proposal of the Director and with the advice of the Academy Inspector, arranges every year the distribution of work among the staff. On the proposition of the Rector, the Minister fixes by a special decision the number of supplementary hours of work to be imposed on each of the staff.

As already mentioned, the Director and his staff form a

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\* In addition to the official staff, the Training College is allowed to appoint foreigners, after examination and with the approval of the Minister, to act as *répétiteurs* or *répétitrices*, provided that no cost falls upon the State. *Répétitrices* have been appointed from England, paying £16 a year; and, in return for conversation with the students in their own language, they are allowed to attend what lessons they like.

committee, which meets every month to discuss questions relating to the instruction and welfare of the students. An account of these meetings is sent to the Academy Inspector within eight days.

The different grades of the Training College staff, as has been seen, are each divided into five classes. Promotion is only by merit after at least three and not more than six years in the preceding class.

Pension rules are the same as for elementary teachers (see p. 134-5).

During the long holidays, Training Colleges are never entirely deserted by the staff, whose duties for this period are fixed by the Rector in the first fortnight of July, on the advice of the Director and the Academy Inspector.

Travelling scholarships (*bourses de séjour à l'étranger*) are granted every year by the Minister to Training College professors or to holders of the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat*, on the results of a special examination. Successful candidates must promise to teach the modern language which they undertake to study, for at least five years, in French Training Colleges or higher elementary schools.

At the end of the school year an examination for admission to Training Colleges is held in each Department. Conditions  
of  
Admission.

Every candidate must be between sixteen and eighteen years of age on the 1st October of the year in which the examination is held, must hold the *brevet élémentaire*, be free from any physical infirmity rendering him (or her) unfit for the teaching service, have been vaccinated and re-vaccinated, and engage to teach in public schools for ten years. Dispensations as to age not exceeding six months can be granted by the Rector. No one can sit for the examination more than twice without special authorisation from the Rector. At least a month before the examination the Academy Inspector must communicate to the Rector the results of an inquiry into the previous career and conduct of the candidates, who must be medically examined before the entrance examination.

On entrance into the College, the student must sign an agreement to serve for ten years in State schools; this engagement may be carried out in any Department of France, in any French possession or protectorate.\* The years passed as a student in a Training College count towards the fulfilment of the pledge for men if they are at least eighteen, and for women if they are seventeen years of age or over. The parent or guardian must authorise the agreement and must promise to reimburse the cost of training if the student leaves the College or is dismissed, or if he or she gives up teaching before the fulfilment of the term; the cost of board (including food, washing, school materials) may also legally be claimed. But on the proposal of the Rector, with the concurrence of the staff and the Academy Inspector, the Minister can grant partial or total exemption of these sums.

\* At the same time, as has been noted, any student who leaves the Department in which the College is situated where he or she has been trained, must be provided with an exeat from the Academy Inspector.

**Entrance Examination.**

The entrance examination is conducted by a committee appointed by the Rector; the Academy Inspector is president, and the Director and staff of the Training College and a Primary Inspector must be members.

The examination consists of both written and oral work, those who fail in the written work being excluded from the oral test. The written examination includes dictation (half an hour for re-reading what has been written and for answering questions), writing (three-quarters of an hour), composition (two hours), arithmetic (two hours), and drawing (one and a half hours). The written examination occupies a day and is held in some place chosen by the Academy Inspector, preferably the Training College.

Candidates who are successful in the written part are summoned later by the Academy Inspector to the Training College (for men or for women), for the oral tests. During this part of the examination, which must not last more than a week, the candidates are boarded at the College at their parents' expense, the cost being fixed by the Rector. The oral part of the examination includes:—

I. Questions on (1) French Language, (2) Arithmetic, (3) French History, (4) Geography of France or outline of General Geography, (5) Elementary, Natural, and Physical Science. Each Test lasts at least half an hour for each candidate.

II. *Résumés* of two lessons (1) on a literary subject, (2) on a scientific subject, given by members of the Training College staff. These *résumés* must be written in half an hour immediately after the lesson.

III. Simple examination in singing and music.

IV. Gymnastics, and for men military exercises, for women needlework.

The list of successful candidates is divided into two parts: first the candidates in order of merit to the number of vacant places in the College of the Department where the examination is held; second, all the candidates exceeding this number who are considered admissible. Candidates in the second list are invited to say what Training Colleges they would be willing to enter if they cannot be received in the College of the Department where they are examined.\* The list of successful candidates is made known before the departure of the candidates.

**Curriculum.** The Training College curriculum includes (a) general instruction to which the first two years are devoted, (b) professional training, given in the third year.

At the end of the second year students must sit for the examination for the *brevet supérieur* (see pp. 153-5); if they fail at the July examination they can take it again in October, but they are not admitted to the third year unless they obtain the *brevet*.

At the end of the third year the students must take the *examen de fin d'études normales* (see p. 150).

\* They may also be permitted to attend the College course as *externes*.

The table on pp. 146 and 147 shows the subjects taught and the amount of time devoted to them weekly. Each twenty-four hours is distributed as follows (in the official decree): eight hours for sleep (eight and a half hours for women in winter); meals, physical exercises, household work, toilet, recreation, about five hours in men's Colleges, five and a half hours in Colleges for women; at least five hours a day for private study; the class hours should not exceed five a day, in addition to the time occupied by gymnastics and manual work. Sunday and Thursday afternoons are holidays.\*

\* The following time-table of the third year for Training Colleges for women is included in the official syllabus:—

Hours.	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
6.30 a. m. (winter.)	Rise.					
6.30 to 7	Household work.					
7 to 7.15	Breakfast.					
7.15 to 8.15	Study.					
8.15 to 9.15	French.	History.	Pedagogy.	History and Geography.	French.	Pedagogy.
9.15 to 9.30	Recreation.					
9.30 to 11	Study.					
11 to 12	Practical work.	Correction of Compositions.	French.	Conférence Pédagogique.	Hygiene.	French.
12 to 1.30 p. m.	Dinner, Recreation, Gardening.					
1.30 to 2.30	Drawing.	Needlework. Washing.	Dom. Econ.	Half- Holiday.	Sewing.	Study.
2.30 to 3.30			Cleaning.		Ironing.	
3.30 to 4.30			Singing.		Singing.	
4.30 to 5	Refreshments, Recreation, Gymnastica.					
5 to 7.30	Study. Cooking by groups; individual music practice					
7.30 to 9	Supper and Recreation.					
9.30	To bed.					

TABLE SHOWING THE SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION AND THE HOURS DEVOTED TO

Subjects.	Number of hours per week.			
	Men.		Women.	
	1st year.	2nd year.	1st year.	2nd year.
Psychology, Morals, and their Applications to Education	2	2	2	2
French Language, Literature, and Composition	5	4	5	4
History and Civic Instruction	2	2	2	2
Geography	1	2	1	2
Modern Languages†	2	2	2	2
<b>Total for Literary Instruction</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>
Mathematics	3	4	2	2
Physics and Chemistry with Experiments	3	3	2	2
Natural Sciences	1	1	1	1
<b>Total for Science Instruction</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>
Writing	‡(2)	—	‡(2)	—
Drawing	4	4	4	4
Singing and Music	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics (and Military Exercises for men)	§2	2	§2	2
Manual Training and Agricultural Work, Experiments	4	4	—	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>8</b>
Needlework	—	—	1	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>27</b>

\* This table includes class work only, and not the time occupied in private study and preparation.

† Wherever possible an hour of conversation to be added to the two hours of regular lessons (either by a *répétiteur*—a *répétitrice* in Training Colleges for women—or by the professor of modern languages when the time-table allows). Students of the 3rd year who are held incapable of.

## THEM WEEKLY IN TRAINING COLLEGES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS.\*

## Third Year.

Subjects.	Number of hours per week.			
	Men.		Women.	
	General Culture.	Professional Training.	General Culture.	Professional Training.
Morals and Education, Principles of Pedagogy	—	2	—	2
Pedagogy, School Management, Law, Political Economy	1	—	1	—
Literature, Composition	3	—	3	—
French Language	—	1	—	1
History	1	—	1	—
History and Geography	—	1	—	1
Modern Languages	3	—	3	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>
Applied Mathematics	1	—	—	—
Arithmetic	—	1	—	—
Applied Physics and Chemistry	1	—	—	—
Scientific Experiments	—	1	—	1
Hygiene	1	—	—	—
Theory of Agriculture	1	—	—	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>1</b>
Writing	‡(2)	—	‡(2)	—
Drawing (and Modelling for men)	2	1	2	1
Singing and Music	2	1	2	1
Gymnastics	—	1	—	1
Manual Training, Agricultural Work, Practical Work	6	—	—	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>
Domestic Economy	—	—	1	—
Hygiene and Care of Children and Sick Persons	—	—	1	—
Needlework	—	—	3	—
Cooking	—	—	2	—
Washing and Ironing	—	—	2	—
Cleaning, Gardening	—	—	2	—
<b>Total</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>—</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>8</b>

attending the modern language lessons with profit can, on their written request and with the consent of the *Conseil des Professeurs*, be dispensed by the Director or Directress.

‡ The lessons in writing are for students who have not a good hand (hours not added).

§ Lessons in gymnastics can be added during the recreations.

The time-table is drawn up by the Director assisted by the Council of Professors, and submitted to the Rector. Lessons on subjects which demand the greatest intellectual effort are given in the morning; the afternoon is reserved for manual work, drawing singing, etc.

Every year the Rector draws up the list of students to be admitted from the first to the second, and from the second to the third years respectively. The marks obtained by the students during the year and the opinion of the Director and of the professors are taken into account, as well as the advice of the Academy Inspector. In case of prolonged illness a student may be authorised by the Rector, on the proposition of the Academy Inspector, to take a year over again.

Professional  
Training.

The third year at the Training College is reserved for professional training, although at the same time the general education of the students is carried on, chiefly by means of private study. In women's Colleges housewifery instruction is given in the third year.

Professional training is given in the following ways:—

(1) By lessons prepared for elementary school children and given by the student before the professor and his class-mates. These lessons are called *transpositions*. In order that the professors can conduct them profitably they are expected to attend a student's lesson in the practising school once or twice a month so as to keep in touch with the children.

(2) By the critical examination of pedagogic principles and educational methods in the lessons conducted by the Director.

Every Thursday a *conférence pédagogique* is held before the students, the professors, and the Directors of the Training College and of the practising school. It consists either of a lesson given by a third-year student to children specially assembled for the purpose, or in the discussion of a question of method or discipline, or in the explanation of some pedagogic treatise, or in the selection or criticism of school books, etc.

(3) By actual teaching for at least two months in the practising school. This practice is supposed to be taken in periods of a month each. In the majority of Training Colleges there are not more than twenty students in the third year, in two-thirds there are sixteen or less, so that each student can have one and a half or two months in the practising school during the year of ten months, since the practising school generally includes three divisions; in women's Colleges this practice can be extended to two and a half or three months as there are an additional class or classes in the infants' school. Wherever the practising school has not enough classes to exercise simultaneously a third or a quarter of the third-year students, each student will first pass one and a half months in the practising school (in the case of women two weeks of this is spent in the infants' class), and then spend a fortnight in a public school appointed for the purpose.

Further, in all Training Colleges, the students are taken several

times a year in groups, by the Director (or Directress) or one of the professors, to three schools in the neighbourhood, one with three classes, one with only one class, and one a mixed school.

An elementary school must be attached to every Training College as a practising school for the students. If the school is in the same buildings as the College it is called an *école annexe*, if it is an elementary school specially appointed for the purpose (by the Minister on the proposal of the Rector, with the concurrence of the Municipal Council) it is called an *école d'application*. An *école maternelle* must be included in the practising school for women's Colleges. Practising Schools.

The expenses of the *écoles annexes* as regards heating and lighting are defrayed by the Training College, as regards furniture and school materials by the Department. When the practising schools are not in the College building (*écoles d'application*) they are under the same regulations as public elementary schools. An *école annexe* properly speaking only includes one class, but by special ministerial decision it can have several classes. An infant class or school is added in Training Colleges for women.

Directors and Directresses of *écoles annexes* proper are appointed by the Minister from among Training College professors who have taught for at least three years, either in a Training College or in an elementary or a higher elementary school. They continue to belong to one of the professorial classes and receive their salary accordingly, and in addition free lodging or equivalent. Fully certificated teachers who hold the *brevet supérieur* and have had at least ten years' experience can be appointed Directors (or Directresses). Fully certificated teachers holding the *brevet supérieur* can be assistant teachers. They retain their position, class, salary, free lodging, etc., and a sum equal to the *indemnité de résidence* of elementary teachers in the neighbourhood but this sum must not be less than 250 francs. In addition Directors (or Directresses) receive a sum of 200 francs if the *école annexe* has more than two classes, of 400 francs if it has more than four classes, these sums being counted in pension calculations. To be Directress of an *école maternelle annexe* a teacher must be at least twenty-five years old, hold the *brevet supérieur*, the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* (or the old certificate for Directresses of infant schools), and have had at least two years' experience as Directress or assistant in an *école maternelle*. Directresses of infant schools (*annexes*) are divided into five classes: salary, fifth class, 1,800 francs, first class 2,600 francs. They receive in addition free lodging or monetary equivalent. If the Director or Directress of an *école annexe* is boarded at the Training College, a sum of 400 francs is deducted from the salary.

The staff of *écoles d'application* are chosen from among fully certificated teachers holding the *brevet supérieur*. They are under the same regulations as teachers in ordinary elementary schools.

All teachers in practising schools receive in addition to their salary, a sum of 300 francs, not counted for pension.

The Directors and Directresses of Training Colleges are responsible for the professional training of the students, but it is

considered essential that the staff of the practising schools should be in touch with the staff of the Training College, as the former are the immediate teachers of the practice of teaching. They criticise the students' notes of suggested lessons as well as the lessons given, and they assemble the students actually working in the practising school twice a day, morning and evening, for this purpose. Every week they send the Director (or Directress) of the Training College a note on the students' progress, and at the end of the month a more detailed report, to which is attached a short study made by each student on the character of a child he or she has had under special observation.

Examen de  
Find'Etudes  
Normales. The *examen de fin d'études normales* is to be held at the Training Colleges for men and for women in each Department, for students at the end of their three years' course. This examination has not yet been held, as it was newly instituted in 1905.

The examining committee is to consist of the Academy Inspector (president), the Director or Directress of the Training College (vice-president), professors of the College, Directors or Directresses of the practising school, and a Primary Inspector. Sub-committees consisting of at least three members can be instituted for each of the tests.

The examination will include the general and professional instruction of the third year. It will consist of (1) a written thesis on a question of pedagogy; each student can choose his (or her) subject two months before the examination from a list of subjects drawn up by the Rector in consultation with the Academy Inspector; (2) a lesson given to the pupils in the practising school on a subject drawn by lot from the syllabus of elementary schools (length of preparation one hour); (3) oral questions on school management or educational methods and on the thesis presented by the student.

Students who pass this examination will receive a certificate from the Rector. A special note will be added on the certificates for women when they have obtained good marks for their domestic work during the year.

Candidates for the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* who have passed the *examen de fin d'études normales* are to be dispensed from all but the practical part of the examination.

### B.—HIGHER ELEMENTARY TRAINING COLLEGES.

General Regulations. There are two *écoles normales primaires supérieures*, at Saint Cloud for men, and at Fontenay-aux-Roses for women. They train professors for Training Colleges and for higher elementary schools.

These Colleges, like the former, provide instruction, board, and lodging free. They receive resident and non-resident students. Each non-resident student is granted an exhibition, of which the amount is fixed by Ministerial decree.

The number of students to be admitted is arranged each year by the Minister.

The course lasts three years.

For each College there is a committee of management, the members of which are appointed for three years by the Minister.

The staff consists of teachers of the University or of the secondary schools in Paris. The Director and staff form a committee to discuss the curriculum, the progress of students, etc.

Any student who voluntarily leaves one of these Colleges for any reason other than illness, or who breaks his (or her) ten years' agreement, has to reimburse to the State the cost of his board, fixed at 600 francs a year. Partial or total exemption may, however, be granted by the Minister on the advice of the Director (or Directress) of the College, the professors and the managing committee.

An entrance examination is held every year towards the end of the school year. Candidates must be between 19 and 25 years of age on the first of October of the year in which they sit for the examination (unless specially dispensed), hold the *brevet supérieur* or one of the *baccalauréats* or, for women, the *diplôme de fin d'études de l'enseignement secondaire*, and engage, if they have not already done so, to serve for ten years in public schools. Candidates admitted to St. Cloud are not to enter until they have performed their military service, or unless this can be postponed until they have spent two years at the College. On entering their names, candidates must supply, in addition to other documents, a doctor's certificate stating that they are fit to act as teachers, and a certificate of recent re-vaccination. No candidate may sit for the examination more than three times.

The entrance examination bears on subjects taught at the *écoles normales primaires* and includes written, oral, and practical tests.

The written tests decide which candidates shall be allowed to complete the examination; they are held in the chief town of the Department where the candidate has entered his (or her) name, under the superintendence of the Academy Inspector or, failing him, of a deputy approved by the Rector. The written papers are sent to Paris to be corrected by the examination committee appointed annually by the Minister.

For candidates on the literary side, the written examination includes (1) literature or grammar, (2) pedagogy or morals, (3) history and geography, (4) modern language (German, English, Italian, Spanish, Arabian, according to choice of candidate); on the science side: (1) mathematics, (2) physics, chemistry, and natural science, (3) drawing, (4) modern language, (5) pedagogy or morals. Time allowed: two hours for modern language (with dictionary), four hours for each of the other papers. The papers in pedagogy or morals and in the modern language may be the same for candidates in both groups.

The oral examination is held at Paris for men, and at Fontenay-aux-Roses for women. It consists, for *lettres*, of (1) explanation of a question of grammar, literature, history, or geography; (2) reading, with explanation of a passage chosen from authors set for the *brevet supérieur*; (3) modern language (reading, translation, conversation). For science: (1) explanation of a question in

mathematics; (2) the same in physics, chemistry or natural science; (3) modern language. Each oral test may be followed by questions. The candidates in each section are allowed half an hour for the preparation of each of the first two tests.

Practical examination: for women, needlework; for men, an experiment in science.

**Curriculum.** The curriculum includes advanced study of the subjects taught in elementary Training Colleges. Other subjects may be taught with Ministerial authorisation.

The students are divided into two groups—the science group, and the literary group. Classes common to both groups may be arranged. Examinations (*examens de passage*) are held at the end of the first and second school years, and students who do not pass must leave the College. At the end of the course they sit for the examination for the “*professorat*” (see p. 156) in whichever group they have studied.

**Professional Training.** A practising school is attached to both Colleges and the third year is more especially devoted to the professional training of the students.

### III.—DIPLOMAS.\*

#### A.—BREVET ÉLÉMENTAIRE.

As stated above, the *brevet élémentaire* is compulsory for all teachers in elementary schools (*stagiaires* and *titulaires*) and for candidates for the entrance examination to Training Colleges.

**Bi-annual.** The examination is held twice a year (July and October) in the chief town of each Department; the examinations commence on the same day for all France.

**Examiners.** The examination committee is appointed annually in each Department by the Rector on the proposition of the Academy Inspector. It consists of at least seven members presided over by the Academy Inspector or his deputy, and including two Inspectors of primary education, one member (or ex-member) of private primary education, one professor of a Training College or higher primary school, two elementary teachers (men or women); two-thirds of the members must be present at meetings. The oral examination is held before at least two members. Special examiners can be added for agriculture, modern languages, drawing, singing, needlework and gymnastics.

**Conditions of Admission.** Candidates for the examination must be at least sixteen years old on the 1st of October of the year in which they sit for the examination,† but dispensations not exceeding one year may be granted.

**Fee.** The examination fee is ten francs.

\* Training College entrance and leaving examinations are noted above, pp. 144 and 150.

† Candidates who hold the *certificat d'études primaires supérieures* are excused from the rule as to age.

The examination consists of written and oral tests, which bear Syllabus. on the syllabus of the upper standard of primary schools. The examination is divided into three parts, the results of each of the first two parts deciding which candidates shall be allowed to proceed. The subjects for the written examination are chosen by the Rector in consultation with the Academy Inspectors of the district. The oral examination is open to the public, but only ladies are allowed to listen to the women's examination.

The first section (written examination) includes dictation followed by questions (half an hour for revision and for writing answers to questions); simple piece of French composition (two hours); elementary arithmetic (two hours).

Second series: writing (three-quarters of an hour); drawing (one and a half hours for men, one hour for women); gymnastics for men (ten minutes); needlework for women (one hour).

Third series, oral tests: (1) reading with explanation; (2) arithmetic; (3) national history and civic instruction, and geography of France (with drawing on blackboard); (4) very elementary singing; (5) very elementary natural and physical science and agriculture—(ten minutes each test).

No one is admitted to subsequent series who has not obtained half the maximum marks of the previous series.

### B.—BREVET SUPÉRIEUR.

The *brevet supérieur* is compulsory for Directors and Directresses of elementary schools to which a *cours complémentaire* is attached, for the teacher in charge of the *cours*, for assistants in higher elementary schools and in Training Colleges, and for admission to the two highest classes or grades of the elementary teaching profession.

The examination is held twice a year (July and October) in the Bi-annual. chief town of each Department.

The examining body, consisting of at least seven members, is Examiners. appointed each year by the Rector on the proposal of the Academy Inspector, who is president. It includes necessarily a Primary Inspector, the Director and Directress of the Department's Training Colleges, two Training College or higher elementary school professors (one literary, one science), a public elementary teacher (man or woman) holding the *brevet supérieur*. The other members are chosen from among officers or late officers of public education (higher, secondary, or primary). Two-thirds of the members must be present at meetings; the oral examination must be held before at least two members. Extra examiners can be co-opted for special subjects as in the case of the *brevet élémentaire*.

Every candidate for the *brevet supérieur* must hold the *brevet Conditions élémentaire* and be at least eighteen years old on the first of of Admission. October of the year in which he (or she) takes the examination. Dispensations of age not exceeding one year can be granted.

The examination fee is twenty francs, Training College Fee. students are exempt.

## Syllabus.

The examination for the *brevet supérieur* includes the subjects taught in the first and second years of the Training College course, and account is taken of the marks obtained by each candidate who comes from a Training College during his previous two years' work. The oral examination is open to the public under the same conditions as in the case of other State examinations. The subjects for the written examinations are chosen by the Rector in consultation with the Academy Inspectors.

The examination includes written and oral tests. Candidates who pass the first part (written) are allowed to sit for the second. Candidates who fail in the second part (oral) keep the right of admission to the oral examination gained by passing the written tests.\*

## First part:—

(1) Composition on a question of literature or morals (three hours).

(2). A written composition including: (i) for men, a problem of arithmetic or geometry applied to practical work and a theoretic question; for women, a problem and a theoretic question of arithmetic; (ii) for men and women, a question on physical and natural sciences with their most usual applications to hygiene, to industry, and to agriculture (four hours).

(3) Written answers, in the foreign language chosen by the candidate, to written questions set in the same language. The use of a dictionary in the foreign language is allowed (two hours).

Each of these tests is marked from 0 to 20. No candidate is declared 'admissible' (i.e., allowed to sit for the second part) unless he (or she) has obtained at least thirty marks (viz. half marks), of which twenty must be gained for the tests of French (mother tongue) and science combined.

## Second part:—

(1) Questions on:

(a) Psychology, morals and their application to education;

(b) History of France, and, from 1492, its bearing on general history; the questions are limited to the important facts;

(c) Geography of France, with drawing on the black-board and outlines of general geography;

(d) Arithmetic with exercises in mental arithmetic, and for men only, algebra and geometry;

(e) Physics, chemistry, natural history and their applications.

(2) Reading, followed by explanation, after quarter of an hour's preparation, of a French text taken from a list of authors drawn up every three years by the Minister and published a year in advance.

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\* This is the general custom in State examinations.

(3) Reading aloud and translation of an easy text in a foreign language after quarter of an hour's preparation; very simple conversation in the foreign language on the text read.

(4) Drawing (three hours).

(5) Music (twenty minutes at maximum).

Each test in the second series is marked from 0 to 20, except reading (mother tongue) marked 2. It is sufficient that each candidate obtains a total of 100 marks for all the tests of this series. A candidate who obtains no marks in any test fails in the examination. Candidates who obtain less than five marks for any of the three tests in the first series may be rejected by a special decision of the examiners.

### C.—CERTIFICAT D'APTITUDE PÉDAGOGIQUE.

The *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* is compulsory for all elementary teachers before they can become fully certificated (*titulaires*).

Candidates who have obtained the *certificat de fin d'études normales* are excused from all but the practical test.

The examination is held once a year.

Annual.

The examination committee is appointed in the usual way, and must consist of at least ten members, chosen from among Primary Inspectors (including the Inspectress of infant schools, if there is one), Directors, Directresses and professors of Training Colleges, or of higher elementary schools, and the primary teachers of the Department. The Academy Inspector is president.

Examiners.

Candidates must hold the *brevet élémentaire*, be at least twenty years old on the 31st December of the examination year, and have had at least two years' experience in teaching. The time passed as students at Training Colleges counts towards this experience for men if they are at least eighteen, and for women if they are seventeen years of age or over.

Conditions of Admission.

The examination consists of written, oral, and practical tests. The written examination, which decides admission to the succeeding parts of the examination, is held in February in the chief town of each Department, and the practical examination must be taken before the following 1st of December.

Syllabus.

The written examination consists of a French composition on an elementary educational subject chosen by the Academy Inspector (three hours).

The practical examination consists of a lesson given by the candidate in his (or her) own school or class (three hours). For the practical test the examiners may divide into sub-committees consisting of at least three members each—the Academy Inspector, a Primary Inspector, and a teacher (man or woman corresponding to sex of candidate). Women candidates may take this examination in an elementary or in an infant school according to choice. The school in which the candidate is examined is open to him (or her) twenty-four hours in advance.

He takes direction on the day of the examination and follows a programme drawn up by the examination committee and sent him twenty-four hours in advance.

The oral examination (twenty minutes) follows the practical examination and consists of the criticism of children's exercise books, and of questions connected with the previous tests and bearing on practical pedagogics, or on subjects relating to the management of an elementary or an infant school.

**D.—CERTIFICAT D'APTITUDE AU PROFESSORAT DES ECOLES NORMALES PRIMAIRES ET DES ECOLES PRIMAIRES SUPÉRIEURES.**

This certificate is obligatory for "professors" of Training Colleges and for Directors and professors of higher elementary schools. There are two distinct certificates under this head, one scientific, the other literary.

**Annual.** The examination is held at the end of the school year on days appointed by the Minister and the same for all France.

**Examiners.** There are two examination committees, one for science, the other for *lettres*, appointed annually by the Minister, each consisting of at least five members, to whom two Directresses or professors of Training Colleges for women or of higher elementary schools are added for the examination of women. Outside examiners can also be co-opted for special subjects.

**Conditions of Admission.** Candidates must be twenty-one years old, hold the *brevet supérieur* or one of the *baccalauréats*, or (for women) the *diplôme de fin d'études de l'enseignement secondaire*, and have had at least two years' experience in teaching.

**Syllabus.** The examination consists of written, oral and practical tests. The written part, which decides admission to the rest, is held in the chief town of each Department, under the superintendence of the Academy Inspector or his deputy, on four consecutive days. The subjects are chosen from the syllabus of Training Colleges. There are four tests for each diploma (scientific or literary), each test occupying from four to six hours.

The oral and practical tests are held at Paris.

They include for *lettres*: (1) a lesson given by the candidate on a subject drawn by lot, not to last longer than half an hour, which may be followed by questions either on the subject of the lesson or on any other part of the syllabus (three hours are allowed for the preparation of the lesson); (2) reading and explanation of a passage chosen from a French classic; (3) correction of a Training College student's exercise (2) and (3) are each preceded by a preparation not exceeding three-quarters of an hour); (4) modern language,\* reading and explanation of a text followed by questions in the foreign language (quarter of an hour).

For science: (1) a lesson as above; (2) a question on each part of the syllabus (mathematics, physical science, natural science)

\* The list of authors for modern languages and of French classics is drawn up and published by the Minister every three years.

(three-quarters of an hour for the three questions); (3) practical work in physics or chemistry and in natural science. Subject of each drawn by lot (one hour each).

**E.—CERTIFICAT D'APTITUDE À L'INSPECTION DES ÉCOLES PRIMAIRES ET À LA DIRECTION DES ÉCOLES NORMALES.**

This Certificate is compulsory for Primary Inspectors and for Directors and Directresses of Training Colleges.

The examination is held once a year.

Annual.

The examining commission is appointed each year by the Minister; it consists of five members, to whom two Directresses of Training Colleges can be added for the women's examination.

Examiners.

Candidates must be twenty-five years of age, have had five years' experience in public schools (higher, secondary or primary), and hold one of the following diplomas: *certificat d'aptitude au professorat, licence ès lettres or ès sciences.\** Public elementary teachers (*titulaires*) are not required to hold the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat* if they have had ten years' experience in elementary or higher elementary schools (as Directors or assistants) and hold the *brevet supérieur* and the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. Time passed in the higher elementary Training Colleges (Saint Cloud and Fontenay-aux-Roses) counts towards the required teaching experience.

Conditions of Admission.

The examination consists of three parts, written, oral and practical, the first part fixing, as in previous cases, the candidates' admission to the rest of the examination.

Syllabus.

The written examination is held in the chief town of each Department, under the superintendence of the Academy Inspector or his deputy. It occupies two days (as usual, the same for all France) and consists of two compositions, one on a question of pedagogy, the other on a question of school administration (five hours each).

The oral and practical examination is held at Paris. The oral examination includes: (1) explanation of a passage drawn by lot from among those which the examiners have chosen from the list of authors drawn up by the Minister every three years (one hour is allowed for preparation); (2) explanation of a question of theoretic or practical pedagogy, drawn by lot. After the explanation, which is not to last more than half an hour, the candidate is asked questions on school administration and legislation. (Two hours are allowed for preparation without books or notes).

The practical examination consists of the inspection of a Training College, a higher elementary, an elementary, or an infant school, followed by a verbal report.

The list of successful candidates is submitted to the Minister who awards the certificates.

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\* Failing the above diplomas, the following qualify for admission: *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire spécial, baccalauréat de l'enseignement secondaire spécial.*

## F.—DIPLOMAS FOR SPECIAL SUBJECTS.

Special Diplomas are held for teaching modern languages, book-keeping, manual work, drawing, singing, gymnastics, military exercises, needlework, agriculture.

There are separate examinations and regulations for each of these diplomas. It must suffice to say here that the examinations in each subject are held once a year; the examiners are appointed by the Minister (or in some cases by the Academy Inspector); the minimum age of admission is twenty-one years, except in the case of drawing, gymnastics and needlework, when it is eighteen years; in some, but not in all cases, one or two years' experience of teaching is required; preliminary certificates are required in the case of modern languages, manual work and book-keeping—the *brevet supérieur* or the *baccalauréat* or (for women) the *diplôme de fin d'études de l'enseignement secondaire*, or in the case of book-keeping, a commercial school diploma or experience in a commercial house.

HELEN E. MATHESON.

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# THE FRENCH TRAINING COLLEGE SYSTEM.

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## THE FRENCH TRAINING COLLEGE SYSTEM.

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### INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

In England, while the State presides in a general way over the training of elementary teachers, by conducting the various examinations, by supervising the institutions in which prospective teachers are educated, and by furnishing a large portion of the money required, it does not take upon itself the direct control of the work in all its details. In France, as might be expected in a country where the centralisation of authority has been carried to an extreme pitch, the hand of the State reaches much further. The normal schools are, according to the definition of them given in the law of 19th July, 1889 (Art. 47), *établissements publics*, directly under the control of the Central Government. Whereas formerly they were placed under the supervision of the prefect of each department, since 1881 they have been under the jurisdiction of the rector.

Administra-  
tion of  
French  
Primary  
Education.

France is divided into seventeen academies or educational districts. Each is administered by a rector, who is appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction and whose authority extends over all three grades of education—primary, secondary, and university. This high official has his offices at the university. Naturally his numerous duties prevent him from devoting much of his attention to primary education. His place is taken in each department under his direction by an academy inspector who acts under him as the educational chief for primary education, and who is also appointed directly by the Minister. The academy inspector, then, is the true head for each department of primary education.

Thus far it would appear that the control of the primary schools is directly in the hands of the central authority. But the academy inspector will be found on closer examination to form a wheel in the machinery which, while it can be to some extent controlled from within, is also in touch with other powers. The fact that the academy inspector has his offices at the prefecture is in itself significant. He has in fact another superior. On the purely academic side he is responsible in some degree to the rector; but in many administrative matters he must consult the prefect, who, in his turn, though a representative of the central government, has the difficult task of conciliating local influences. Thus, while the academy inspector has the right of proposing teachers for appointment, it is the prefect who actually appoints; and in many cases the

proposing is subordinated almost entirely to the wishes of him who has the power of veto.\*

All the teachers are civil servants. It should, however, be stated that the maintenance of the buildings and of their furniture is at the cost of the local authorities, the *Conseil Général* (County Council) being responsible for the training colleges and the *Conseil Municipal* (Borough Council) for the primary schools. Further, the salaries provided by the State for primary teachers receive some augmentation by the local authority (*Conseil Municipal*), a payment for lodgings, where none are provided, being obligatory.

It will be seen, then, that while in theory all is centrally controlled, in practice the local authorities have considerable influence. Speaking broadly, we may say that, whereas in England the State concedes a large measure of local liberty which is nevertheless limited by centrally framed regulations, in France the system begins by being completely central in its government and ends by being forced to admit a certain measure of local freedom.

This very cursory sketch of the French primary organisation seems necessary in order to make clear the exact position of the training colleges. In England the large amount of local liberty which is allowed in the administration of the ordinary primary schools is extended somewhat further in the case of institutions and organisations for the training of teachers. In France, on the other hand, the concessions to local authorities in the case of the primary schools are somewhat curtailed for training colleges. These institutions are more uniform from one end of France to the other than are the public elementary schools. It would seem that the State, recognising the supreme importance of the training of teachers, has hedged it round more carefully than it has primary instruction.

## I.—ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF TRAINING COLLEGES.

Control.

While the ordinary primary school depends for many of the details of its administration on the local authority, the training college is in close contact with the Ministry of Public Instruction. The principal and his assistants are appointed by the Minister. And, whereas the authority of the rector over the elementary schools is more nominal than actual, his supervision of the *écoles normales* is a real one. He it is who pronounces the admission and exclusion of students. He chooses also the examiners and four (out of seven) members of the committee (*Conseil d'Administration*).

Localisation.  
—Number  
of Students.

Each department has two training colleges—one for masters and one for mistresses. While thickly peopled departments have large training colleges, which nevertheless often have insufficient accommodation for the needs of the district, sparsely populated areas

\* A certain academy inspector, after agreeing that a teacher was worthy of promotion to a headmastership and after expressing his own eagerness to propose him, helplessly exclaimed: "*Faites-moi forcer la main!*"

have small institutions with some eight or ten students in each year.\* With few exceptions, it may be stated as a general rule that the primary teacher is trained and lives out his career in one and the same department. There is, indeed, a regulation to the effect that "every student-teacher who leaves the department in which is situated the training college where he has studied must be provided with an *exeat* from the academy inspector."†

The training college masters, however, being appointed by the Minister, are not necessarily, indeed very rarely, local men. The same may be said of the higher officials of primary education—the primary inspectors, the academy inspector and the rector. All these circulate, in many cases from one end of France to the other. In yet another branch of primary education, the *enseignement primaire supérieur*, the teachers are also wanderers. Here again, appointments are not made by the prefect and academy inspector, but by the Minister; although local influence, chiefly political, is sometimes able to affect them. Lastly, in government secondary schools (*lycées* and *collèges*), appointments are likewise irrespective of the locality in which the candidates have been trained.

It seems, therefore, worth while to inquire into the reasons of this localisation in the case of the primary teachers. Doubtless the desire for uniformity in the educational machinery and completeness of every part, is largely responsible for this. Each department considers itself responsible for the training of its own elementary teachers and for no others. But there are other reasons behind these. The primary teacher is usually trained in the district in which his family and friends reside. His modest salary would not be sufficient to enable him to undertake long railway journeys in the event of his being removed to a distant part of France. He

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\* Paris has only one training college for each sex. The men's college of Auteuil is not half big enough for the needs of the great metropolis. At present its deficiencies are made up partly by appointing teachers from provincial training colleges and partly by admitting untrained teachers. So ingrained is the idea of one college for each department that the only question which seems to agitate the minds of the authorities is how to make the existing institution adequate to the needs. It has been proposed, for instance, to admit day students, and by this means to double the numbers.

† It is somewhat interesting to note the progressive steps in the career of the trained elementary teacher in most parts of France. The chief town of the department is usually the centre of attraction. Thus in the Department of the *Bouches-du-Rhône* the stages are:—

- (1) Training college (three years),
- (2) Assistant in a country school,
- (3) Assistant in the suburbs of Marseilles,
- (4) Assistant in Marseilles,
- (5) Head either of a small country school or of a suburban school,
- (6) Head of a small school in Marseilles,
- (7) Head of a larger school in Marseilles (four, five, or six classes),
- (8) Head of one of the largest schools in Marseilles, and freed from class duty.

The first four steps are taken by almost all. The last is reserved for a very limited number.

Localisation.  
—Number of  
Students.—  
*Continued.*

is thus linked to the soil by financial reasons. So firmly rooted is custom that, should the teacher seek appointment in a neighbouring department, he would be looked upon with some coldness by the officials, unless a dearth of teachers in that district rendered his change a necessary one, or unless there were some equally sufficient reason for the step. The fact that promotions are made by the prefect and academy inspector is an additional reason for many good teachers to stay in the department where they are known and where they can hope for preferment.

The chief advantage of this arrangement from the pedagogical point of view seems to be, that the elementary teacher is more likely to understand and sympathise with the aims and aspirations of the people who surround him and whose children he trains. As a matter of fact, whether for this reason or for some other, the French primary teacher appears to be more in touch with the parents of his scholars than is his English *confrère*.

All due weight being given to the above considerations, and the general outlines of the French system being regarded as inviolable, there seems no sufficient reason why several small training colleges in sparsely populated districts should not be fused into one. For there surely is a minimum number of students necessary to the success of college life. Without specifying too absolutely, it may perhaps be said that a training college which contains less than sixteen students in each year is not only very expensive, but does not provide the conditions of full corporate life which are, at any rate in England, considered important. Although there is a clause in the official regulations which admits the advisability of this fusion, little seems to have been done.\*

But it may further be maintained that the English system which gathers students from the four corners of the land, thus enabling them "to knock corners off" one another and mutually to broaden their views, is far preferable.

It does not appear that the full benefit has always been derived from the circumstances which exist in our training colleges. To mention only one subject, geography, why should not the students from each district give lessons to their fellows on the topographical features of their native place? With his stock of local tradition, with an intimate knowledge of his surroundings and with all kinds of illustrations within his reach, the student should be able to give a far more realistic lesson the district from which he comes than his training college teacher, who probably has never visited the spot in question. Short lessons of this kind might be given under the supervision of the teacher of geography and would not only form a valuable supplement to his more academic discourses, but would provide an excellent training in exposition for the students and a most useful addition to the more purely professional training,

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\* Two-thirds of the French training colleges have sixteen students or less in each year.

which is, after all, the *raison d'être* of these institutions. Little seems to have been done in this direction in English training colleges. Yet the students are older than in the corresponding French institutions, where, although this particular plan has not been adopted, the practice of requiring the pupils to give lessons to their comrades has been in vogue for some time.

There is in our English training colleges a grave disadvantage which is less prominent in the French normal schools. With us certain training colleges have acquired a good reputation and draw almost all the best students. This has gone so far that sometimes the lowest student in one of the best colleges would be the first in one of the least appreciated. Such a system is bad for the weaker students, who would probably make more headway if obliged to compete and rub shoulders with a few better companions. Whereas in the elementary school the nature of the work requires that the pupils should be on almost the same level, in a college this requirement is by no means so essential. In many subjects a considerable difference in the attainments of the students is possible without injury to the general course of the work. The abolition of a complete order of merit in the King's Scholarship List (now known as the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate) and the acceptance of other examinations in lieu of the usual one may do a little to lessen the evil. It is to be hoped that, if a complete remedy can be found, it will not bring in its train a system of purely local training colleges.

Strangely enough, in one respect the French system is less centralised than our own. The examinations of teachers for certificates are not uniform, but are conducted independently in each department. Control is exercised over the nature of the tests and over the general character of the examinations. But they vary somewhat in difficulty from one district to another, and candidates have been known to go from one place to another in search of the line of least resistance.

Teachers'  
Certificates.

In France there are two certificates which qualify a person to teach in an elementary school; a lower-grade one called the *brevet élémentaire*, and a higher-grade one called the *brevet supérieur*. To these for complete qualification must be added the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. All these can be obtained without passing through the training college.

The examination for the *brevet élémentaire* can be passed at the age of sixteen. It consists of written papers in dictation, writing, composition, arithmetic, exercises in drawing and gymnastics (needlework for girls), and oral examinations in reading and explanation of literary extracts, arithmetic, history, civic instruction and geography, in sol-fa and in elementary science. The examiners are appointed in each department by the rector on the proposition of the academy inspector, and usually consist of teachers in higher grade schools and training colleges, the principal of the training college and the primary inspectors. Although the examination is

elementary in character, the passing of it is sufficient to give the right to teach ; and large numbers of masters and mistresses have no other academic distinction. It should, however, be stated that no one can begin to teach before the age of eighteen in the case of men and seventeen in the case of women. The examination for the *brevet élémentaire* may be said to correspond approximately to the King's Scholarship Examination in England ; if anything it is more elementary in character.

For the *brevet supérieur* the candidate must be at least eighteen years of age. The examination is similar in character to that for the *brevet élémentaire*, but more advanced and including a test in one modern language. It corresponds roughly to the English Certificate Examination with the purely professional part left out.

The examination for the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* completes the qualification of the teacher in the theory and practice of education. The age limit is twenty-one. The candidate must already have at least the *brevet élémentaire* and have served for two years in a public or private school. The first part of the examination consists of a written paper on an educational topic. Those who succeed are allowed to proceed to the oral examination. This takes place in the class room of the candidate. He or she conducts the class in the ordinary way during three hours before a commission consisting of the primary inspector and two or three distinguished teachers.

The copy books and exercises of the pupils are examined, and the candidate is finally questioned on the methods which have been employed and the principles underlying them.

A teacher who is without the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* cannot progress in his profession, and remains a *stagiaire*. This additional certificate being obtained, he becomes a *titulaire* and is eligible for increase of salary or promotion to the position of head teacher.

Differences  
between  
Trained and  
Untrained  
Teachers.

These examinations, except where otherwise indicated, are usually conducted at the prefecture and are open to all. A teacher who qualifies himself without passing through the *école normale* is considered the equal of his trained colleague. The only tangible advantages of any importance which passage through a training college confers, seem to be :—

(a) The work for the higher certificate is made easier by reason of the candidate having abundant time at his disposal, and possessing all the means of intellectual improvement which the training college affords.

(b) The small fees (10 francs for the *brevet élémentaire*, 20 francs for the *brevet supérieur*), are remitted.

(c) Students who have passed through the training college have preference for vacant posts.

(d) Trained teachers are known to the principal of the normal college, who may use his influence to help them in

improving their positions by recommending them on the many occasions which he has of conferring with the academy inspector.

Of course no attempt is made here to estimate the immense benefit which three years of training must confer.

The chief disadvantage of passing through the *école normale* appears to be that the student has to pledge himself to serve ten years in the schools, or in default to pay the cost of his maintenance at the training college during his three years of residence.

The recruitment of the French training college, as already stated, is almost entirely from the department in which it is situated. There is not, therefore, that great difference in the numbers of candidates which exists in England, where one training college is overwhelmed with applications while another is hard put to it to obtain a full quota of good students.

Recruitment of Training Colleges.

In France, until the last few years, competition was fairly keen, and a careful selection was possible. Although the salaries are much inferior to those of England, the general desire to become a civil servant, the almost absolute security of tenure, and the high appreciation in which a literary career, however humble, is held, have conspired to attract large numbers of candidates. To these reasons must be added the fact that the teacher was excused two out of the usual three years of military service.

But of late the numbers have decreased with alarming rapidity. Among the reasons which may be given are the recent law requiring two years of military service from *all*, the improvement in commerce and the industries which have drawn larger proportions of the young men leaving the *écoles primaires supérieures*, and the failure of the Government to increase salaries.

In Lyons a few years ago the number of candidates was so small that the authorities were obliged to take the rejected from neighbouring districts. And it became a matter of general comment in the *écoles primaires supérieures* that the pupils who competed for entrance to the Training College were the worst—those who failed to gain openings elsewhere. Latterly things have improved, and each year shows a slight increase in the number of candidates.\* The chief reasons seem to be:—

(1) The establishment of a course of preparation by correspondence for the admission examinations. This is for the benefit of boys in country districts where there are no *écoles primaires supérieures*. The college tutors set and mark the exercises.

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\* From 1891 to 1901 the number of candidates (for about twenty places) oscillated between twenty-three and twenty-nine. In 1902 it rose to thirty-eight. In 1903 there were fifty-four candidates, and, for the first time in fifteen years, a real selection was possible. In 1904 and 1905 there has been further improvement, not only in the numbers, but also in the capacity of the candidates.

(2) The award of small sums to poor parents who would like their sons to continue their studies in view of entering the training college. The amounts are small, 100 francs being a common sum, and great care is exercised in examining the cases which arise.

(3) The establishment of a fourth year course for the best students.

(4) The award of a bonus to the elementary teacher who has a pupil successful at the entrance examination. This counteracts the tendency to dissuade intending candidates.

It is to be presumed that the slight increase in the salaries of primary teachers which has just been decided upon will do even more to attract the right kind of candidate.

Entrance to  
Training  
Colleges.

Candidates for entrance to the training college must possess the *brevet élémentaire*. This, however, although it qualifies to teach in an elementary school, is not a passport to the *école normale*. A competitive examination is held, consisting of the usual written and oral parts, in the former of which the weakest are at once eliminated. Each training college conducts its own entrance examination under the general supervision of the rector.

Previous  
Education  
of Candi-  
dates

Those who present themselves have usually had no experience in teaching. Most of them have passed through an *école primaire supérieure* (higher grade elementary school). Since for entrance to the *école primaire supérieure* the leaving certificate of the elementary school (*certificat d'études primaires*) is required, the examination for this becomes a kind of preliminary examination for intending teachers, and might thus be said to correspond to the examination in England for candidates for the office of pupil teacher. This French examination is, however, more elementary, and can be passed at the age of eleven.

The *école primaire supérieure*, "the secondary school of the people," provides a three years' course in literary subjects (excluding Latin, but including at least one modern language), elementary science and manual training. It has a leaving certificate of its own (*certificat d'études primaires supérieures*), the examination for which is of about the same difficulty as that for the *brevet élémentaire*. Most of the best boys who follow the full course are induced to sit for both examinations, whether they intend to become teachers or not. By passing the examination for the *brevet élémentaire* they obtain a qualification on which they can fall back in the event of failure in other lines of work. Not a few avail themselves of it.\*

The *école primaire supérieure*, though it does not profess to prepare for any particular profession, may be roughly said to correspond

\* In one case the writer found a man about forty, who, after indifferent success as a clerk, finally decided to turn his hand to teaching. Criticism of a system which allows teaching to become a last resource for failures in other professions is unnecessary. It is to be feared, however, that we in England are not altogether free from the same reproach.

—for those who intend to become teachers—to the last year of a higher grade school and the first three years of a pupil teacher centre. Quicker progress is perhaps made than with us, because the pupils are under instruction all day and, in addition, have a considerable amount of work to do in the evening.

The average French candidate for a training college at the age of sixteen, therefore, is almost equal in intellectual attainments to the corresponding English aspirant at the age of eighteen. But the former has usually made no attempt at teaching.

And this seems to be the chief weakness in the French system. It is true that the head teacher of the *école primaire supérieure* is able to report on candidates from his school to the training college. But in this he has only his knowledge of the youth as a *student* to go upon. And it is to be feared that in practice an intelligent well-behaved youth can always gain admission to the training college.

In France, then, the Government trains young people till the age of nineteen or twenty, boarding them as well during the three years at the *école normale*; and it is only towards the end of this period that any clear idea can be formed as to their special fitness for the work of teaching. Even this judgment is not well founded, for the work in the practising school is of so artificial a character (as will be demonstrated in detail later) that neither can the authorities be sure that they are finding the best teachers, nor can the students know what are the real conditions of their work.\*

Absence of  
Guarantee  
of Students'  
Efficiency as  
Teachers.

The regulations provide for the exclusion of students on account of incapacity or other reasons during their training college course. Once again, however, it is usually only an occasional lazy or indifferent *student* who is thus sent down.

It is not, therefore, till all the preparation has been completed and till the young teacher finds himself embarked on his career that the real test is applied. Then for the first time the inspectors see the value of the teacher and the latter the degree of his suitability for the work he has undertaken.

Not only is such a system unsatisfactory from the point of view of those who control education, but it is still more so from the teacher's standpoint. It might be argued that at nineteen a young man can turn his hand to something else in the event of his finding the work uncongenial. But it must be remembered that everything tends to force him to continue. To begin with, he is required to refund the cost of his maintenance during three years at the *école normale*, if he does not fulfil his engagement for ten years' service. As he usually comes of poor parents, this amount is a prohibitive sum. Further, he is likely to adduce his youth in excuse for his failure and to hope for better things with advancing years. Sometimes, too, his first classes are very small and he is not fully aware of the difficulties

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\* The writer has seen newly-fledged teachers, highly spoken of by the authorities, at work in the schools, and has found them in many cases doing very indifferent work

Absence of  
Guarantee  
of Students'  
Efficiency as  
Teachers.—  
*Continued.*

which he will meet later on. In many cases his pride will cause him to go on ; he will be ashamed of owning himself beaten after so long a preparation and after the passing of so many examinations. Lastly, the eager desire of so many Frenchmen to become civil servants imparts an additional attraction to the teaching profession in France, and renders those who embrace it exceedingly loth to give it up.

This matter is even more important in the case of primary than in that of secondary teachers. For the latter have many more chances than their poorer brethren, by means of influential friends and by reason of their usually more abundant resources, of finding some other congenial occupation.

Perhaps no profession presents so great a gulf between the good and the bad workman as that of teaching. Yet there is no profession in which a larger majority are anxious to do as well as possible. The explanation is that the handling of a class requires a special temperament which, while it can to some extent be cultivated, is exceeding difficult to manufacture. A man may become a good carpenter by application, even if he lacks natural aptitude. Even a certain readiness to speak may be cultivated by those who have to lecture and engage in public work. But the demeanour which inspires obedience, and which makes the work of teaching in a public school tolerable enough to be undertaken with equanimity is so difficult of explanation that even its possessors cannot clearly account for it. The man or woman who embarks on the profession of teaching without this gift is usually condemned to lifelong misery. By strenuous efforts he or she may pass muster and drag on a painful existence. But such a mistaken view of duty is detrimental to both teacher and taught. And the question might be asked whether the high mortality in the teaching profession is not in some measure due to so many cases of mistaken vocation.

It seems perhaps idle at a moment when the dearth of teachers is so pronounced in England, and when it is not unknown in the sister country, to propose a more careful selection of candidates. No doubt such a course lays itself open to the charge of inopportuneness. But it must be clearly understood that the tendency of this criticism is not so much to diminish the number selected as to change the criteria of choice. And it is because the English system appears at the present time to be approximating in this particular to the French system that it becomes necessary to point out the evils attendant on the latter.

Because a youth is an intelligent student it is not advisable to allow him to enter a profession for which he is likely to be permanently unsuited. And, if a slight lowering of the standard of intellectual culture were accompanied by an attempt at careful appreciation of those other qualities to which reference has been made, it would by no means be an unmixed evil.

The English pupil-teacher system, with all its faults, provided

the opportunity of discovering, in the large majority of cases, and before it was too late, the pedagogical ability of candidates. At the same time, the young apprentice, being engaged in the work under its normal conditions, was able to see for himself whether he was likely to be successful. One result of this system seems to be that our elementary schools are much better disciplined than those of France. If we must render homage to the more careful preparation of lessons in France, the fact remains that in the actual handling of the class the average English elementary teacher is superior to his French colleague. And it may with considerable ground be maintained that the more natural method of selection under the English system is largely responsible for this difference.

While every legitimate means should be employed to attract suitable candidates, it is a mistake to force young people into the channels leading to teaching without giving them the opportunity of seeing whether they are capable of carrying on the work with sufficient ease to render their lives happy ones. Such a precaution is only possible by introducing them to the real conditions before the decisive steps have been taken.

That practice in teaching should begin early is perhaps even more necessary in the case of women than in that of men. When a man has been through the training college, he is fairly certain to remain in the teaching profession for the remainder of his career. And if efficient work is at length done, a few years of indifferent teaching at the beginning can be pardoned. But with women teachers, these years are the most important. For large numbers drop out before the age of thirty on account of marriage. Under such systems as the French, the teachers take several years after leaving the training college to acquire a moderate command of the work. This is frankly admitted by many of them. Now if, after these years of comparative inefficiency, the teachers could leave without more ado, the bargain would be a very poor one for the State. An expensive training would have been given for nothing. In these cases, however, the French Government exacts compensation in the form of a refunding of the cost of maintenance at the training college. And, unless we are prepared to do the same in England, we had better perhaps continue to hasten the period of practical efficiency by early training in the art of teaching.

Practically all the French training colleges are residential. The experiment of a day training college has been tried at Mâcon. But it is considered a failure. It is found that the students do less work under these conditions. This is not, of course, a sufficient reason for condemning the change. If the loss in work is compensated by other advantages, such, for instance, as the development of greater independence of character and the power of self-control, there is much to be said for the system. But the immature age of the French students is perhaps an insuperable obstacle to the extension of this innovation.

The Colleges  
Residential.

## Staff.

The staff of the average French training college is usually stronger in intellectual qualifications than is the case in England. Instead of the more or less arbitrary choice by a principal or his committee, the masters are selected by examination. The same examinations qualify for appointments either in a training college or in a higher grade school (*école primaire supérieure*). They are open to all elementary teachers over twenty-one years of age who possess the *brevet supérieur*. There are two distinct examinations—one for science masters and the other for teachers of literary subjects. Although it is difficult to compare such examinations with our own, it may perhaps be asserted that they are equal in difficulty to the B.A. and B.Sc. examinations of London University. They are, however, competitive, only a limited number of candidates being accepted each year. In a few cases, instead of this special certificate, a corresponding diploma of French universities is recognised—the *licence ès lettres* or *ès sciences*.

Without going into the question of the advisability of choosing by examination alone, it may be safely asserted that the French training college teachers are better masters of their respective subjects than is the case in England. As the training college is for the elementary teacher what the university is for his secondary colleague, it seems fair to the former that his masters should be of the very best. The practice of retaining one of the old students as a tutor is not to be commended. The man who is to lecture on a given subject should have read and studied far more widely than will be required of his students. At the same time care must be taken that the persons appointed are conversant with the work of elementary schools, so that they may be able to help the students in the preparation of their own lessons.

There exists at Saint-Cloud a higher training college, the object of which is to prepare candidates for the ordeal above-mentioned. Admission is likewise by competitive examination and the students have the advantage of being instructed by some of the best professors of Paris. Passage through this higher normal school is no guarantee of success at the open examination. But nearly all its students are ultimately successful. When it is borne in mind that in some cases a student has sat in the same year for both examinations (that for entrance to Saint-Cloud and that for the right to teach in the ordinary training colleges) and, although failing in the former, has been successful in the latter, it will be understood that the standard necessary for entrance is sufficiently high to warrant almost certain success at the end of the course. A similar training college for women exists at Fontenay-aux-Roses.

For the post of principal of a training college, not only are the qualifications of an assistant master in the same institution necessary, but the candidate must have passed the examination for primary inspectors. As this examination, which is also competitive, requires experience as a primary teacher and a sound

knowledge of pedagogy, and, further, as most of those who pass it have to spend several years as inspectors before being appointed to the office of principal, this last post is usually filled by one who is eminently qualified to direct the professional work of the students.

The principal of a French training college not only discharges the duties of director of the establishment, but those also of master of method, acting in concert with the head master of the practising school. Such an arrangement becomes necessary in France, because the head master of the *école annexe*, although a capable and experienced teacher, does not always possess sufficient academic qualifications to undertake the difficult work of instruction in psychology and methodology. The system seems to work exceedingly well, the double supervision of the principal and the head master of the practising school ensuring a very strong professional training.

The internal organisation of a French training college is somewhat different from that of an English one. While the principal has his apartments in the college, most of the masters live outside. One or two of the younger masters who are unmarried usually sleep on the premises.\* In the men's colleges, domestic arrangements are under the direction, not of a matron, but of a man, who is known as the *économé*. In small colleges (those with less than sixty students in all) one of the masters discharges these duties, for which he receives a supplement of 500 francs a year. In the few larger institutions, a special appointment is made.

Neither the principal nor the masters dine in hall, the only persons present with the students being those who are responsible for the discipline. This fact is indicative of the general relations existing between staff and students. The masters have come to consider their work as ending with the ordinary lectures. They come and go for their own lessons; and, except on special occasions, do not mix with the students out of class time. One reason for this is that the number of hours of work provided for the students on the time-table is so great that the time left for recreation is very small. But the chief cause seems to be that the masters lack a broad conception of their duty.

Relations  
of Staff  
with  
Students.

This condition of things presents an extreme contrast with what obtains in a good English training college. In the French institution corporate life is reduced to a minimum, and none of those clubs and societies which exist in most English colleges, and which enable teacher and pupil to come into closer contact, to their mutual advantage, are to be met with. The idea of a master playing with the students would in most cases be ridiculed.

In this respect one feels that there is a serious defect in the French system. In the *école normale* the sole objects seem to be intellectual

\* In the training college of Lyons, none of the masters live in. Two old students, who are now teachers in schools near the college, receive board and lodging in exchange for supervision of the students in the dormitories, at early rising and at meals.

culture and professional training. The younger age of the French students and the fact that all their professional preparation is confined to the training college conspire to emphasise this tendency. And, if the English college is behind its French counterpart in the intensity of its purely intellectual life, we may at any rate congratulate ourselves that that healthy friction between master and student, and between the students themselves, which does so much for the formation of character, goes far to compensate our academic failings.

Routine of  
Students'  
Life.

As has already been hinted, the number of hours during which the students are employed is excessive.

Usually they are occupied with lessons or compulsory study for over eleven hours a day.\* Even Sunday is in some cases given over largely to reading and study. The only breaks during the week are on Thursday and Sunday afternoons, when the students are allowed out freely (each wearing the college uniform) for about four hours. During the remainder of the time they are under strict supervision, and are never permitted to leave the college precincts. Their short recreation periods are usually not spent in games, but in lounging about and engaging in desultory conversation.

It is to be suspected that so much of their energy is taken up by their work that little is left for violent or absorbing games. What

\* The following extract from the time-table of the Training College of Lyons is a fair specimen of a day's work:—

FIRST YEAR.  
Monday.

	a.m.		p.m.
5-5.20.	Rising and dressing.	12-1.	Dinner and recreation.
5.20-7.	Study.	1-1.30.	Work in the garden.
7-8.	Making beds, etc., breakfast, recreation.	1.30-2.30.	Music.
8-9.	Psychology.	2.30-4.30.	Manual training.
9-10.	Chemistry.	4.30-5.	Light meal and recreation
10-10.15.	Recreation.	5-6.	History.
10.15-11.	Study.	6-6.10.	Recreation.
11-12.	German.	6.10-8.	Study.
		8-9.	Supper, recreation, bed.

The following is the time-table of the same year for—

	a.m.	Sunday.	p.m.
5-5.20.	Rising and dressing.		
5.20-7.	Writing of exercises or compositions under supervision.	1-4.50.	Students allowed to go for walks as they please (wearing the college uniform).
7-8.30.	Making beds, etc., breakfast, recreation.	5-8.	Individual reading of standard authors (with an interval of a quarter of an hour, 6.45-7, for recreation).
8.30-10.	Study.		
10-10.30.	Recreation.		
10.30-11.30.	Causerie (generally on pedagogics) by the Principal.		

Thursday.

	a.m.		p.m.
	Work similar to that on an ordinary day.	As on Sunday afternoon.	

physical exercise they get forms part of the college curriculum. Gymnastic, gardening, and carpentry are taken by all the students.

The whole atmosphere of the college ministers to complete absorption in the ordinary work. So great is the desire of the students to excel at their examinations, that they are often far too anxious about their studies. Few need the persuasions of the masters, especially as the time of the examinations approaches.\*

The discipline in the French training colleges is severe. There is, indeed, little danger from the exuberant energy of youth. Some of the causes of this have already been noticed. An additional one is the great power which the principal has over the young men. The latter receive board, lodging, and education without any payment whatever. Further, their success in finding suitable posts on leaving will depend, especially at the outset, on the reports made by the principal to the academy inspector with respect to their conduct and general efficiency. One cannot help feeling sometimes that the order is too good. When young men between the ages of sixteen and twenty can be left alone together for an hour at a time without noise or disturbance of any kind, their docility seems to approach the unnatural. Discipline.

When one compares this submissive attitude with the democratic spirit which sometimes exists in the English training colleges, causing the students to hold meetings of protest and to petition the principal when they consider themselves ill-treated, one cannot help concluding that France, with its republican shell, has a strong military kernel, rendering the details of its administration far more arbitrary than anything to be found in England.

## II.—CURRICULUM.

### A.—GENERAL SUBJECTS.

It has been already stated that the organisation of French training colleges is more uniform throughout the country than is the case in England. The same may be said of the curricula. Not only are the general regulations less elastic in their application to the different training colleges, but the same arbitrary insistence on one and only one course is found in the provision of work for each student. There are no alternative subjects. Neither Latin nor Greek find a place in the syllabus; and no students are allowed to work for university examinations. It seems to be considered that every French elementary teacher requires a certain fixed stock-in-trade. As far as the *brevet supérieur* no allowance is made for individual differences of Uniform Course.

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\* At Lyons, the Principal on one occasion offered his students, who had been kept up in the evening somewhat later than usual, permission to rise an hour later on the following morning. They unanimously declined, alleging the amount of work they had in hand. The same Principal affirms that when the examination fever seizes the students, he has sometimes to lock the study doors in order to force some of them to take a little respite.

taste among the students. Every one is required to absorb the same encyclopedic compendium of knowledge. In addition to arithmetic, book-keeping, surveying, mathematics, French language and literature, psychology, ethics, education, drawing, history, civic instruction, geography, gymnastics and manual training, a modern language must be studied and the elements of all the sciences, including agriculture, horticulture and hygiene. To these must be joined a knowledge of the education code, of common law, of political economy, with practical and theoretical music, clay-modelling and hand-writing. Nor is each subject merely touched upon. In most cases the thoroughness of the work compares favourably with that of our English training colleges.

Overloading.  
—Repetition  
of Work.

With such a list of subjects it is difficult to see how the time given to lectures and study can be reduced. And the question naturally arises: Is it necessary that a student should cover so large a field?

One would certainly like to see every elementary teacher with a general knowledge of all these subjects. And it requires some temerity to single out any one as superfluous. Certainly the French curriculum is more complete than our own, and it behoves us to imitate it as far as possible. But this must not be done at the expense of cramming or of overwork. With the younger age of the French student, such a danger is in many cases more than possible. And it may perhaps be concluded that, while these syllabuses furnish us with a useful type, we cannot accept them in their entirety.

The chief criticism which one feels inclined to make on these schemes of work is that they ignore to some extent what many of the students have done before entrance to the training college. A few of the students, coming from country districts, have doubtless had limited advantages. But a large proportion have passed through the *école primaire supérieure*, where many of these subjects have received considerable attention. In the case of all, the fact that the examination for the *brevet élémentaire* has been obtained before entrance, indicates that a tolerable proficiency has been reached in certain branches. The masters in the *écoles primaires supérieures* have the same qualifications as those of the training colleges and in many of the best of these higher grade schools, the teachers assert that in some subjects the students have during their three years' course done all that will be required of them in the training college. This, if true, means that there will be a good deal of wasted time in the latter institution. Students will be forced to grind over subjects which have been carefully studied before. Now, while some good may certainly be derived from going over a course a second time, it must be remembered that nothing blunts interest and mental alertness so much as continual repetition of the same teaching. Unless new fields are to be opened in certain subjects, it is better to drop them altogether.

The authorities seem to have recognised this in one subject—

that of penmanship, and in the latest syllabus (August, 1905) practice in this is not required in the case of those students who have reached a fair standard of excellence. But this treatment might be extended to other subjects. In the English training colleges, some fifteen years ago, history and geography were excused for those who obtained distinction in them at the Scholarship Examination, and who cared to take other subjects in their places.

Of the two, perhaps geography could the better be spared. But it seems important that some work in history should be continued; not necessarily by repeating the already fairly well-known history of our own country, but by diving into the annals of other nations. Here, in passing, we may take a leaf from the French book. In the *écoles normales* a whole term is given to ancient history, including that of Greece; another to Roman history; while the general history of the nations of Europe and of the other great states also receives considerable attention.

What, however, overloads the French syllabus in this, as in many other subjects, is the immense amount of repetition to which we have already referred in a general way. Besides the want of allowance for what should have been learnt before, it is probable that the French are influenced by a too slavish acceptance of the concentric plan. It is doubtless good that general outlines should be impressed before details are studied. But this is no excuse for the yearly repetition of many of the elementary facts. When one reflects that in almost every year of the primary school, the history of France is taught with gradually increasing complexity, and that in the *école primaire supérieure* the same field is once again covered, one comes to the conclusion that the training college student has already been through this history at least six or seven times. While this concentric method seems good in the early stages of the primary school, it would perhaps be profitable to break away from it much sooner, and, instead of going over the same ground two or three more times, to spread a careful study of French history over several years, so that each period might be thoroughly examined without loss of the charm of novelty. The intelligent teacher would find it necessary in dealing with the later periods to hark back to the earlier so many times that almost all the advantages of the concentric method would be secured without its deadening effect. The essentials at any rate would thereby be kept alive.

Another group of which some part could be omitted without compromising the education of the student would appear to be science; and another, art. Almost all these subjects have already been treated during the three years' course in the *école primaire supérieure*. Probably some already reach an almost satisfactory standard and could receive less attention during the period of training. It is, at any rate, certain that, with a little modification of the work in the *école primaire supérieure*, something might be done to lighten the curriculum of the training college.

Unfortunately, however, the syllabus of the *école primaire supérieure* cannot easily be tampered with, as this school is not a special institution for prospective teachers. Here, once again, the superiority of the system of pupil teachers' centres makes itself felt. The only modification that seems possible in the existing French system is the institution of a special section in the *école primaire supérieure* for aspirants to the office of elementary teacher.

#### B.—PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Former insignificant Position in Curriculum.

One important consequence of the fulness of the training college syllabus in the past has been that, in spite of the large number of hours spent in work, the professional training has not received sufficient attention. Yet this branch of the work is all the more necessary in the French normal schools because no previous practice has been done. It may be well to quote the words of the last official pronouncement (Remark in the syllabus of August, 1905):—“Preoccupied with their personal studies, the student-teachers were only half-interested in their classes, and their preparation suffered on account of the time which they stole from it to copy hastily notes of lectures without which they believed their progress in danger. They passed one week at the most in the practising school, and left it at the moment when they were commencing to know their pupils and to understand clearly the teaching. According to the regulations they should have returned four times in the year, but in many colleges the number of weeks spent in the practising school did not exceed two per year.” Probably another reason for this negligence of the professional side is the fact that the examination for the *brevet supérieur* does not include a test in the practice of teaching.

New Regulations.

This condition of things has been exercising the authorities some time, and for the present year (1905-6) a radical change has been made in the regulations. Instead of taking the examination for the *brevet supérieur* at the end of the third year, the students will in future sit at the end of the second. During the first and second years, no practice will be undertaken by the students in the *école annexe*. But it is hoped that in the third year they will be able to devote a large part of their time and energy to teaching practice. Two months will in most cases be spent in the *école annexe*. And it is thought that, freed from the preoccupation of an examination and being older and more capable, they will profit more from these two months than from the desultory weeks of the old system. During this new third year, the general culture of the students will be carried further, but on broader lines and leaving much more scope for personal work and individual research. It is hoped in this way to remedy the defects which have been created by the large number of hours of lectures and preparation, namely the lack of individual initiative and a distaste for reading and study. Perchance in the future, the young teacher, instead of leaving college

with a disgust for books, will be inclined to continue his reading and self-culture when he enters on his professional work. A third examination has been created as a sanction to the work of this last year, and is styled *l'examen de fin d'études normales*.

Since even the largest of the practising schools attached to training colleges have in most cases no more than three classes, it is obvious that to give each student in the third year two months' training, the total number of students in a year must not exceed fifteen (there are ten months in the scholastic year). As has already been observed, the number of colleges in which there are more than fifteen students per year is small (about one-third of the total number). In these the third year students will pass one month and a half in the practising school, and will go for the remaining time into a neighbouring primary school.

In addition, it is prescribed that several times during the year the students shall be conducted into three typical schools of the district—one of three classes, another with only one class, and the third a mixed school. It is hoped that they will thereby supplement the knowledge gained in the practising school. After these visits they will discuss the methods and procedures they have noted. Such visits of observation have been in vogue for many years in the best English training colleges. They seem to be an innovation in France, except in the case of one or two of the more advanced normal schools, notably those of Paris and Lyons.

The most immediate effect which these great changes seem likely to produce is an increased pressure of work during the first two years. It is definitely asserted that the standard of the *brevet supérieur* will not be lowered. Obviously, therefore, what was done latterly in three years will have to be done for the future in two.

In extenuation, however, it is stated that the great improvement which has been, and is still being, made in the acquirements of the incoming students, owing to the increasing efficiency of the *écoles primaires supérieures*, through which most of the candidates pass, will enable the work in question to be easily done in a shorter time. Further, it is hoped that the training college teacher will be able in some subjects to take shorter cuts, without diminishing the thoroughness of the instruction. It should, however, be remembered that there still exist training colleges in which many of the students are unable to obtain the *brevet supérieur* at the end of the full three years' course. This is especially so in the South, where the general standard is somewhat lower.

But, even if the system works as the authorities anticipate, there remains the fact that the training college neglects the most important part of its work during two-thirds of the course. It will be, indeed, during the first two years, nothing but a mere college. There will be teaching in elementary psychology, it is true. But this, apart from practice in the schools, is only an additional subject of instruction.

New Regu-  
lations.—  
Continued.

It is doubtful, too, whether the increased attention given during the last year to practical teaching will be superior in its results to that which has been spread over three years in the past. The theory and practice of education is not a matter to be "got up" at short notice. It is just this way of studying pedagogy which has brought the whole subject into dispute—at least as far as the ordinary teacher is concerned. We hear so much in these days of the opposition between theory and practice. Is this not largely due to the fact that school method and kindred subjects are studied in haste for examinations? Pedagogical principles must be allowed to germinate in the mind during long periods. Keeping in touch with practice for some years, if only in a desultory way, may possibly be found to produce more stable results than an attempt to grasp a great deal in a little time. Even when the student has long gaps between his short periods in the practising school, he is likely to reflect on his work there, to have time for recovering himself after failure and disappointment, and to make more successful efforts on succeeding occasions. All this means development during the intervals between practice. And it is likely that he will come back to his work each time a somewhat riper teacher than he would be if he had gone straight on and completed a longer period of practice at one stretch.

Reference has already been made to the fact that in the French system the teaching powers of the candidate are not put to the test till late in his period of probation, and then only imperfectly. This weakness will be accentuated under the new *régime*. No practice in teaching will take place until the qualifying examination has been passed. It is not likely that the student who has managed to secure the *brevet supérieur* will turn back because of subsequent failure in the practising school. More than ever the tendency of the French system will be to manufacture the article and then, when too late, to examine the stuff of which it is made.

Criticism  
Lessons.

Criticism lessons are given in the French training colleges every week in much the same way as with us. The principal of the college and the head master of the practising school are usually present, and sometimes also the college teacher of the subject in which the lesson has been chosen. But no other masters ever put in an appearance. Here, as in other cases, the staff as a whole does not take that general interest in the work of the students which is perhaps a more prominent feature in a good English training college.\* After the lesson is over and the boys have withdrawn, the usual criticism begins. Naturally, however, the remarks of the students are not very exhaustive, and instead of the one called upon getting up and making a lengthy criticism, as often occurs with us, the principal is often forced to ask a large number of definite questions in order to provoke remarks. This is not surprising, considering

\* At the Isleworth Training College—under Principal Barnett at any rate—the majority of the senior staff were usually present at these exercises.

the age and lack of experience of the students. Indeed, it is doubtful whether a criticism lesson is of much use to those who have not already had a certain amount of practice. And perhaps a number of model lessons given by the head master of the practising school or his assistant, and followed by explanations of the methods and procedures adopted, would do more good, at any rate in the earlier stages. Such lessons are, indeed, given, but they might be more frequent.

The principal sums up the criticism, and, after the meeting is over, one of the students is required to write an account of the proceedings. The men take this in turns and all the minutes are kept in the same book. It is rather surprising that each is not required to take his own notes. Here it would seem worth while to insist on some of that careful note-taking which is so overdone in other subjects.

Reference has already been made to the courses in psychology, Psychology. morals, and the principles of education, and to the fact that all these subjects are taken by the principal.

In the first year the outlines of psychology are studied, together with what is termed their applications to education, two lessons of an hour each being given every week.\* The first part consists of the usual dogmatic sketch divided under the three heads, feeling, intelligence, and activity. The "applications," as is frequent in attempts of this kind, show little connection with the psychology proper, but consist rather of the common facts of child-psychology with a few general remarks on the training of children. It is doubtful whether the age of the students (16 or thereabouts) permits them to grasp intelligently even these elements. This is still less likely under the new regulations. For, as no practice in the schools will be undertaken till the third year, the students have no children to observe, and they can scarcely be expected to show interest in recommendations with respect to their treatment.

In the second year the subject is morals, Morals. two lessons per week being allowed. The purely philosophical side is only lightly touched upon. Here we have the authoritative statements of the intuitive school, with a definite rationalistic bias. To these are added a large number of general remarks on the practical duties of family and social life. Patriotism and the necessity of military service find an important place. One cannot help wondering how much of this seed finds good ground. Here, as in the primary schools, there appears to be far too much theory and too little real character-building. The French seem to be penetrated with the old Socratic idea that men can be instructed to virtue. With all due respect to the honesty and good faith of the promoters of this scheme, one cannot refrain from asserting that, whatever may be done in the future, the attempt to teach a morality founded on

\* The plan of a lesson on Memory, given to students of the first year by the Principal of the Lyons Training College is given in Appendix C, IV.

reason has not yet been very fruitful. Example is better than precept; and the acquirement of good habits of thinking and acting seems far more effectual than the possession of clear ideas on the principles of morality. A reasoned system of ethics is perhaps worth something when combined with the character of a Kant. But it is to be conjectured that even Kant's practical morality was anterior to his theory.

Pedagogy.

In the third year, pedagogy forms the chief subject in this branch of the teaching. Two hours a week are given to the study of educational principles and to a cursory survey of some of the important literature. The suggested scheme of reading is rather extensive for these young students. It contains selections from the works of Madame Necker, J. Ferry, Lavissee, Anthoine, and Pécaut; and among English writers: Locke (*Thoughts on Education—the hardening process*), H. Spencer (*Intellectual Education—object lessons*), Sully (*Studies of Childhood—portions*). No German authors are mentioned!

School  
Management  
and Edaca-  
tional Ad-  
ministration.

One hour a week is given to the study of school method and management, the education code, law, and political economy. It may be well to give students some notions of all these subjects. But it is scarcely good policy to allow them to crowd practical school management into so small a compass.

### • C.—METHODS OF TEACHING.

In the remarks on French training colleges which follow, no definite attempt will be made to differentiate the new from the old. This is only important from the French standpoint. Further, the new features, although only just incorporated in the government regulations, have been in existence for some time in the Training College for men at Lyons. Indeed, the principal of this college and his staff are largely responsible for many of the modifications.

Lecturing  
and Teach-  
ing both  
necessary.

The training college is the university of the primary teacher and, as such, must provide something more than mere secondary teaching in the various subjects. It would be a mistake to aspire to the more or less abstruse discourses of the university professor, leaving to the students the option of following or turning a deaf ear. The difficulty here is to combine teaching and lecturing in good proportions. This the French training college teachers may be said, on the whole, to be achieving with considerable success. Their thorough knowledge of their respective subjects renders them good lecturers. Perhaps, indeed, in the whole of French schools, the tendency to lecture is too pronounced. And, if English schools and colleges were judged merely on a comparison with the corresponding French institutions in respect of the lectures given, we should have to admit a striking inferiority. Some of the lectures in French training colleges are good enough to rank as brilliant university discourses. And there would be a danger of over-

doing this side of the work, were it not that the ever-present pre-occupation of the *brevet supérieur* is in the minds of the teachers, causing them to supplement their lectures by various useful, if prosaic, means of assuring intelligent assimilation by the students.

First in order comes the taking of notes. This practice is greatly Note-Taking. abused in French normal schools, and, indeed, in almost all the schools in France. A student's collection of note-books forms a small library in itself and, it is to be feared, becomes quite unmanageable to the average pupil. The lack of a suitable text-book is sometimes an excuse for burdening the students with voluminous notes. But this cannot be pleaded in the case of most subjects taught in the French training colleges. The chief reasons which account for so much note-taking seem to be:—

(1) The force of habit. The teachers themselves have been through the mill under the same conditions and can conceive of no better way than that followed by their old masters.

(2) The desire to show something tangible at the end of the year. It is to be apprehended that inspectors are not guiltless in this matter. Many of them insist on seeing all the note-books and expect to find in them full details of all the work. It certainly is some sort of a guarantee that the teacher has been through the prescribed course. But it is a means of assurance which is, in the majority of cases, as unnecessary as it is harmful.

(3) The students themselves are so accustomed to taking notes that, were they to follow a course of lessons without being required to write anything, they would probably consider that something was radically wrong. When, for any reason, as for practice in the *école annexe*, they absent themselves, they are very much preoccupied about getting the notes which they have missed.

(4) Note-taking is a means of discipline. The student must pay some attention in order to take his notes. Further, while engaged in writing them, he cannot misbehave himself. Many weak teachers seem to have no other reason than this, and keep their pupils pen in hand during the whole of the lesson.

A large amount of note-taking, even when the student makes his own, may, however, as Professor Adams has pointed out, be a means of weakening the effort of attention to the exposition. The student who is too much preoccupied with his notes loses in many cases the gist of the lecture. He cannot see the wood for the trees.

This superstition with regard to the taking of notes should therefore be stoutly combated. In these days of excellent text-books, it may be asserted, without any disrespect to the best masters, that a lesson on a given subject will, in most instances, be no better in arrangement and exposition than the corresponding chapter in the manual. If the teacher has definite additions to make, or new

**Note-Taking.** points of view to give, he should be so well acquainted with the book in the hands of the student that he knows at once when it is necessary to make a supplementary note. Unfortunately some teachers shirk the laborious work of carefully examining the text-book and of dovetailing their lessons into the reading which the students will have to do.

—Continued.

Note-taking, then, is useful in moderation. The students may, and indeed should, be allowed to take notes. Not, however, in the anxious spirit of the stenographer or the German student, but in an easy self-contained manner, jotting down one or two of the most striking points. There is often more art in omitting than in including.

Of methods of taking notes there are many. Some masters speak very slowly, expecting their students to take down all. This, for reasons already given, seems to be unadvisable, no matter what the age of the pupils.

Others stop at certain points and dictate a *résumé*. This is good with young pupils, and where the text-book is imperfect. But otherwise there is hardly need for it.

Some place the onus of note-taking entirely on the students. This is good practice for advanced pupils. But it requires supervision and can be easily overdone. A French training-college teacher remarked to one of his students at the end of his lecture: "You have not taken many notes;" and from his tone it appeared that he judged assiduity of attention by quantity of writing.

Some French teachers begin by dictating the outlines of their lesson. There is something to be said for this in cases where the student already knows something of the subject. He gets the perspective beforehand. And he is able to follow the development of the lesson without any anxiety, untormented by the question "What are we coming to next?" But with young students it seems scarcely profitable. If they know little of the subject, it is meaningless. Further, it is likely to lessen interest. The very question, "What are we coming to next?" which annoys the older student may be a source of curiosity to the younger pupil, and tends to maintain his attention.

In a great many French colleges, the students write on one side only of the paper, or on one half only of the page, the blank spaces opposite being left for observations, examples or additional notes, made in reading or revising. This seems a useful practice. But one sees so many blank pages that the idea appears to be utopian; at any rate its realisation is so imperfect that the elaborate arrangements made for it are scarcely warranted.

There is, of course, the further form of note-taking, which consists in causing students to sum up what they read. This is excellent practice, especially in discursive subjects; and enables the teacher to see in a very short time whether careful reading has been done.

It is perhaps impossible, at any rate unadvisable, to give any absolute rules in the matter of note-taking. When one sees so much valuable time wasted in mere writing, one almost regrets that paper is so cheap; and the conclusion is forced home that it is better to err on the side of too little than too much. The most general rule which can be given seems to be that no note should be given or taken without a definite purpose, and without its necessity being apparent.

Another procedure which is employed in all French colleges is the oral questioning of a student in front of the class. This, of course, is not new to English teachers. But its regular and systematic use in all cases is by no means so common with us. Almost every lesson in French normal schools is begun by calling out a student before his fellows. He brings his note-book with him; and the master examines it while conducting his interrogation. Often the student is pilloried for a quarter of an hour, and in some cases even longer. Sometimes whole lessons are given up to this method of testing. It is an exceedingly valuable means of insuring careful and thorough preparation. It has the further advantage of training the students in expressing themselves at length before a class, and in this way is a valuable adjunct to the professional training.

In all subjects marks are given with great regularity. The principal and his staff keep a careful watch on these results. At Lyons, for instance, the members of the staff meet at the end of every week, and, among other things, examine carefully all the mark-books. Those students who fail to attain a satisfactory percentage are often punished by detention and loss of small privileges. Further, these marks are taken into consideration at the final examinations.

A striking feature of the teaching in French training colleges, and one which will become even more marked under the new regulations, is what is known as the *transposition* of lessons. It aims at associating all the teachers in the professional preparation of the students. In the past, the tendency has been for the masters to shut themselves up in the spheres of their respective subjects, and to look upon the training of the students in teaching as devolving upon the principal and the head master of the practising school. Now, however, they are called out from this isolation, and, as most of their subjects have a direct bearing on the work of the elementary school, they are required to consider with the students the extent and nature of this connection. After a lesson has been given in the training college, the students are asked to determine what parts of it should be selected for certain classes of the primary school.

In other words, they transpose it.\*

In most cases, it is the essentials which are chosen; and it is

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\* Examples of transpositions of the college lessons for the practising school at Lyons are given in Appendix B.

claimed that this exercise is not only useful as a part of the professional training, but also beneficial to the students in their study of the subject in question. The careful turning over of the matter by the students, in order to select the most important points, is an excellent means of digesting it.

To associate still further the training-college teachers in the professional work of the students, and to ensure that the former keep in touch with the requirements of the elementary school, and with the standard which can reasonably be expected therein, so that they can superintend these *transpositions* with authority, the new regulations require that each teacher should go once or twice a month into the practising school, to hear lessons given in his particular subject, and to question the children on what has been taught.

As most of the training college teachers in France have themselves been elementary teachers for some time, their collaboration in this work, if undertaken with enthusiasm, should be extremely valuable. And, if it be granted that the ordinary teaching of the training college will not suffer by this attention to the methods of teaching, the argument in favour of special training colleges for teachers in which all, or almost all, the subjects are taught from a pedagogical standpoint receives additional support.

In the new regulations, an attempt is made to push this species of pedagogical work a step further. The time spent in the practising school (two months) being considered, as indeed it is, too short to provide a thorough professional preparation, it is hoped to remedy this defect by requiring not only notes and observations on proposed lessons in the primary school, but *the lessons themselves*, given as to a class. It will be best here to quote the actual words of the official instructions relating to students of the third year :—

“For the first time, the training college teachers are associated in an effective manner with the professional education of the student-teachers. Doubtless the old regulations directed them to make in their classes *transposition* of lessons for the primary school, and asked them to be present from time to time at the exercises in the practising schools; but, as is well known, these recommendations remained often without effect, and it is hardly right to blame the teachers for this, preoccupied as they were, with developing long courses of instruction and with bringing their pupils up to the standard of the *brevet supérieur*. Now, however, definite times are assigned to these transpositions in a year wherein both masters and students have no longer any other anxiety but the pedagogical question.

“This new task will be, it is hoped, particularly appreciated by the masters; each has, in his own subjects, a competence from which the future elementary teachers can derive direct profit; he knows what a lesson should be, not only in itself, but in its relation to the whole subject of which it forms a part; he has experience of the special difficulties of this particular teaching; he knows its profound interest and how it can be rendered attractive and living.

“It is also an advantage, from the point of view of pedagogical science, if not indeed from that of practice itself, to give these adaptations in the absence of the children: the master can correct the lesson which is being given, on the spot, when necessary he can interrupt it, and even reconstruct

it; he can discuss in the lesson itself the ideas chosen, the methods employed, and so forth. These exercises have a very great importance; one may say that in opening the minds of the student-teachers to the progress to be realised in each subject, they are the best safeguard against the routine work which is to come. There is no need to insist upon the value which they have for the training-college teachers themselves."

With all due respect to the good intentions of the authorities, it may be affirmed not only that this side of the training is in danger of being overdone, but that the characteristic weakness of the French conception of teaching is hereby clearly set forth.

It is surely undesirable for a student to give a lesson intended for boys of (say) ten years of age to his fellows. True, the subjects definitely mentioned in the syllabus (morals, history, geography and science) are those which best lend themselves to such treatment. But, even with these, the whole thing is likely to become artificial, uninteresting and unprofitable. It is absurd to require the student to address his fellows in the words he will use in speaking to little boys; and it is hardly less so to ask his comrades to sit and listen to him. Such a practice may be compared to an attempt to swim out of water, or to practice playing on the piano without an instrument. It reveals the fault which is perhaps the most striking weakness of French teaching—the too great preponderance of lecturing. It seems to be forgotten that a lesson, especially in the primary school, means continual friction between the mind of the teacher and those of his pupils. The latter are as essential to its success as the former. And with the younger children, scarcely five minutes should go by without some question—experimental, disciplinary, Socratic, heuristic, reassuring, or recapitulatory—being addressed to the pupils. No lesson worthy the name should be given exactly as prepared. Circumstances arise which should cause the teacher to modify his procedure. The knowledge of the pupils, their attention and their powers of comprehension, can never be exactly gauged beforehand. But the words of this official pamphlet seem to indicate that a lesson is considered as a speech, which can be given as well in one place as another.

In many French training colleges a practice has obtained which is in some respects analogous to that just described but which in reality serves a different end. The students have for some time been accustomed to give short lessons on the subjects they themselves are studying to their fellows, being criticised at the end by the teacher. This exercise might well be imitated in English training colleges. The lessons are usually short, occupying about a quarter of an hour. They are exceedingly good training in exposition; they require careful study on the part of the young student who is called upon; and they infuse an additional interest into the work, which is ever in danger of becoming too stereotyped in character. Further, these lessons enable the masters to single out those who are likely to make capable training-college teachers later on.

Various modifications of this practice occur in different subjects.

Lessons given by Students to their fellows.

In literature, for instance, the students of the Third Year are required to read (in translation) the chief masterpieces of the Latin, Greek, English, German, Italian, and Spanish languages. These include portions of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, several plays of the Greek dramatists as the *Œdipus* of Sophocles, the *Iphigenia* of Euripides, the *Wasps* of Aristophanes, and some of the works of other Greek writers as Plato and Demosthenes; Cæsar, Virgil, and Tacitus amongst the Romans; *Macbeth*, *Richard III.*, and *Hamlet* from the works of our own great genius; and some of the productions of Goethe, Schiller, Dante, and Cervantes. Now, as time will not permit of the thorough reading of all these works by every pupil, the practice at Lyons is to require each student to make a special study of one of them, and to deliver a short account or critique to his fellows.

Practice in  
Popular  
Lectures to  
Adults  
(Lyons  
Training  
College).

Many of the students, on leaving college, will be placed in small country towns and villages. In these, efforts have been made to encourage not only evening classes for adults, but popular readings and lectures. The students of the Third Year are prepared for these by being required to give similar entertainments to their comrades. No better method of describing this work can be employed than the translation of the Principal's Report on what has been done in the Training College of Lyons:—

"The increasing importance which the teaching of adults is claiming in our preoccupations imposes on the training colleges the obligation of preparing the students to conduct this work in its two forms: the teaching of adults properly so called, and popular lectures.

"The lessons in pedagogy, theoretical and practical, render the student capable, when he has become an elementary teacher, of conducting evening classes for adults in a satisfactory manner. But the popular lecture requires a preparation, I will venture even to say a training, which is not to be obtained directly from the ordinary exercises of the training college.

"The normal school ought, therefore, to occupy itself with completing the professional education of the students in this respect. With this object in view a kind of school for popular lectures was created in the Training College of Lyons in the year 1902-3.

"Each student of the Third Year has to give, after due preparation, two lectures, one on a scientific subject, the other on a subject of history, geography, sociology, literature, morals, or citizenship, being required to limit himself to the comprehension of a *popular* audience.

"The subjects are freely chosen by the students under the supervision of the staff.

"A certain number of these lectures being accompanied by lantern pictures, the students are, one after another, exercised in the manipulation of the necessary apparatus.

"The lectures are given before a restricted audience, composed of the staff and students of the college.

"Each lecture is followed by criticism in which the students, the masters, and the principal take part, the last-named summing up the discussion by emphasising the characteristic faults and good features of the lecture and . . . . of the lecturer.

"We have convinced ourselves, indeed, that these attempts are profitable, for, on the second trial our young lecturers—who had in addition gained more confidence—were able to avoid the greater part of the faults pointed out

on the first occasion and to acquire some of the good qualities which had been noticed in the case of certain of their fellows.

"On leaving the training college, each student carries with him at least two lectures thoroughly prepared and the detailed plans of several others with indications of works of reference.

"It is, then, an efficient school of lecturing which we have organised. If we cannot claim to have produced in one season a number of experienced orators, we have, I think, prepared many 'popular' lecturers who will not be afraid to speak in public, who go out with the conviction that there are a great many good and beautiful ideas to be spread, and who are ready to work in the scattering of them with all their might."

The following is a list of the lectures given in one season :—

- The Abuse of Alcohol, with lantern pictures.
- Republican Duty: Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.
- Bees, with lantern pictures.\*
- French Colonisation in Africa, with lantern pictures.
- Pasteur, with lantern pictures.
- Mines and Miners, with lantern pictures.
- The Moon.
- War and Peace.
- The Phylloxera, with lantern pictures.
- The French Pyrenees and their Inhabitants, with lantern pictures.
- Consumption, with lantern pictures.
- The Benefits of Association.
- The Life of the Peasants under the old *Régime*.
- "La Houille Blanche" (Water as a Motor for machinery), with lantern pictures.
- The Daughter of Roland, with readings.
- Phenomena of the Atmosphere (Wind, Rain, Snow), with lantern pictures.
- Universal Franchise.
- Rural Hygiene: The Home.
- The Rhone.
- "Solidarité."
- Volcanoes.
- The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.
- Popular Amusements in Ancient France.
- The X-Rays, with experiments and lantern pictures.
- Property.
- The Republican Constitution of 1875.
- Pre-historic Man, with lantern pictures.
- Towards the Pole (after Nansen's account), with lantern pictures.
- The Telegraph and the Telephone, with lantern pictures.
- Madagascar, with lantern pictures.
- Aerial Navigation, with lantern pictures.

Perhaps it is on the literary side that the French training colleges are most remarkable. This work is consummated in the composition exercises, which receive far more attention than in England. The Principal of the Training College of Lyons affirms that the one who is the best all-round student usually stands first in composition. In this subject the aim is pre-eminently to stimulate thought and

Literary Side  
of College  
Work.—  
"Composition  
Exercises."

\* At this, the writer had the pleasure of being present. The young lecturer had not only made a large model of a beehive, but had prepared specimens of all the apparatus pertaining thereto. Although the enthusiasm and inexperience of the lecturer caused him to attempt far too much for the time at his disposal, he maintained the keenest interest throughout, and one left enchanted with the subject and with a real desire to do a little bee-farming oneself.

imagination, to encourage wide reading and to practise the students in arranging their matter in the best possible form.

While in England the chief complaint which one hears is with respect to the bore of marking the papers, one is struck with the keen interest which the French teacher shows in this work, with the care displayed in marking and criticising every essay, and with the earnest endeavours to get the students to reflect on and digest the matter in hand.

If any criticism is to be made on the excellent work which is being done, it is that the teachers are too ambitious. This remark applies not only to the masters in the training colleges, but to those in almost all schools. There seems to be a general tendency to force the young pupils into the ways of thinking of the mature mind. One hears teachers, even with boys, after reading very fair objective narratives, complaining that the subjective is wanting. The general cry is: "Give us your personal impressions." It is forgotten that an average healthy youth has few purely personal impressions. And one cannot help wondering whether the aim of these mistaken teachers is not to develop a number of abortive *de Mussets* and *de Vignys*.

If this tendency is somewhat marked in the lower schools, it is a supreme feature of the higher instruction in this subject. The following directions, for instance, are given to the first year students of the Training College of Lyons (aged 16) to aid them in describing objects:—

"When you are in presence of an object you experience something, for example, sadness before a tree stripped of its leaves. . . . Be sincere. Describe it as you see it. Do it so well that at the reading of your description we may be, in our turn, saddened as you are yourself."

Then follow certain subjects for composition, as:—

"Describe a metal pen";

"Describe an umbrella";

"Your impressions on rising in the morning at the Training College."

With respect to the last subject, it should be remembered that the students rise at five o'clock: and, if they obeyed the commandment to be sincere, many of them would say that the chief emotion is the longing to be back in bed. For which, probably, they would be reprimanded.

In the case of one subject given ("What are the aspects of nature which you prefer?") the master himself owns that the task imposed was quite beyond the pupils. He says:—

"After six days of study and of preparation, I was forced to give up this subject. I should have liked to obtain the description of a real landscape which had been seen by the student. But no one having clear memories, each had composed a landscape from his imagination. To avoid fanciful and wild descriptions, I preferred to suppress the subject. I replaced it by the following, which had to be done in haste:—

"Sketch the plan and the description of the picture of the Dutch painter Wynants which has as title: 'Setting out for Bird-shooting.'"

All this is somewhat artificial, and one feels that there is much

which might be described as beating the air. As Professor Adams has pointed out, the great principles which should be constantly kept before the mind in teaching this subject are :—

- (1) Put the pupil in a position in which he wants to say something.
- (2) Make him keen on expressing his own view.

One cannot help thinking that the French pupil is too often in the position of having to say something instead of having something to say. There is no doubt considerable effort to get the pupil to express his own view. But in the majority of cases this view would be so mercilessly criticised, if unorthodox, that the pupil, knowing it, is afraid to risk the consequences of plain speaking. Even when he thinks he is expressing his own ideas, he is really trying to write what is likely to please his master. And the only effect which the continual reminder that he ought to speak his own mind has upon him, is that this implicit intellectual dishonesty becomes more and more explicit.

One excellent feature of the composition exercises is the careful preparation which the students are required to make for each essay. To quote once again the words of the same master :—

■ “ Each of the exercises has been the object of minute preparation, undertaken in common by the master and the pupils, and in particular by the pupils. The result is that the work which the pupils produce, at least in the case of the best, is free from faults, at least from grave faults. [This ugly repetition of words occurs in the master’s report, and is translated literally.] . . . It is one of our preoccupations to avoid mistakes on the part of the pupil, in order to avoid corrections, because all masters who have had to make them know that the corrections with which an exercise is often covered serve no purpose.”

This seems a very good idea, within due limits. But it does not strike one that the master has always adhered to his principle. Further, he does not appear to see that if no faults have been made, and no corrections, the work of the pupils has been reduced to something which is hardly difficult enough. The best maxim seems to be—Make the subjects difficult enough and the preparation sufficiently incomplete for the students to be well occupied during the writing of the essay ; but do not give a subject so difficult, or preparation so scanty, that the pupils are unable to write a fair essay and become discouraged.

Another good feature in the composition exercises is that the students are required to give their appreciations of books they have been reading. This is an excellent means of encouraging thoughtful and thorough reading. The following are a few extracts from the master’s directions :—

Private Reading.

“ The time given at one sitting to reading should, therefore, be divided into two parts :—

- (a) During the first two-thirds (or thereabouts) of the time, one should read, making notes as one goes along on the thoughts which the reading suggests.

- (b) During the last third (or thereabouts) of the time, one should write an account of what one has read, making use of the notes which have just been taken."

\* \* \* \* \*

"This account should not be a *summary* merely; it should be an *appreciation*. You must not narrate, you must judge. You must, for instance, reply to the following questions:—

- (a) Has what I have just read interested me, or, on the contrary, has it bored me?
- (b) Why has it interested or bored me? What in particular is it which has interested or bored me? According to this, it is evident that the chief quality of an account of this kind is its *sincerity*. You are not asked for anything else but this: to say sincerely, innocently, naively, what you have felt while reading. Do not be afraid of making mistakes. One does not make mistakes when one judges sincerely. You have the right to consider as uninteresting a book which others may perhaps find interesting. The only thing which is required of you is to learn to say why, to justify your opinion. All opinions are legitimate, provided they are sincere and have their reasons.

\* \* \* \* \*

"Above all, read little but minutely, and seek before everything your sincere, personal impressions."

Among the books which the students have read in this way may be mentioned *Souvenirs de Jeunesse et d'Enfance* (E. Renan), *Werther* (Goethe), *Chatterton* (Alfred de Vigny), *Les Caractères* (La Bruyère).

Perhaps too much stress is laid on careful reading and the taking of notes. It is good at times to read with the feet on the fender. And excessive insistence on careful note-taking is likely to give this work too serious an aspect, and to defeat the very object which it is intended to promote—the love of reading. The too laborious examination of the pages of an author often destroys the appetite. It might, perhaps, be well to allow the students to do two kinds of reading, even in the same book: to pass rapidly over certain parts, and to stop from time to time and examine minutely. These variations would not only add interest, but would enable far more to be read. One of the reproaches to be brought against ordinary training college students, at any rate in England, is that they have not read widely.\* And one of the excuses for this failing is that too much time and attention are given to a few chosen books.

### III.—PRACTISING SCHOOLS.

Paris  
(Auteuil).

In dealing with the practising schools, that of Paris (Auteuil) must be considered apart. While most of the French training colleges have small *écoles annexes*, which often present the work under artificial conditions, that of Auteuil has a large and efficient elementary school attached to it. The head master is a distinguished primary teacher, and his assistants are selected from among the

\* The recent report on the general knowledge paper at the King's Scholarship Examination of 1904 is in striking corroboration of this statement.

best of the old students—not immediately after leaving the training college, but when they have been ripened by experience in other schools. A position in this school is much sought after, partly because of the distinction which it confers, and also on account of addition to the ordinary salary of which mention will presently be made. There are six classes, each with a fully qualified assistant.

The students who enter the Practising School are not put in charge of a class, as is the custom in other schools of this kind. They listen to and observe the lessons of the ordinary teachers. Once a day, however, they give a lesson. This is prepared very carefully beforehand. Minute directions are given them, and they are instructed to write notes of the lesson.

These must be presented to the teacher of the class two days in advance. They are then criticised and, if necessary, modified. Finally the lesson is given. After school hours the class master remains with the young teacher and gives his criticisms and advice for future work. For this extra time, which amounts to about an hour a day, the teachers receive a supplement of 600 francs a year.

The students remain in the practising school for only half of each day. The other half is spent in the training college, in the pursuit of their ordinary studies.

The advantages of this system seem to be—

(1) The pupils of the practising school do not suffer by remaining for long periods in the hands of novices. Indeed, the few carefully prepared lessons given by the latter are rather a gain than a loss to the general instruction.

(2) The teaching work done by the students is the best possible under the circumstances. With only one lesson to give each day, they are able to devote to it the greatest pains. They thus get into the habit of preparing their lessons carefully from the first. Slipshod preparation, which is bound to result from requiring a whole day's work of these young people, preoccupied as they are by their interrupted studies, is thus avoided.

(3) The break in the ordinary studies of the students is reduced to a minimum. They can easily keep in touch with what their comrades are doing in the training college.

(4) It is claimed that the students learn more of teaching by this method than by continually taking a class. For, it is argued, they will, in spite of every precaution, make all kinds of mistakes, if allowed to try their prentice hands too frequently. By observing the best teachers at work and by trying to imitate them once a day, they will have just enough practical experience to discover the chief difficulties which, if they are earnest, they will be able in some measure to solve, with the help and advice of their mentors.

Against the system, it may be urged that the students never

Paris  
(Auteuil).—  
Continued.

really get training in continuous work with a class. Teaching is, in some respects, like swimming. It can only be learnt by practice. No amount of watching of others will give the alert eye, the quick intelligence to see the right moment for a certain question or for a particular method of attack. What looks simple when a practised hand is at work is a far different thing when we plunge into it ourselves. *En forgeant on devient forgeron.*

There is a large amount of truth in this view. And it cannot be allowed that, after work of the kind indicated above, the students are, in any sense of the word, complete teachers. Still there is a large amount of good in the system. Considering the age of the French training college student, and the fact that he has never been a pupil teacher, it seems folly to push him in front of a class and say, "*Débrouillez-vous!*"

But there is no need to choose between the two systems. Is it not possible to commence on the lines followed in the training college of Auteuil and to develop gradually the more general practice of giving the student entire charge of a class? In this way, at any rate, he would leave college with some hope of grappling successfully with the difficulties of continuous teaching.

Even with this modification, however, it can scarcely be said that the French training-college student's training is complete with his departure from the *école normale*. It may, of course, be replied that nobody's training is ever complete. But the word "complete" is not used here in its absolute sense. By it is meant the reaching of a sufficiently satisfactory standard to be able to take charge of an average class of forty to fifty children. There is a distinct gap between the work done in the Practising School of Auteuil and that required on leaving college. This should be bridged over in some way or other. One method would be to place the *stagiaires* in certain schools where special arrangements are made. One large class might be split into two and each division placed under the care of a young beginner. This should be in a fairly large school, the head master of which is relieved, at any rate partially, from regular class duty, so that he can give them special attention. The primary inspectors might be instructed to visit such schools more frequently than the others, and to give the *stagiaires* every possible help in the way of advice and criticism.

Although something of this kind might be done for our young English schoolmasters, the necessity is not so great as in France. For the English student is older and has usually had considerable experience as a pupil teacher before entering the training college. With us at the present time—and it is to be hoped that such will always be the case—the teaching practice of the training college is not merely a forming process, but to some extent, and with due reservations, a finishing one.

The practical work done at Auteuil corresponds to what is, or

should be, done in our pupil-teacher period. And if the same care had been exercised in making use of pupil teachers in the past, if those in charge of their school work had recognised to any large extent the responsibilities of their position, there would probably have been less ground to find fault with a system which, with all its failings, has probably produced the finest body of elementary teachers in the world.

It should be borne in mind that this work in the practising school of Auteuil only extends over a few weeks for each student. The average King's scholar in England on his entrance into college is a much more capable teacher than is the French student at the end of his training ; for the former has been spending half his days in the elementary school during the whole of three or four years.

The practising schools attached to the provincial training colleges of France are widely different from that of Auteuil. There are two kinds ; they may form part of the college, when they are called *écoles annexes* ; or they may be separate schools, when they are known as *écoles d'application*. The *écoles annexes* are under the direct supervision of the principal of the training college. The *écoles d'application* are independent schools.

Comparison of "Ecoles Annexes" and "Ecoles d'Application."

The advantages of the *école annexe* seem to be—

- (1) The school is easy of access for the students.
- (2) It can be thoroughly supervised by the principal.
- (3) The weekly criticism lessons do not cause any great disturbance. A class of boys can be transferred to a room in the college with little trouble.

The disadvantages are—

(1) The *école annexe* is very small. The official regulation with respect to its size reads : "The *école annexe* properly so called contains only one class. It can be organised with several classes by a special decision of the Minister of Public Instruction."

(2) The conditions are somewhat artificial. Not only are the classes usually small, but often the children are specially chosen. The idea that attendance at this school confers a distinction causes a competition for the places, and only the most respectable and intelligent children are selected. Further, the organisation of the school is specially modified to suit the students ; whereas in an ordinary institution it would be the duty of the students to make arrangements suitable to the school.

(3) The children of the *école annexe* see and learn too much of the students. Familiarity breeds contempt.

(4) The evils of experimenting on children by giving them novices as teachers are accentuated in a school where one or two classes receive a large number of students.

These disadvantages are serious ones. They were evidently considered as condemnatory by a certain rector, who wrote :—

“The suppression of the *écoles annexes* is at present under consideration. The central administration will decide in the near future whether it is advisable to continue these schools, which are usually in a poor condition and insufficiently supervised, and whether the pedagogical instruction would not be better secured in the largest schools of the town in which the best teachers of the department are to be found.”

It appears, further, that the advantages which have been mentioned are, on closer examination, very indifferent. The fact that the school is close at hand does not cause the students to enter it more frequently. The supervision by the principal of the training college is not very real; and the better the head master, the less need there is of any interference. There only remains the third point, which is hardly sufficient to constitute a strong argument in favour of this type of school, where ordinary primary schools are within easy reach.

It seems preferable, then, that the practice in teaching should be done in separate schools within easy reach of the college.

Fortunately for the professional training of the students, some of the *écoles annexes* do contain more than one class. But they are more or less unsatisfactory in other ways.

At Lyons there is a school of about fifty boys divided into three classes, but with only two masters (a head and his assistant). The school receives three students at a time. The lowest class contains about twenty pupils and the others rather less. Even granting that young teachers should not be burdened with too many boys, these classes are too small for good practice.

In striking contrast is the *école annexe* at Aix-en-Provence, where over eighty boys are divided into two classes, with only one master in charge. To add to the difficulties, one of the classes is a *cours complémentaire*,\* and contains boys as old as sixteen. The importance of this class and the age of the pupils render it impossible to leave a young student in charge of them for any length of time, and the master is compelled to devote most of his attention to this section. The remainder of the boys are heaped into one large class having several sub-divisions. The school receives two students at a time; and while the master is occupied with one of the students in the smaller advanced class, the other has to do his best with the heterogeneous and unwieldy crowd which remains. This task would present great difficulties to an experienced teacher. It is altogether too much for a young beginner.

Usually the student-teacher spends a week at a time in the practising school. He is required to prepare all the lessons for

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\* A *cours complémentaire* is a special class consisting of boys who have completed the ordinary work, and who remain for one or two years to continue their education. It corresponds roughly to an “Ex VII” with us.

the class of which he is in charge. He keeps a preparation book in which is entered his programme for each day, with the work to be done in each subject, and usually a few remarks on the general method of each lesson.\* In many parts of France this practice is continued by the teachers after leaving college; that is, they have not merely a syllabus of the work to be done during a given period with notes on a few special lessons and subjects, but a book in which every lesson is entered with its leading details. This is usually done for each day on the previous evening, though some latitude is often allowed, the notes for several days or even for a week being sometimes prepared in advance. The thoroughness and regularity of this work vary considerably from one part of France to another, and depend largely on the importance attached to it by the primary inspectors.

Preparation of Lessons for the Practising School.

The plan seems a very good one and ensures at least a few moments' preparatory thought being given to each lesson. Without something of this kind the teacher, even if fairly conscientious, is apt to trust to the inspiration of the moment. While a ready wit is an extremely valuable quality, it often fails when most required; and many a lesson falls flat or takes a wrong turn because the teacher himself hardly knows whither he is going. Discipline, which depends almost as much on intelligent and energetic teaching as on the power of control, frequently suffers through lack of preparation. Poor beginnings, awkward pauses, lack of illustration or inaptness of the same, wandering from the point, and the general indifference which the teacher himself is bound to show in a subject which is unprepared, all have a bad effect on the scholars, rendering them restless and inattentive. To all this must be added the fact that the teacher, being more or less preoccupied with what he is going to say and do, has less attention to give to the general discipline of the class. It is good, therefore, that young teachers should be early trained in careful reflection on the work of each day. The short summaries thus prepared are perhaps more valuable aids to the teaching than the full notes which are from time to time written out for special lessons. Indeed, a lesson may be too well prepared, and the teacher, having a definite pre-conceived plan firmly fixed in his mind, may stick so closely to it that he neglects those circumstances which should render necessary a departure from the original scheme.

In the practising school of Lyons there is in each class a large note book compiled by the head master in collaboration with the principal of the college, containing directions for the lessons and for the general conduct of the work in each subject.† Every week, too, in the

Note-Book of Directions for Students in Practising School at Lyons.

\* An "Example of Written Preparation of the Work in the Practising School of Lyons by the Students" is given in Appendix G.

† See Appendix D.—A page from the Book of "Practical Directions and General Plans of Lessons in each Subject" (kept in the Practising School of Lyons for the Guidance of Students).

college there is a lecture or causerie by the principal on practical pedagogy or school management.\*

Absence of  
Text-Books  
on School  
Method.

But one cannot fail to notice a lack of those books on school method, object lessons, and general practical teaching, which are so numerous in England. With all their limitations, and in spite of their tendency to relieve the teacher in some degree of the necessity of careful reflection, they are nevertheless extremely useful for young teachers, containing, as they do, the fruits of the ripe experience of many of our best teachers.

Their place is in part taken by a large number of weekly periodicals, which aspire to give all the necessary details of work for the various classes of the school. One of these papers is issued by almost every great educational publishing house. Among them may be mentioned *le Manuel Général, l'École Nouvelle, le Volume* and *le Journal des Instituteurs*. These papers, which contain much valuable information and advice, are unfortunately too liable to abuse. They do all the thinking and arranging for the lazy teacher who chooses to follow them implicitly. They are necessarily fragmentary. And it is by no means so easy to refer to the subject on which advice is wanted as it would be in a complete work well arranged and indexed. Further, the courses of lessons which they give cannot be the most suitable ones for any particular school. Perhaps no two schools have exactly the same educational needs.

Another reason why books on school method are not so much required in France as with us, is the multiplicity of text-books in the primary schools. The teaching in French elementary schools approximates perhaps more to that of inferior English secondary schools than to the best of our primary institutions. The *book* is the centre and support of the teaching. Grammar, history, civic instruction, morals, geography, arithmetic, all have their special text-books, even in the lower classes. In these books the work is planned out carefully and numerous exercises are added, so that the teacher need, if he chooses, do little more than follow the course indicated. All this favours lack of individuality and of initiative in teaching, and spells dulness and monotony for the scholars. The teacher can follow the instructions blindly, without any reflection on the principles involved and the methods employed. One is tempted to wish for the days when books were more expensive and councils less generous, when the teacher was forced to supplement the few books he had by his own ingenuity and enterprise.

At the end of each week in the practising school of Lyons, the student is required to write his impressions.† In these he is encouraged to make frank confessions. He has to state, for instance,

Account of  
Work in  
Practising  
School by  
Students  
(Lyons).

\* Appendix E. contains the Summary of a lesson on practical pedagogy given by the Principal of the Lyons Training College; Appendix F., an example of a pedagogical "causerie" given by the Principal of the Lyons Training College to all the students.

† See Appendices H. and L.—Plan and example of the account rendered by each student of his week's work in the practising school of Lyons.

in what he thinks he has been successful, and in what he is dissatisfied, giving as far as possible the causes which he imagines have brought about success or failure. As he keeps all these records in one book, they should form an interesting and profitable souvenir of his first attempts at teaching. They are examined by the head master of the practising school and the principal of the training college, the latter often adding annotations and giving advice on difficulties. Provided that there is a fair amount of sincerity in these accounts, they should furnish a valuable means of helping the student. Often a man will write on paper what he would scarcely like to say face to face. One student, for instance, avowed that after his first week in school, he was of the opinion that all the talk about method and procedure is little better than useless, and that the chief thing necessary is general intelligence and tact. Now he would hardly have dared to say this to the principal, who himself gives the lessons on method. Yet if he really believed it, as probably he did, it was necessary to show him his mistake.

At the end of the week also, the head master of the practising school writes a lengthy report on each student who has been at work in the school.\* This report, which is seen by the principal of the college and copied out by the student concerned, passes in review everything which concerns the conduct of the class (preparation lessons, choice and correction of exercises, discipline, etc.) and calls attention to what has been well done as well as to the weak points. To the latter the student is expected to pay special attention, so as to avoid them if possible on the occasion of the next periodical practice.

In most French training colleges, the student, while in the practising school, has to make a psychological study of some of his pupils. Thus at Lyons in the past the students of the first year had to study in the case of one of their pupils some special inclination, habit or faculty, in one word, a fragment of character.† These exercises have for their object to initiate the student in psychological observation by calling his attention at first to a field less vast and less complex than the whole character.

In the second and third years, the students had a special note book for psychological observations. These are arranged according to the following plan :—

Name of the pupil \_\_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_ Class \_\_\_\_\_

I. Body { The body and the ordinary state of health.  
Sense organs, particularly the eye and the ear.

II. Character (I) Heart { Temperament and predominant inclinations.  
Characteristic sentiments.  
Tastes.

\* An example of a report by the head master of the practising school of Lyons on the week's work of a student, is given in Appendix K.

† A study of the propensity to lying, made by a first year student in the Practising School of the Lyons Training College, is given in Appendix C., I.

Report on Students' Work by Head Master of Practising School (Lyons).

Psychological Observations made by Students in Practising School (Lyons).

- II. Character (*cont.*) - { (2) Will { Good points.  
Defects.  
(3) Conduct of the boy.  
(4) Estimation of his moral value.
- III. Intelligence - { (1) Characterise his attention and application.  
(2) Faculties the development of which is normal.  
Remarks.  
(3) Faculties insufficiently developed. Remarks.  
(4) Characteristic aptitudes.
- General appreciation - Concise judgment on the body, the character, and the intelligence.\*

This work is no doubt exceedingly useful in leading teachers to study their children. But it is doubtful whether such young students are capable of doing anything very satisfactory in this direction, especially as their experience of schools and scholars is so limited. In English training colleges, where the students are both older and more acquainted with children, the experiment might have better results. But, even with us, such work would be more useful, both for the individual teachers and for the advance of psychology in general, if maturer teachers could be induced to undertake it. Not only is it possible that child-psychology would receive important additions, but it is to be anticipated that the still more backward branch, crowd-psychology, would get the attention which it has up to the present failed in obtaining. In order that this work might produce valuable results, it would be necessary for inspectors to interest themselves keenly in the matter. They might then inspire the teachers with their enthusiasm, direct the observations, collect the results obtained, classify them, and, in collaboration with one another, and possibly with university professors, attempt the more difficult task of inference.

Supervision  
of Students  
in Practising  
School.

The teaching of the students in the practising school is on the whole carefully supervised. There is, however, far too much interrupting of them during their lessons by the head master. Their position as learners rather than teachers is made all too clear to their pupils. If a young teacher is allowed to take a class, he should be given as free a hand as possible. It may be necessary on certain occasions to interfere, especially if the young teacher is going quite wrong or if the class is getting out of hand. But in many cases, the students are openly treated like scholars, and it is extremely difficult for them to uphold their authority under these conditions. It is somewhat curious that those who are continually weakening their position in this way are for ever reminding them of the necessity of maintaining their dignity. This treatment of subordinates, however, is by no means peculiar to the practising schools. In the ordinary primary schools, the head teachers are very frequently guilty of it, and much animosity has been stirred up in different quarters as a result.

\* For an actual example of one of these exercises, see Appendix C, II.

## IV.—SPECIAL FOURTH YEAR.

In the Training College of Lyons, and in some others, there is now established a special fourth year. It consists of a few of the best students who show special ability and who are therefore encouraged to continue their studies in the hope of gaining admission to the Higher Training College of Saint Cloud. In some cases, the good students are kept on at the College for this additional year without any break. But at Lyons the Principal is in favour of sending them out at the end of the ordinary course for at least a year's practice in the primary schools: In this way they not only increase their experience as teachers, but have time to revise and complete their ordinary studies; and they return to the training college maturer, both as students and as men, and more fit to profit by the extra year.

In this fourth year a definite division is for the first time made in the students. We have the two groups, scientific and literary. At the examination for entrance to Saint Cloud, the candidates must choose between these two alternatives.

The students of this fourth year have still fewer lectures than those of the third, most of their work being private study. From time to time they give short lessons on the subjects they are studying to their juniors, being supervised by the respective masters, who freely criticise them. As a lesson of this kind forms part of their examination, this is an extremely useful form of preparation.

All this is very healthy. The young student sees before him the steps of the ladder up which he may climb, and has every inducement to apply himself. Further, the possibility of pushing on by means of this fourth year has had the effect of attracting candidates of a better class.

But only a few of these fourth-year students can be successful. In Lyons there are eight or nine in this year, and, as the numbers admitted to Saint Cloud are very limited, not more than two or three are likely to be successful.\* One cannot help asking, then, what will be the effect of failure upon the others. Are they not in danger of going out into the primary schools with a certain amount of discontent? Having aspired to something higher, they may lose interest in the ordinary work.

In almost all grades of education in France, there is this same over-production. At the numerous examinations for higher posts, many compete but few are successful. The importance which naturally attaches itself to the examination causes those who are successful to consider their work practically over when the ordeal has been passed. Thus the justification of an appointment precedes rather than follows it. A man is rarely removed from his post for incapacity. At the worst, he is transferred from one place to another.

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\* Last year (1904) only one was successful.

But perhaps the greater evil is in the case of the far more numerous unsuccessful candidates. They can, indeed, go in for the examination again ; but they cannot work out their salvation by other means. And it is to be feared that members of the mediocrity in French schools show less interest in their work than do those of the same class in England. With the exception of the few who continue to work for examinations leading to a higher class of teaching, the majority of French elementary teachers lose interest in their studies after their departure from the training college. A further reason for this, perhaps, is the reaction which undoubtedly occurs from the over-pressure which exists in most French training colleges. Although complaints are always being made about the lack of self-culture on the part of English elementary teachers, they, nevertheless, pursue some kind of study, especially in the large towns, more frequently than their French colleagues. And this is in some degree due to the importance which many education committees attach to post-collegiate work, when considering cases of promotion.

#### CONCLUSION.

Enough has been said to demonstrate that the French training colleges are highly efficient institutions, doing a great and lasting work. If the hours of study are too long, so that the purely intellectual side of the training monopolises an inordinate share of the time, and places the question of the formation of character in a position of secondary importance, if sports and physical recreation are neglected and the corporate life of the students lacking in intensity and fulness, if the professional preparation is insufficient and often artificial, so that the out-going men are far from being capable teachers, one cannot help, nevertheless, rendering homage to the splendid organisation of these colleges, to the excellent discipline which prevails, to the thoroughness of the teaching, to the keen interest which almost every master displays in his work, and to the earnest endeavour which is made to send out young people who shall be bright sparks in the gloom of ignorance and superstition which still exists.

It has already been affirmed that the French teachers deteriorate in their aims and in their love of study after some years out of college. The fault is not so much that of the college as of the depressing conditions under which they work. It is possible to train a body of men up to a high pitch of efficiency ; but, if the treatment they receive, more especially the salary they are paid, be not commensurate with the service they render, they are sure to find it out in the long run, by comparison of themselves with their neighbours and friends, and their consequent indifference and discontent will go far to destroy the effects of their careful education. In one sense, then, the training of the French teachers may be said to be too good. For it is questionable policy to take

great pains in educating a set of men, if the remuneration which will be offered them is too small to encourage them in their labours.

It has been said that the nation which has the best schools is, or will be in the near future, the greatest. If there is any truth in this, and if it is to be taken to heart, the best course, perhaps, is to commence by improving the conditions of the fully qualified teachers. Although by ingenious devices it is possible to get more than is paid for in a few particular cases, in the long run little more than money's worth is obtained. Of course it is not maintained that mere increase in salary will raise the quality of the work. It is easy to spoil men by too indulgent treatment. And, even if the conditions were improved, great care would have to be taken to ensure better work. The point, however, which needs emphasis here, is that the endeavour to inspire noble thoughts and self-sacrificing lives is likely to be futile unless the material circumstances of the body of men in question are fairly easy. M. Edouard Petit, one of the chief inspectors in France, has written and spoken a great deal during the last few years on the noble work which the elementary teachers may do, of the sacrifices they may make, and of the great developments of which the school of the future is capable. He apparently dreams of the salvation of France being effected by means of her schools, and suggests all kinds of extraneous duties for the teachers. Instead, however, of creating a good effect, his efforts have probably achieved the reverse; and many teachers are full of bitter irony at his expense.

Considerations like these may be thought somewhat mercenary, especially in dealing with such an ennobling subject as education. But it must be borne in mind, that, although there exist a few disinterested persons who may be exploited by their fellows, and who render far more than they receive, the majority, in the teaching profession as elsewhere, require to be paid for their efforts, and, unless they are treated generously, will not respond with full-hearted endeavour.

B. DUMVILLE.

## APPENDIX A.

### THE GENERAL OUTLINES OF THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH SYSTEMS OF TRAINING COMPARED.

Perhaps the following tables will make clear the broad differences between the English and French systems. For England the London system is taken as a type. In each case the lowest limits of age and time are given; considerable variation from these will be found in England; far less in France.

ENGLAND.				Year of Age.	FRANCE.			
Chief Examinations.	Status.	Instruction.	Teaching Experience.		Chief Examinations.	Status.	Instruction.	Teaching Experience.
P. T. entrance exam. or an equivalent. } Government P.T. exam. or an equivalent. }	Scholar in—	{ Elementary, higher grade or secondary school.	—	12th	Certificat d'études primaires. } Entrance exam. to école primaire supérieure. }	Scholar in—	Elementary School.	—
				13th				
{ King's Scholarship Exam. or an equivalent. }	{ Superior teacher. } Junior Probationer. } Senior Probationer. } First year. } Second Year. }	Whole time at P.T. Centre (less 1 month).	1 month on probation.	14th	Brevet élémentaire and entrance exam. to training college. }	Scholar in—	{ Ecole primaire supérieure. }	—
				15th				
		Half time at P.T. Centre.	Half time in Elementary School.	16th		Student in—	Training College.	{ About 2 months in Practising School. }
				17th				
Certificate Examination. }	Student in—	Training College.	6 weeks in Practising School.	18th	Brevet supérieur.	Stagiaire (Certificated Teacher on probation)	—	More or less independent work in Elementary School.
				19th				
Inspection by H.M.I. }	Certificated Teacher on probation.	—	More or less independent work in Elementary School (whole time).	20th	Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique. }	Titulaire (fully qualified Teacher).		
				21st				
Fully qualified Teacher.				22nd				
				23rd				

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The French Training College System.

A part of the above scheme has recently been changed as follows :—

ENGLAND.				Year of Age.	FRANCE.			
Chief Examinations.	Status.	Instruction.	Teaching Experience.		Chief Examinations.	Status.	Instruction.	Teaching Experience.
Exam. for P. T. Scholarship.	Scholarship Holder in view of becoming P. T.	First Year.	Whole time in Secondary School	—	Brevet élémentaire and entrance exam. to training college.	Scholar in—	Ecole primaire supérieure (as above.)	—
		Second Year.	or P. T. Centre.	—				—
Government P. T. Exam.	Pupil Teacher.	First Year.	About half time in P. T. Centre.	At least 100 attendances in Elementary School.	Brevet supérieur at end of second year.	Student in—	Training College.	—
		Second Year.	—	—				About 9 months during third year in Practising School.
King's Scholarship Exam. or an equivalent.	—	—	—	—	Examen de fin d'études normales.	—	—	—

One cannot help being struck with the longer preparation in England. The end of our pupil-teacher period corresponds in age with that of the training college course in France. And in view of the difficulty in obtaining teachers, the question naturally arises—Cannot something be done to shorten the time in England?

If the efficiency of the teachers in the upper and middle classes of elementary schools is to be maintained, it would seem dangerous to risk any experiment in this direction. But the same standard of intellectual culture is perhaps hardly necessary for teachers in infant schools and in the lower classes of the ordinary elementary schools. While it would be wrong to allow persons of poor education to undertake this work, and while a sound pedagogical training is necessary, it may be admitted by some that with little children tact, gentleness, sympathy, and firmness of control, are greater factors in success than more purely intellectual attainments. Many a young woman at the age of eighteen or nineteen possesses these qualities to a sufficient extent to render her, with the knowledge she has already acquired, almost as capable of dealing with little children as she will be after a further period of two years in the training college.

The ex-pupil teacher has indeed been recognised in the past. But at a very low salary. One solution of the present difficulty would be to elevate this class of teachers to a better position and to consider it as a final condition for those who cared to remain in it. Women teachers would then be in two grades—those qualified for infants and the lower standards, and those qualified for all classes.

Although the ex-pupil teacher at the age of eighteen is not so fully qualified on the purely intellectual side as the out-going French training-college student of the same age, he or she, especially if a First Class has been obtained at the King's Scholarship Examination, is considerably superior to the average successful candidate for the *brevet élémentaire* in France. This latter certificate, completed by the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* is the minimum qualification for a fully certificated French teacher. And if the female ex-pupil-teacher in England were merely required to complete her qualification in a similar manner, as, for instance, by sitting for the strictly pedagogical part of the Certificate Examination, an effective way would be found of augmenting the number of teachers without the expense of a full training-college course.

## APPENDIX B.

### TRANSPOSITION OF THE COLLEGE LESSONS FOR THE PRACTISING SCHOOL (LYONS).

[These exercises have as their object to call the attention of the students to the means of deriving from the "College" lesson the corresponding lesson which is suitable to the needs of the Practising School.<sup>1</sup>

#### I.

#### EXAMPLE TAKEN FROM MORAL INSTRUCTION.

#### MORAL RESPONSIBILITY.

#### (i.) *Lesson given in the Training College.*

#### Summary;

##### A. Definition.

Different kinds of responsibility: *moral* responsibility and *legal* responsibility.

The *intention* (vague intention and definite intention) and the *act*.

##### B. Conditions of moral responsibility.

(a) *Existence* of a law and *knowledge* of that law.

(b) *Liberty* to act or to abstain (*clear understanding* of the act; *discernment* of its consequences).

C. Degrees of responsibility (some examples: unconscious acts, constraint, habit, passion).

*Direct and indirect responsibility.*

D. Merit and demerit: their relations to responsibility. *Virtue and vice,*

E. Pedagogical applications: means of inspiring in children a strong feeling of moral responsibility: Accustom the child to reflect, to render account to himself of his actions, to see clearly the necessary connection which exists between the accomplished act and its natural consequences:

(a) Means suitable for the lower classes.

(b) Means suitable for the higher classes.

F. Exercises of Application: Plan of a lesson *in the Practising School* (to an upper class).

(ii.) *Adaptation to the Practising School.*

*Directions.*—*The essential idea to put in relief is this: We are responsible for our free actions.* The means of firmly fixing this idea in the minds of the children is by making it spring from examples which strike the imagination. Choose preferably as examples tales in which the actors are children.

*Summary.*

- A. Get the children to find a few examples of acts which are not free. (A child who is ill strikes his mother or the doctor in a moment of delirium. He does not know what he is doing, he did not will it, he is not responsible, he does not deserve to be blamed. Another child has been prevented from doing his home lessons because his father was very ill and he himself has been given other things to do. Does he deserve to be punished? If really he has not had the opportunity of doing his work, he is not responsible, he does not deserve to be punished.) We are not responsible for what we do without willing it.
- B. (1) Example of a meritorious act accomplished voluntarily. . . .  
A young boy protects his little sister against a fierce dog. . . .  
The danger removed, the boy faints; he has therefore had a clear understanding of the danger. . . . He might have run away; he will do the right thing and exposed himself to the danger. . . . He deserves our praise.
- (2) Example of a bad act accomplished voluntarily. . . . .
- C. We are only responsible for the good and the evil which we have done of our own free will. A person who is in possession of his reason ought always to will the good and avoid evil. Resolution: I determine to do the good and to flee evil.
- D. Reading to be commented upon at the end of the lesson: "Le marchand de marrons."

II.

EXAMPLE TAKEN FROM HISTORY

THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE BARBARIANS AND THE EDUCATING INFLUENCE OF CIVILISATION.

(i.) *Lesson given in the Training College.*

*Summary:*

- I. General character of these manners and customs: show it by reading selections and have it brought out by analysis: it is *the brutality of violence.*
- II. Psychological study of this temperament: the *two antagonistic mechanisms* of the mind:
- A. *The impulsive mechanism (feeling).* It is *natural, organic, and predominates* with the Barbarian.

B. The *inhibiting* mechanism (will). It is the product of *education or of civilisation*, and is *very feeble* in the Barbarian.

III. Career of this temperament :

A. It characterises primitive civilisations, like primitive natures (Barbarian, savage, child).

B. Who has been the teacher of the Barbarians ?

(1) The memories of the Roman world. Principle of their action : *imitation*. They acted successively—

(a) On what was *exterior to the individual* (costume and adornment, habitation, furniture).

(b) On his *actions and gestures* (example—the ceremonial of the court).

(c) On his *feelings and thoughts* (example—the schools of Charlemagne).

(2) Above all *the Church*. Principle of its action ; the *religious sentiment*, a very powerful restraining influence. Its action was pre-eminently moral (examples—right of asylum, etc.).

IV. Conclusion : the educating influence of civilisation.

(ii.) *Adaptation to the Practising School.*

*Directions :*

I. The object of this lesson is not so much to teach the manners and customs of the Barbarians as to *compare these with our present manners and customs*, in order to draw at least two important conclusions :

A. The manners and customs in France *have changed* from the times of the Barbarians to our own, and they have changed in a *very definite direction* : from violence to *self-control*.

B. Consequently violence, the want of self-control, is a *sign of inferiority*, and each of us should strive to perfect himself in the direction of a still greater mastery of self.

II. It is necessary, then, above all to make prominent in this lesson two orders of facts, *two observations* which should always be presented together :

A. The *violent and brutal* character of the Barbarian manners and customs.

B. In opposition, the *disciplined* character of our present manners and customs.

*Summary :*

I. The manners and customs of the Barbarians : readings and pictures, character of *brutality and violence*.

II. Our present manners and customs, compared with those of the Barbarians.

A. Go back to the facts already commented upon ; are they customary in our time ?

No : our *self-control*.

B. When such things happen in our days, what does society do ? *She does not take her revenge*, she interferes under the form of *justice*.

C. When we have to complain of someone, *do we avenge ourselves* like the Barbarians ? No, we appeal to the *courts of law*. Our *self-control*, our mastery of ourselves, manifests itself in our society by the existence of an organised system of *justice*.

III. Conclusion : Lesson which is taught by this study :—Civilisation, like education, shows us man transforming himself in the direction of greater self-control ; that is, therefore, the direction of progress, and each of us ought to strive to perfect himself in this direction.

## III.

EXAMPLE TAKEN FROM NATURAL SCIENCE.  
THE SEED AND GERMINATION.(i.) *Lesson given in the Training College.**Summary :*

## I. The Seed.

- (1) Its origin—its relations with the fruit and the ovule.
- (2) Its parts : teguments and embryo.
- (3) The teguments : their appendices—hairs, egrets, seed-coats.  
Ex. dandelion, cotton.
- (4) The embryo {
 

formed of :	radicle, plumule, cotyledons—monocotyledons and dicotyledons.
seeds without albumen (bean), with albumen (wheat, rice).	
Nature of the reserves contained in the cotyledons and the albumen (starch, oil, etc.).	
- (5) Dissemination of the seeds, role of the teguments, of the wind, of animals, etc.

## II. Germination.

## General idea of germination.

- (1) Its conditions {
 

relative to the seed : maturity, integrity	}	experiments to prove.
relative to the surroundings : oxygen—water—heat.		
- (2) Morphological phenomena of germination : absorption of water, opening of the teguments, projection of the radicle, of the plumule, appearance of the absorbing hairs and of chlorophyll.
- (3) Physiological phenomena of germination : respiration, giving off of heat, digestion and assimilation of the reserves.
- (4) Germination is finished when the plant can obtain from its surroundings (air and soil) the aliments necessary for its nutrition.

(ii.) *Adaptation to the Practising School.*

- I. The seed. Give to each pupil a bean seed, make him open it and observe the various parts. Examine in the same way a seed of corn.

Make clear the existence of the *embryo* and of the *reserves*.

Sum up the observations made and dictate them to the pupils.

- II. Germination. (The experiments will be prepared six or eight days in advance. Show to the pupils some seeds germinating in moist sand (bean, corn).

Further experiments and observations to show	{	<p>that beans do not germinate in dry air (deprivation of water) ;</p> <p>that beans do not germinate in water (deprivation of air) ;</p> <p>that beans do not germinate except with a certain heat.</p>
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Conclude the necessity of oxygen, of water, of heat.

Examination of a seed in germination.

Cause the pupils to notice the transformations which the embryo has suffered and the exhaustion of the reserves.

Application in agriculture : choice of seeds, preparation of the soil.

Sum up the observations made and dictate them to the pupils.

*Pedagogical Note.*—Always put, when it is possible, the object or the phenomenon to be observed under the eyes of the pupils. Suppress words which are too technical or learned.

## APPENDIX C.

## APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY.

## (TRAINING COLLEGE OF LYONS.)

## I.—OBSERVATION OF A PSYCHICAL PHENOMENON.

(Made by a Student of the First Year in the Practising School)

## STUDY OF THE PROPENSITY TO LYING.

In the case of M—, aged 9 years, a pupil of the Lyons Practising School (Middle Class).

I. *Facts Observed* :—

- (a) In class : I catch him in the act of lying. Some time afterwards I ask him whether he ever tells lies. He replies that he has never told a lie.
- (b) During recreation : In the game of prisoners' base, he always denies having been caught even in face of partial evidence. He persists in denying until he is threatened with expulsion from the game.

II. *Probable Causes of his Lying* :—

- (a) Interior and personal causes : He lies :—
  - (1) For the sake of his own interest. His lying is always profitable to himself. He lies to escape a punishment, a task, or a reprimand.
  - (2) For the sake of vanity : He is very proud. He lies to avoid what might injure this pride.
  - (3) How I discovered these causes :—
    - A. I have often heard him lie : his lies always had one of the above causes.
    - B. My comrades have told me some of his lies. They always had personal interest or vanity as cause.
- (b) External causes :—
  - (1) Comrades : The public opinion of the scholars is favourable to lying or at least does not disapprove of it too much.
  - (2) Parents : This boy must have been brought up with severity. Excessive strictness excites to lying.
  - (3) How I discovered these causes :—
    - A. Comrades : By living in the midst of the scholars.
    - B. Parents : I have inferred it from the great trouble in which he is when his parents get to know of a school punishment.

III. *His own Opinion* :—

- (a) On lying in general :—
  - (1) Considers it as very ugly. This is a factitious opinion which the lessons on morality have probably suggested to him.
  - (2) His opinion is favourable to it, perhaps without his knowing it. I have discovered this by observing him while a school-fellow was lying. There was no reprobation on his part, and I saw an admiring glitter in his eyes.
- (b) On his own lies :—
  - (1) Does not approve of them when he is forced to think of them unconsciously.
  - (2) He considers them fair means of warfare to satisfy his pride or to act according to his own interest.

**II.—A COMPLETE STUDY OF CHARACTER.**  
(Extracted from a Student's Note-Book of Observations in the Practising School.)

Name and Surnames: A—B— Age: 10 years: (Middle Class.)	Observations.	Treatment.	Results Obtained.
I. Body { (1) Temperament ordinary state of health. (2) Senses organs: eye, ear, touch (manual dexterity).	Rather puny in appearance; but health usually good.  Normally developed. Succeeds poorly in certain games of skill (marbles); writes badly.	Prefers quiet games; should be incited to join in active ones.  I purposely stopped to watch him playing; he tried very hard, but did not succeed any the better. The same may be said of his writing.	He plays when the teacher plays, perhaps to please the latter.  His copy-books are neat; little improvement in writing.
II. Intelligence. { (1) Characterise his attention. (2) Faculties whose development is normal. Remarks. (3) Faculties insufficiently developed. Remarks. (4) Appreciation of intellectual value Good qualities and defects in his intelligence. (5) Characteristic aptitudes.	Intermittent like his will; fairly attentive to written work, because he is anxious to do well; but less so when a lesson is being given; he replies too quickly. Fairly good equilibrium of the intellectual faculties. Memory and imagination a little more developed. Replies very well in revision lessons. Judgment leaves something to be desired. A—sometimes takes the suggestions of his imagination for reality.  Intelligence fairly acute. Will perhaps be rather brilliant. Will become stable with great difficulty.	I praised the pupils who think before replying. He understood that the want of thought causes one to say foolish things. Moral and historical tales delight him very much.  I have frequently put to him questions requiring an effort of judgment.	At the end of the week, A—no longer replied too quickly.  Was completely mistaken in his moral estimation of the grasshopper and the ant. After having understood he seemed very sorry for having been unjust to the poor grasshopper.
III. Character. { (1) Nature and dominant inclinations. (2) Feelings and characteristic tastes. (1) Good qualities . . . . (2) Defects . . . .	Hardly any appear yet. Says he wants to be a teacher. Sensitive and well-disposed; shows himself in all circumstances gentle and affectionate towards his masters and his comrades. Dislikes being kept in, principally because it deprives him of the pleasure of playing with his little sister. Manifests discreetly a certain amount of pride, but tries to restrain it for fear of offending his comrades—Likes to be well dressed—is methodical, copy books neat, though writing bad. Difficult to find any good qualities. Makes resolutions with facility, but does not keep them. Acts rather under the influence of his feelings than on account of his volition. The will of A—B—is rather characterised by <i>feebleness</i> and <i>intermittence</i> .	No treatment to be undertaken; it is sufficient to let him go on.  Appeared to regret not having applied himself better to his writing. Promised again to try, but did not keep his promise. Would like to, however.	Poor.
IV. General Appraisal. { Conduct of the pupil (effects of rewards and punishments.) General appreciation of his moral value. (1) Body . . . . . (2) Intelligence . . . . . (3) Character . . . . .	Good in general. Is not able to restrain himself sufficiently from talking. (Why does he take so great a delight in talking? Could it be by sympathy? . . .) Of a sensitive and sympathetic temperament, has little energy. All his natural dispositions are good.  Lack of vigour.  Fairly wide; ought to undergo a thorough discipline in the matter of judgment. Gentle and affectionate, but wanting in energy.	I asked him to put a stop to his chattering to please me.	He made some effort, and obtained some result.

## III.—A PUPIL'S PORTRAIT.

(Made by a Student in the Practising School.)

Portrait of the young pupil, A— B—, aged 10 years, a scholar of the Middle Class of the Practising School attached to the Training College of Lyons, made according to the indications of the preceding table.

The character of A— B— appears in its different manifestations to have a marked unity. What defines it is that which might be called *mental friability and inconsistency*.

I. *The Body and External Manifestations.*—A— B— enjoys health which is ordinarily rather good, but a little precarious. In appearance he is puny and wanting in vigour: he is what is usually described as a delicate child. This shows itself at once in his gestures, which are wanting in that fine decisiveness possessed by strong natures. He has little success in games of skill, even in minor ones (like marbles); the movements of writing do not reach in his case, even when he applies himself, that degree of precision and of certainty which is generally found in habitual movements: he writes badly. In one word, his actions are undecided and clumsy. He is therefore little inclined to action; he is quiet and rarely plays except at gentle games; the indecision of his gestures brings in its train a certain amount of timidity.

II. *Intelligence.*—The same characteristic traits are to be found in the manifestations of his intelligence. He presents a fairly well-balanced combination of moderate faculties, with a tendency, however, to the predominance of an unstable imagination. Attention is feeble, intermittent, difficult to fix and retain. Judgment is fairly rapid, but hazarded, badly elaborated, often incorrect, nearly always insufficiently supported by facts and vacillating at the first objection. In one word, the intellectual elements are, as it were, disjointed and scattered, and when they do unite, it is superficially, and owing to the accidental meetings which are brought about by an imagination which is always somewhat wandering; the intellectual mechanism of synthesis is wanting in discipline and consequently its work is lacking in cohesion.

III. *Character.*—The manifestations of character, which are fundamental in the individual, confirm the preceding observations. Like the attention, which is indeed only a form of it, the will is feeble and uncertain. A— B— has all the good and sincere intentions of weak individuals, but, like them, he is beaten at the first obstacle, and does not carry his resolutions into effect; his resolutions are as much wanting in cohesion and solidity as are his judgments. The reason is that they have their roots in an emotional soil where they find nothing which can strengthen them. A— B— is sensitive, that is to say, offers little resistance to exterior influences; affectionate, like all those who have need of affection and of protection, and whom life has not yet embittered; and gentle, like feeble individuals who feel confusedly the need of being kindly treated. He manifests, it is true, though discreetly, a little pride, but attached to things which are exterior to himself (the middle class position of his father, his clothes, etc.); this is his way of redeeming in his own eyes, and in the eyes of others, his inferiority, his particular "infirmity," of the reality of which he gives in this very way a new proof.

*To sum up,* A— B— is fairly well characterised by what we have called *mental friability and inconsistency*, understanding by this that the elements of his mentality, being without strong affinities for one another, only constitute, when they unite, syntheses without solidity and without resistance, ready to be dislocated at the first shock: motor groups ever hesitating, imagination dissociating, attention unstable, judgments fragile, will uncertain, emotional foundation inconsistent. He forms a whole which it is necessary

to strengthen and consolidate, at the bottom and at the top, by a bodily "cure" and a mental "cure," carried on together: the temperament must be braced and, on the other hand, while the imagination is subdued, endeavour must be made to render the attention more stable, voluntary resolutions more durable, judgments less hasty and more resisting.

IV.—PLAN OF A LESSON TO THE STUDENTS OF THE FIRST YEAR, GIVEN BY THE PRINCIPAL OF THE TRAINING COLLEGE.

*Memory.*

*Summary* (dictated to the students at the beginning of the lesson):

I. *Definition of Memory*: Aptitude to conserve, to reproduce, to localise.

Distinguish memory, reminiscence, forgetting.

Different forms of memory: auditory, visual, vocal, graphic.

II. *Importance of Memory*:

(a) From the point of view of perception.

(b) From the point of view of elaboration.

III. *Good and Bad Qualities of Memory*:

(a) Good: easy, faithful, prompt.

(b) Bad: slow, fugitive, rebellious.

IV. *Conditions of Memory*:

(a) Physiological: health (alcohol, tobacco); influence of surroundings.

(b) Psychological: (1) vivacity of the impression; (2) effort; (3) association of ideas; (4) repetition.

V. *Pedagogical Applications*:

(a) Importance of memory in school.

(b) Culture of the memory:

(1) Means of dealing with individuals.

(2) General means or collective application.

(c) Pedagogical advice for the teacher.

\* \* \* \* \*

(Here follows the lesson, during which the students are supposed to take their own notes.)

V.—*Pedagogical Applications*: (This is considered so important that the notes are once more dictated.)

(a) Importance of memory in school: It is a means, not an end. Therefore, make the children *understand* first, then make them *learn*.

(b) Culture of the memory:

(1) Means of dealing with individuals: Find out the form of memory which predominates in each of the pupils and make use of it to develop the other forms. . . .

Different kinds of advice for different children: this one ought to read his lesson aloud (auditory); that one ought to make written summaries (graphic); another should make them with synoptic division (visual).

(2) Collective means:

(a) Vary procedure in such a way as to call into exercise *all the forms of memory*. The teacher pronounces distinctly (auditory memory); he requires repetition (of the name or the rule to be learned) by all the pupils collectively (vocal memory); he writes on the black-board, and the pupils write at the same time on their slates (graphic and visual memory).

- ( $\beta$ ) Accustom the pupils to be habitually attentive and to associate their ideas logically.
- ( $\gamma$ ) Show that memory is developed by exercise, like a muscle, and submit it to a sort of training by means of methodical and graduated exercises.
- (c) Pedagogical advice for the teacher: From the laws of memory it results that the teacher's lesson should be:
  - (1) Interesting: stimulating intellectual pleasure (novelty in the form of the lesson, interest awakened by narration of tales, affecting tone and manner of master, etc.), so as to excite attention (1st and 2nd laws).
  - (2) Given according to a very methodical plan of which all the parts are naturally connected (3rd law).
  - (3) Often recalled to the mind: questions, recapitulations, and periodical revisions (4th law).

## APPENDIX D.

A PAGE FROM THE BOOK OF "PRACTICAL DIRECTIONS AND GENERAL PLANS OF LESSONS IN EACH SUBJECT." KEPT IN THE PRACTISING SCHOOL OF LYONS FOR THE GUIDANCE OF THE STUDENTS.

*Plan of a Lesson on "Reading with Explanations."*

- (1) Reading of the text chosen by the teacher in order to give a general idea of it.
- (2) Explanation of the sense by the pupils:
  - (a) Meanings of words—synonyms—opposites.
  - (b) Meanings of expressions and of sentences.
  - (c) General meaning of the piece, its purpose.
  - (d) Plan of the piece—its different parts.
- (3) Study and commentary of the ideas contained in this piece.
- (4) Oral account of the whole by the pupils.
- (5) Remarks on the style (construction—modes of expression).
- (6) Expressive reading by the pupils.

*Study and Commentary of the Ideas* (Directions relative to (3) of the Plan).

After the study of the meaning, the ideas are examined successively, commented upon, and judged.

- (a) *The facts and opinions* should be examined from the point of view of truth, for it is impossible to reason about ideas the truth of which is not well established or demonstrated. The questions will be directed in the following manner:
  - Is what has just been read true? Is it false? Why?
  - Is it sincere or deceitful? By what do you recognise this?
  - Is it exact or erroneous? On what do you found your opinion?
- (b) *The actions of men* will be judged from the point of view of justice and social duty, according to questions like the following:
  - Is it just or unjust? Why?
  - Is this action good or bad? Should we imitate it?
  - What ought we to think of him who is the author of it?
- (c) *Nature and Art* will be appreciated from the point of view of the beautiful, and of the impressions felt.
  - Is it beautiful or ugly? Why do you find it so?
  - Is it pleasing or displeasing? What causes you to have this impression?
  - Do you like that? Do you dislike that? For what reasons?

## APPENDIX E.

## SUMMARY OF A LESSON ON PRACTICAL PEDAGOGY.

(Given by the Principal of the Lyons Training College.)

## THIRD YEAR.

## THE PREPARATION OF LESSONS.

I. *What is to be understood by preparation of lessons :*

In a general way it includes all that contributes to render the teaching methodical, efficacious, attractive, all that concerns the choice of the lesson and the manner of presenting it. We distinguish :

- (a) **Material preparation :** Prepare beforehand, and place within easy reach, all the objects necessary to the lesson : reading books, note-books or copy-books, pencils, maps, specimens for object lessons, experiments to be performed, etc.
- (b) **Written preparation :** The keeping of a note-book, in which are written all the particulars of lessons and exercises (summaries of lessons to be given, oral or written exercises to be set, indication of home-work with plan and explanations to be given to the pupils, numbers of problems and pages in text-book, etc., etc.).

*Observation : Special note-books.* A special note-book is kept for the preparation of the lessons in each subject. *Advantages :* From the end of the first year these note-books form a complete course of studies which is the work of the teacher. By means of the blank pages left between each lesson and the next, it is possible to modify the original plan, to complete it, to add new examples. It is, in short, a frame-work always ready to receive new additions which the teacher finds in the course of his experience and in his reading.

II. *What is to be written in the general note-book and in the special preparation books :*

The teacher should write *everything* which is useful for the clear and precise exposition of the lesson, but only what is useful. Examples : What must be written as preparation for a lesson in history, in reading, in drawing . . . ?

III. *How to prepare a lesson :*

(Think over each of the following points and then write.)

- (1) Choice of the subject of the lesson. Choice of a subject which is simply and clearly limited.
- (2) How to present the lesson :
  - (a) Establish a plan in which the ideas are well classified and follow on one from another.
  - (b) Think of the means of connecting the new lesson to the preceding one, of making the lesson *varied* and *interesting* ; find a means of " baiting " the lesson—pictures, engravings, concrete objects.
- (3) Preparation of questions to be put. (Questions of control, and at the same time questions of recapitulation.)

IV. *Choice and preparation of exercises :*

A good exercise should be :

- (a) An immediate application of the lesson.
- (b) Appropriate to the powers of the pupils.
- (c) Interesting and novel.
- (d) Such as to require a new effort on the part of the pupils.

V. *Advantages of good preparation :*

- (1) For the teacher :
  - (a) More assurance in his exposition.
  - (b) Better teaching (lessons more methodical, more interesting, more efficacious ; exercises better suited to the pupils).
  - (c) No loss of time, no enervation ; better discipline.
  - (d) Teacher more attached to his work, which has become easier and more agreeable.
- (2) For the pupils :
  - (a) Work easier and more attractive ; lessons better known, exercises better done.
  - (b) Diminution of punishments (everything is done in order, without unforeseen circumstances, without opportunities for wandering and inattention).
  - (c) Pupils attached to the school and to the teacher ; better attendance.

VI. *Conclusion :*

The preparation of lessons is the condition of the good conduct of the school work. The best teachers prepare their lessons with the greatest care. [The others excuse themselves by saying : " I know ten times more than is necessary to teach children." Above all, in this case, it is important to *choose* what is to be taught and to seek *how* it is to be taught.] Therefore the preparation recommended in the regulations (Circular of 14th October, 1881) should be considered by teachers as morally obligatory.

## APPENDIX F.

## EXAMPLE OF A PEDAGOGICAL " CAUSERIE."

(Given by the Principal of the Lyons Training College to all the Students.)

## THE TEACHING OF MORALS.

*Summary.*

For details respecting (1) the *object and character* of this teaching, (2) the *general method* to be followed, see the instructions which precede the Official Syllabus and "*Aux Instituteurs et aux Institutrices*" by J. Payot, Chap. VIII. We shall only deal here with what concerns : (1) the *preparation* of the moral lesson ; (2) its *form* ; (3) the means to be employed in school to lead the children to *practise* the good.

I. *Preparation of the Moral Lesson :*

A. Antecedent preparation—personal reading, notes, the collection of maxims and examples as they are met with, reflections.

## B. Immediate preparation :

- (1) Meditation on the subject of the lesson (on the *limits*, on the *principal idea*, on the *sentiment* which one wishes to touch, on the *resolution* which one wishes to lead the children to make).
- (2) Search for the best means suitable :
  - (a) to cause the children to understand *the idea* (tales, readings, questions, etc.).
  - (b) to excite *the emotion* (touching incidents, affecting manner of speech, personal experiences).
  - (c) to fortify the child's *resolution*.
- (3) Written preparation in the teacher's note-book ; prepare especially the summary which will be written on the black-board.

II. *Form of the Lesson :*

A. In a lower class :

- (1) Reference to the preceding lesson. What have you done to put it into practice ? (2) Story or reading on the lesson of the day. (3) Questions and comments. (4) Oral summary and resolutions : " I will . . . . . " (5) Written summary copied by the pupils.

B. In an upper class :

- (1) Questions on the preceding lesson and on the putting of it into practice. (2) Questions and comments on the lesson of the day. (3) Story or reading. (4) Oral summary and resolutions : " I will . . . . . " (5) Written summary copied by the pupils.

C. Lesson common to upper and lower classes (in a school *with only one teacher*) :

- (1) Questions on the preceding lesson. (2) Story or reading on the lesson of the day. (3) Very simple questions. Then pupils of lower class copy their summary and the lesson continues with the upper class. (4) More difficult questions with the upper class. (5) Deeper and more searching comments. (6) Oral summary and resolutions. (7) Written summary copied by the pupils.

III. *Some means suitable to lead the pupils to the practice of the good :*

A. Necessity of this putting into practice ; it is *the sole object* of the moral lesson. Thus a moral lesson which has not produced practical results must be considered as having had no effect ; it is necessary in that case to give it again, trying to be more convincing, more persuasive, and to inspire stronger resolutions.

B. Indication of some means to be employed in school in order to attain this object :

- (1) The daily precept should remain written on the blackboard and each one should try to apply it.
- (2) An idea for the week, a general idea of the week's lessons, which each one should try to realise.
- (3) Practice. Facilitate for the children the putting into practice of the precepts indicated, by pointing out to them opportunities (of charity, for instance), by associating them in some collective piece of good work, etc.
- (4) Honour Board of good actions.
- (5) Speak of children who are poor, ill-treated, abandoned ; point out some, and get the pupils to help them.
- (6) The first of all means is the example of the teacher.

APPENDIX G.

EXAMPLE OF WRITTEN PREPARATION OF THE WORK IN THE PRACTISING SCHOOL OF LYONS BY THE STUDENTS.

Wednesday, 11th February, 1903.

*Morning.*

*Moral Instruction* (from 8 to 8½) :

- I. Questions on the preceding lesson : The Duties of Charity.
- II. New Lesson : Kindness—benevolence—indulgence—beneficence.
  - (a) Define these words and give examples.
  - (b) Connect this lesson with the preceding one by showing to the children that these words only represent various forms of charity.

(c) These words sum up the duties of charity and are themselves summed up in their turn in the word Fraternity.

(d) Application : How can children practise the duties of Fraternity.

III. Summary to be dictated.

*Grammar* (from 8½ to 9) :

I. Oral and collective correction of the exercise set yesterday (*Grammar*, page 240).

II. Questions on the last lesson : active and passive voice.

III. New Lesson : Oral parsing of the two first sentences of the text : *Un trait de dévouement* (*Grammar*, page 239).

(a) Make the children find and parse first of all the verbs of each sentence.

(b) Then make them find the subjects and the various complements of these verbs.

(c) Nature and use of the other words.

IV. Exercise : Parse in writing the last sentence of this text.

*Arithmetic* (from 9 to 10½) :

I. Questions on the preceding lesson : Commercial Discount—How it is calculated.

II. Oral and collective correction of the exercise set last time (Problem No. 5, page 183).

III. New Lesson : Pieces of money—their minting—standards of gold and silver pieces.

(a) Show some pieces of money and say a few words on minting.

(b) Explain by means of examples that the standard is the weight of precious metal contained in 1,000 grams of the given alloy or the relation of the weight of precious metal to the total weight of the alloy.

(c) Standards of the principal coins.

(d) Exercises : What is the weight of gold contained in an alloy weighing 50 grams at a standard of  $\frac{2000}{10000}$  ? What is the standard of an ingot weighing 160 grams and containing 128 grams of pure silver ?

IV. Mental Arithmetic—How to multiply a number by 10 and by 5. Exercises : (*Arith.* page 57, No. 5).

V. Home Work.—Problems Nos. 40 and 43, page 330.

*Dictation* (from 10½ to 11) :

Text : *Le devoir de s'instruire* (page 254).

*Afternoon.*

*Reading with Explanations* (from 1 to 2) :

Study of the extract : *La Propriété* (page 247).

(a) Reading of the text by the teacher.

(b) Meaning of words and expressions : *faculté—propriété—puissante—exclusif—fixer*, etc.

(c) General meaning of the piece : Property being the wealth acquired by work is inviolable and sacred.

(d) Comments on the ideas : How is property acquired ? Would the earth be productive without the work of man ? Is the holding of property legitimate ?

(e) Oral summary of the text—by several pupils. Remarks on the author (Thiers).

(f) Grammatical observations on the words : *il les emploie—il les a employés*—etc.

(g) Expressive reading by the pupils. (Pay special attention to the pronunciation, to the punctuation, and to the intonation.)

APPENDIX H.

PLAN OF THE ACCOUNT RENDERED BY EACH STUDENT OF HIS WORK  
IN THE PRACTISING SCHOOL OF LYONS.

I. *Preparation of Lessons* :

A. Material preparation.

B. Written preparation : difficulties met :—

(a) With respect to the choice and graduation of the lessons and exercises.

(b) With respect to the plan of the lessons (general idea—secondary ideas—details).

(c) With respect to the choice of methods and procedures to be employed.

How have you resolved these difficulties, and what results do you think you have obtained ?

II. *Lessons* :

(a) Questions.

(b) Methods and procedures of development.

(c) Adaptation of the ideas and of the language.

Mention in each subject the difficulties met, the means employed to resolve them, and the results obtained so far as you can judge.

III. *Exercises* :

(a) Preparation with the pupils.

(b) Correction, etc.

On each of these points, difficulties met and results obtained so far as you can judge.

IV. *Copy-books, note-books, etc.* :

To what object have you directed your efforts ? What difficulties have you met ? What means have you employed to resolve them ? Results obtained.

V. *Discipline* :

(a) In class.

(b) In recreation.

What good habits, collective and individual, have you tried to get the pupils to acquire ? Difficulties met ; results obtained from the point of view of the teacher and from that of the pupils.

VI. *Conclusion* :

General view of the principal difficulties met, of the means employed to resolve them, and of those which you would employ in the future.

Progress realised, as far as you can judge. What pedagogical quality has been most lacking in you ?

Resolutions.

APPENDIX I.

EXAMPLE OF AN ACCOUNT RENDERED BY A STUDENT OF A WEEK  
IN THE PRACTISING SCHOOL OF LYONS.

*4th Report.*

*Week extending from 21st to 26th October, 1904.*

*Lower Division, Preparatory Section.*

*General Remarks.*—The time passed in the practising school is, unfortunately, *too short*, for it is only during the last two days that one enjoys oneself most (*sic*). During the first days, one does not know the pupils, and it is impossible to learn to study them carefully and to appreciate them

at their true value in five days. However, on the last day, one is almost *in touch* both with the lessons (methods) and with the pupils, and things go on very well.

### I. Preparation of Lessons :

#### A. Material Preparation :

I have tried to make my teaching as concrete as possible ; I have made drawings on the blackboard (vocabulary exercises, spelling exercises, history and geography lessons). Drawings made by the teacher interest the pupils very much indeed ; not only is this a means of making them *learn*, but it is also an *exercise in memory* (the child represents to himself the object the sketch of which is before him, and, being interested, he retains better).

#### B. Written Preparation :

I have not met any difficulties in this. The *method of learning to read* has interested me very much ; once the pupils have clearly understood an example, they are able to read all kinds of combinations made with the element which has been studied. *One must not go quickly* with them ; this is the only means of making *rapid progress*. One must pass from one difficulty to a slightly greater one, and so on *without hurrying* the pupils. At the same time, to each reading exercise there corresponds an exercise of transcription and of dictation. This *simultaneous* teaching (Janicot's Method) seems to me very rational. It appears to me *rapid and convenient*, as much for the teacher as for the pupils.

### II. Lessons :

In the lower division, to speak correctly, there are no lessons ; there are only *conversations* which should have as their object to *get the child to speak* as much as possible. The lesson is finished by two or three sentences which are *learned by heart*. When the teacher puts a question to a child, the latter has to *repeat* the question asked and then give his reply (as is done in the Catechism). When the child questions himself in this way, he is *more convinced*, he really asks *himself* a question. I consider this a good procedure. To give more animation, more life, I made the pupils come to the board in turns, two by two ; one asked the question, the other replied ; they then changed places. The boy who had acted the part of pupil became the master, and *vice versa*. In order to have the pleasure of being questioned in this way it was quite a sight to see how arms and legs were kept from moving ! I think I have obtained *good results* from this method.

### III. Exercises :

For the vocabulary exercise corresponding to the reading lesson, words were written on the blackboard and the drawing represented by the name (*sic*) was made at the side. The pupils copied the names several times. Then they rub out what they have done, the teacher removes a letter which he replaces by dots. The child has to find it again, and go and write it on the board. This exercise is very *interesting*. The letter taken away is that of the *reading element* studied. (Example. —For br, fr, vr, it is the letters b, f, v.)

### IV. Copy-books, note-books, etc. :

These little-ones have no exercise books ; however, every afternoon there is a *transcription exercise*, done in ink. It is really a

writing exercise. I paid particular attention to the proper holding of the pen, to the right position of the body, and to neatness. In these matters I met great difficulties, difficulties which arise from the fact that these children are only beginners and that their early attempts are very painful. I encouraged and praised them as much as I could.

#### V. Discipline :

With these little ones I have had no question of discipline. Except two pupils of bad disposition (R—— and V——) all of them are *well-behaved* and *docile*, and I have had a propitious silence. All these little ones are restless, it is their nature ; I have tried to *utilise this need of movement* by making them take their slates frequently, by sending pupils to the blackboard, by placing two boys in front of the class to question each other, etc. . . . It is impossible to require these children to keep their arms folded and their feet together all the time. I have tried to maintain order in the ranks (going out and coming in). During recreation, I have taken care of *all* the pupils in general, but of the *youngest* in particular.

#### VI. Conclusion :

This week has interested me very much, especially the last days, and I regretted not being able to remain longer. When I return next time to this same class, being familiar with the pupils and methods, I think I shall like the work still more and that the results will be still better.

Student: T——

## APPENDIX K.

### EXAMPLE OF A REPORT BY THE HEAD MASTER OF THE PRACTISING SCHOOL OF LYONS ON THE WEEK'S WORK OF A STUDENT.

*Student's Name*, \_\_\_\_\_ of the Second Year.

*Middle Class* from 17th to 22nd November.

*Registration, etc. :*

Fairly good ; but forgets sometimes to call the register.

*Preparation of Lessons :*

- (a) *Material Preparation.*—Good ; he has managed to provide himself with geographical maps, with pictures, and with the objects necessary to render his teaching concrete.
- (b) *Written Preparation.*—Has been fairly complete ; one cannot help feeling the effort which has been made by the teacher to render himself clear and methodical. However, I should like to see more precise preparation ; it is not sufficient to write " get the children to find the general idea " or " have the words explained " ; it is necessary to indicate this general idea in the preparation and to write down the words and sentences which will form the subject of observations, as well as the ideas which will require to be explained.

*Exposition of Lessons :*

The expositions have been sufficiently clear ; but the questions have not been numerous enough. The teacher will have to avoid this tendency of wishing to say everything himself and of wishing to tell things which the pupils can be made to discover. His elocution has been fairly good, his language free, fairly correct, and generally adapted to the understanding of the children, but a little too rapid.

*Corrections of Exercises :*

(a) *Collective Correction.*—This has been done with life and energy. The teacher must try to get the pupils to correct the answers which are defective from the point of view of language.

(b) *Individual Correction.*—This has been better than last time ; it has been more complete, and the observations more precise.

*Copy-books, note-books, etc.*—Satisfactory.

*Discipline :*

This is making progress. However, the teacher must acquire the habit of never commencing a lesson before having complete silence. He must also avoid allowing the pupils to reply all at the same time ; it is necessary to make oneself absolute master of the whole class.

*Supervision of Recreations :*

Good. He interests himself in the games of the children.

*Relations with the Children :*

Good. Must avoid showing too much inflexibility ; it is by affability and good humour that one ingratiates oneself with the children.

*Teacher's Manner :*

Satisfactory ; energetic in his movements.

*General Appreciation :*

I have observed marked progress in this young teacher. He has shown himself more active and less embarrassed than on the occasion of his last week in the school. He has, in short, introduced care and intelligence into his work.

*(Signature of the Head Master of the Practising School.)*

(Observations and signature of the  
Principal of the Training College.)

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This, the third and concluding volume of Special Reports on the school training of women for their home duties, was promised in the Prefatory Note to the second part published last year. The first part appeared in 1905.

The representative schools described in the following pages were, with one exception, visited by the writer of the Report, Miss M. C. Matheson, during the summer of 1906. They were selected as types of the different classes and grades of housewifery schools, but a large number of others were seen, both in town and country, detailed descriptions of which would have enlarged this Report without, however, adding either to its readableness or to its value.

It will be found that there is a general family likeness between the domestic training of girls in Switzerland, as described in the second volume of this series, and that in Germany and Austria, though, indeed, the influence of Germany has made itself felt in most of the Continental countries. The interest and control of women, unhampered by official regulations in the early stages of the movement, have stamped a practical character on the work, which is very noticeable. The teaching is given to small groups of about the size of an average family, and the pupils always themselves eat the dishes they have cooked. The relation of theory to practice varies under the influence of the two schools of Carlsruhe and Cassel which with Berlin have the oldest schools for the training of housewifery teachers. But perhaps the most striking feature of the work in Germany, which dates from the last fifteen years of the last century, is the progress in the domestic training schools for the middle and upper classes. The old-fashioned housewifery school joined an "exhausting round of rough work" to barrack-like dormitories and mixed companionship, but the new home-school considers the future life of the pupils in every arrangement, and though the work is hard and the roughest parts of it are never shirked, yet the course of study is in the true sense humane. The larger social aspects of home duties and the education of taste and artistic sense find their due place and scope. Recently, indeed, there has been a demand for linking the training in the practical arts of the home to a study of the many social, legal and economic problems which affect home life, and indeed any kind of institutional life, in their relation to the general life of the people. The work being done in the schools of the Diakonie-Verein and in the schools at Oberzwehren, Reifenstein and Baden-Baden is evidence of this. The need for this larger outlook has also been felt in America, as Miss Ravenhill showed in her report, and has even led to the recognition of these subjects of study by some of the Universities,

though there is much which at present is tentative and possibly temporary in the courses of study being offered. In this country the necessity for a more practical organisation of our existing courses is beginning to be appreciated while the wish for organised courses of wider range on a University plane for those capable of benefiting by them is finding a voice, though next to nothing has as yet been done. The two ideas are not incompatible, for they affect in the main different parts of the field. The course of training for the child who will some day have to manage her home without help beyond the members of her family; the course for the teacher who will train such a child; that for the teacher in a Secondary School or the teacher in a Housewifery School; and that for the future head of a large house or estate or the manager of a public institution, cannot be one and the same. The problem is at least as varied as the problem of educating men for the different grades of any of the great groups of occupations in which they engage, and it may well be urged that its right solution is not less important for the national welfare.

The Board of Education desire to take this opportunity of thanking the many private individuals, officials and teachers who assisted Miss Matheson in making her inquiry, and in particular the educational authorities of Berlin, Vienna, Bavaria, Carlsruhe and Cologne, for official introductions and permits to visit public schools. Special thanks for most valuable information and introductions are due to:—Frau Hedwig Heyl (Berlin), Frau von Migerka (Vienna), Fraulein Auguste Foerster (Cassel), Fraulein von Kortzfleisch (Reifenstein), Frau Rektor Hennis (Cologne) and many others. The thanks of the Board are also due to the teachers of the different institutions in the following towns and villages, which were visited in the course of the inquiry:—

*German Empire—*

*Prussia*: Berlin, Cassel, Cologne, Rheydt, Reifenstein, Hanover, Obernkirchen.

*Saxony*: Dresden, Arwedshof.

*Bavaria*: Munich, Nuremberg, Geiseltasteig.

*Wurtemberg*: Stuttgart, Ulm, Reutlingen, Esslingen, Langenau.

*Baden*: Carlsruhe, Baden, Radolfzell, Rastatt, Neckarbischofsheim, Neckargemünd.

*Alsace-Lorraine*: Strassburg.

*Austria-Hungary—*

Vienna, Budapesth, Dornbirn, Berndorf.

Books and documents to which reference is made in this report, together with others bearing on the same subject, may be consulted at the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, S.W.

In the case of this as of all other special Reports on educational subjects issued by the Board they must not be held responsible for the opinions of the author, expressed in the following pages.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.

December, 1907.

# THE DOMESTIC TRAINING OF GIRLS IN GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

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## I.—INTRODUCTION.

## A.—GENERAL EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

In a country justly famed for educational zeal, it is not surprising to find technical education in a highly developed state. True, in Germany the boys have had, until quite recently, what may perhaps seem to be an unfair share of official attention, but the last thirty years have seen rapid developments on behalf of the girls, and in no direction have these developments been more rapid and more thorough than in those branches of technical instruction which fit a woman for her home duties.

Elementary education is compulsory throughout Germany from the time a child is six years old. The course lasts seven or eight years, and in some parts of the country girls are released from school attendance a year earlier than boys. In speaking generally of German schools, it must be borne in mind that Germany is a federation of kingdoms and states. Some of these constituents of the empire control their own internal affairs, and therefore possess independent systems of education. The districts and towns have also great freedom in the organisation of local education. General regulations are issued from Berlin, but in Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden we find educational systems which are practically independent, especially in the matter of examinations. The differences are not very apparent in elementary schools, but there are very diverse regulations for continuation schools. In the north of Germany these schools have much the same position as in England; they are generally optional, but the desire for compulsory continuation schools for technical and trade training is rapidly gaining ground. In Bavaria and Baden, on the other hand, the continuation school has long been a recognised branch of general education for those who could not afford to attend a secondary school. These continuation schools have grown out of the old Sunday schools which were founded with the object of giving working boys and girls further instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic and Scripture. Such Sunday schools have been compulsory in Munich for the last hundred years; recently the law has been extended, and there is now a regular continuation school system. At present, when a girl completes her seventh school year in Munich she has not finished her education, but she has various courses open to her. She may either:—

(i.) Attend a Sunday school for three years (two and a half hours per week).

(ii.) Attend an VIIIth class with thirty hours weekly for one year and a Sunday or week-day continuation school for a second year.

(iii.) Attend a commercial or domestic continuation school for three years for five to ten hours weekly, or divide her three years' attendance between these schools and the ordinary Sunday schools.

In September, 1906, a similar regulation came into force in Nuremberg, but the compulsory attendance is confined to week-days. In the Grand Duchy of Baden week-day continuation schools were made compulsory in 1874. Boys who do not attend the higher schools must attend a continuation school for two years, girls for one year, and three hours a week must be granted out of working hours by all employers for this purpose.

Optional continuation schools have been established for some years in Berlin and in other parts of Germany.

The higher education of girls has long been a much-discussed question in Germany. The way to the University is now open in many places, but it has been won after much effort, and at the present day many of the higher schools for girls are in private hands. The usual higher girls' school has a course lasting ten years, and the girls therefore leave at the age of sixteen.

Gymnasiums for girls, *i.e.*, schools which prepare for entrance to the University, are established in some places and correspond in most respects to High Schools in England. These schools do not concern themselves with the subjects to be dealt with in the present Report, and in the training courses for teachers the only "domestic subject" taught is needlework.

Girls' education in Austria offers few points of difference, except that the so-called higher education of women has made less progress. Technical education for girls is also less general, but where it has been introduced, aims and methods are so similar that it has appeared unnecessary to treat the two empires separately for the purpose of the present Report.

#### B.—HISTORY OF DOMESTIC TRAINING.

Germany is now so rich in institutions for teaching the domestic arts that the inquirer is much surprised by two facts which confront him at the outset. First, this wide-spread movement is almost entirely a growth of the last twenty years. Secondly, though the State authorities are more and more taking their share of the work, in nearly all places the initiative, and in most places the continuance and control of these schools and classes are the work of voluntary societies of women. A glance through the directory of any German town will show what an important part the *Verein*, or society, plays in German life. Societies of women with philanthropic aims are to be found far and wide throughout the land, and up to the present their chief care seems to have been the domestic training of girls. Originally, their object was to save poor girls from destitution by teaching them a trade, and fifty years or more ago the chief trades open to women were domestic service and various kinds of needlework. The rapid growth of the factory industries and the consequent modern industrial conditions opened the eyes

of the observant, in Germany as elsewhere, to the fact that house-wifely proficiency is not the natural inheritance of every woman, but that it is in most cases an art painfully acquired and easily lost, especially in families where the mother is withdrawn from her home either by the pressure of poverty or the multiplication of outside interests. The consequent anxiety to arrest the dreaded decay of home life has led to the adaptation of the old schools and the foundation of the many domestic schools which have been already described in other countries and which are nowhere better organised than in Germany, where the subject has received attention for all classes of society equally. Aware as we are that these efforts do not touch all sides of the social problem, we may think the German societies somewhat one-sided in work, but perhaps this brief account will show that we in England have hardly paid sufficient attention to this side of our social work, and that more simple training in domestic subjects than can be given by the school authorities alone would prove a powerful aid to the temperance teacher, the health visitor, and the numerous other agents who are trying to raise the standard of living among the working-classes.

It has always been the custom in German countries to give girls of the better classes definite training in cooking, etc. Girls were sent to large houses in the country, to hotels, pensions, or restaurants, to any place where there was a large *ménage* in which they could gain experience and practice. This system gave no systematic or educational training. It gave opportunity for practice and little more. Even a hundred years ago people were aware that something more was needed to rouse intelligent interest and to teach future mothers to fulfil their home duties with intelligence and insight. Various efforts were made, which resulted chiefly in the establishment of a few schools for servants. Probably it was the lack of educational knowledge and method more than anything else which delayed the practical results of the movement for half a century.

It was between 1850 and 1860 that societies for promoting the general education and welfare of women sprang suddenly into life. The *Lette-Verein* in Berlin was the first, but it was closely followed by the German Women's Society (*Der allgemeine deutsche Frauenverein*), with its headquarters at Leipzig, the National Society of Women (*Der vaterländische Frauenverein*), the Society of Women of Baden and the Society of Swabian Women, each with numerous local branches. It is not possible to make a complete list of these societies, as fresh local branches of the national societies or independent local associations are organised almost every year.

These societies began by advancing the higher education of women, at that time almost non-existent, and by training needy girls for certain trades. Technical courses for home training were soon added to the trade groups, and these have now grown to be the most striking feature of women's public and social work in Germany.

The educational authorities have given their full sympathy,

have aided with grants, and have in many cases taken over the schools entirely or even started new ones, but the moving factor in the domestic training of girls remains, as it was in its beginning, the voluntary associations of women.

Sewing is generally the first subject attempted, as the necessary equipment is within the reach of all, but cooking has always followed as soon as means permitted.

It is pleasant for English readers to know that the women's societies first started cooking classes at the instigation of the late Empress Frederick. She, as Crown Princess, was president of the German *Verein für Armenpflege und Wohlthätigkeit*, and in one of her presidential addresses she urged the need of more systematic domestic training for girls. With characteristic insight, she suggested that the experiment should first be made among girls of the middle classes, as the working classes generally follow the lead of the higher classes of society and are therefore more likely to become interested in subjects which have already become popular. Accordingly, the experiment was made and cookery classes for adults were started in the Pestalozzi-Froebel House in Berlin. Frau Hedwig Heyl arranged the lessons, and in 1885, for the first time, cookery took its place as a subject for methodical instruction and the system of mechanical practice alone was doomed.

The late Empress did not let the matter stop there. In 1888 she pleaded for the poor themselves, and, at her wish, the annual meeting of the same society discussed the possibility of introducing housewifery instruction for working girls. This time Fräulein Foerster, of Cassel, was the pioneer, and at Easter, 1889, she obtained permission to teach cookery in the first class of one of the elementary girls' schools in Cassel. Though modified in many ways to suit different places, the systematic plan worked out by Fräulein Foerster for this class has been the foundation of the housewifery instruction wherever it has been adopted in elementary schools in Germany, and, to a large extent, in Switzerland also.

Resident housewifery schools are common in Switzerland, and they are conducted by various county councils in England for the benefit of working-class girls; but Germany has been a leader in this department of domestic training also. In 1815, the first school for training servants was opened at Frankfurt-on-Main, and sixteen others were founded in the succeeding sixty years.

During the last twenty years the same ideas which led to the establishment of resident training schools for servants have developed, and we now find the modern housewifery schools for home training. In this respect the Grand Duchy of Baden has led the way, and its oldest schools have now existed for more than twenty years. They also were founded by private societies, but are now the property of the districts in which they are situated.

Berlin, Cassel, and Carlsruhe possess the oldest schools for the training of housewifery teachers, and here again surrounding countries, and Switzerland in particular, have benefited much from the enterprise and example of the Germans.

Before describing these different schools and classes in detail, it may be as well to attempt to give some idea of the extent to which domestic subjects are taught in Germany. In the absence of definite official statistics no complete list of schools can be given. Such a list would in any case soon be out of date, as the number of schools has increased greatly in the last five years and there are no signs of any diminution in the future. On the other hand, everything points to a probable increase of activity in social work, and, as we have seen, where women are concerned domestic teaching claims the most prominent position.

Nearly everywhere in Germany the domestic schools still enjoy the personal influences which called them into being. Thus it is difficult to foretell their future. In Berlin, Frau Lina Morgenstern and Frau Hedwig Heyl and in Cassel Fräulein Auguste Foerster have led the movement since its beginning, and are still at the helm. The Dowager Grand Duchess of Baden gives ceaseless attention to the development of women's schools and training, to the philanthropic organisation of educated women, and to the assistance of the poor. The founders of the Society for Country Housewifery Schools started work ten years ago and control their own beautiful schools. A study of domestic teaching in Germany is so largely a study of personalities, of personal influences which have made the schools what they are and have given to each one its individual character, that to speak of the German system as a whole can give no idea of the delightful vitality and subtle differences which distinguish so many of the towns where enthusiasm has been aroused for this branch of education. If the states and towns possess such personal characteristics what must we say of the schools? Everywhere one finds teachers who have grown old with their schools; with few exceptions they have been there from the beginning, and have moulded the school methods in the light of experience and local needs. If the foundations of the last five years may hope to avoid many mistakes made by their predecessors, they certainly lack that sense of being an essential feature of local social life which is so marked in the older schools.

### C.—EXTENT OF DOMESTIC TRAINING IN GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

Throughout Germany and Austria needlework is taught in all elementary and secondary schools for girls, except in the few remote country districts where no teacher is available.

The other domestic subjects, *i.e.*, cookery, hygiene, laundry work, *etc.*, are rarely taught separately, and are here classed together under the title of housewifery. As a general rule, they are all included to some degree in the cookery school, and are more differentiated in the general housewifery course which is the favourite method of imparting the instruction to girls over the elementary school age.

## (i) NORTH AND CENTRAL GERMANY.

Here statistics fail us, and it would be a complicated matter to collect them as each township can decide whether domestic subjects are to be taught in the elementary schools, whether public technical schools are to be founded, or which private schools are to receive aid from the public funds.

If the municipal and district councils are free in the matter, private enterprise is still more unfettered, and we find a great variety of schools and classes under public and private management. Large employers of labour have been among the foremost to encourage domestic teaching, and interesting examples of such "factory-schools" may be seen in Cassel and Bremen.

The various authorities control a great number of schools for adult girls both in town and country. Amongst them are evening and Sunday schools for factory girls, continuation schools for girls of the lower middle classes, and town and country schools uniting all branches of the subject for pupils of the higher schools.

State grants to technical schools teaching housewifery amount to about £3,386 per annum, but while some of the schools on this list are really training homes for friendless girls, many of the technical schools are not mentioned.

The authorities who make the grants are also various.

The Education Department is content with issuing regulations for candidates for the diplomas of teachers of needlework and housewifery (1902).

The Ministry of Commerce has founded "model" State housewifery and commercial schools in Rheydt, Potsdam and Posen.

The Ministry of Agriculture assists the Society for Country Housewifery Schools, which, under the leadership of the foundress, Fraulein von Kortzfleisch, has established the most modern resident schools at Reifenstein (near Cassel), Obernkirchen (near Hanover), and Kempen (near Breslau), in the province of Posen.

For the rest, we can only describe the conditions in one or two of the leading towns, and it must not be forgotten that most other towns have some share in the movement, that the spirit of emulation is strong, and that it is not unlikely that those districts which have as yet hardly realised the importance of domestic training will be in the forefront a few years hence.

*Berlin.*

In Berlin, the private character of the domestic education is especially striking. With the exception of one or two continuation schools, this vast city only supports the home training of girls by grants to various societies, and, though private enterprise is not lacking to supply the deficiency, this branch of the city education lacks cohesion. Another characteristic is the prominence given to training for professional life. Comparatively speaking, there are more opportunities for future teachers, servant girls,

"mothers helps," and needlewomen to learn their business than for the ordinary girl who wants to perfect her domestic knowledge for home use. The chief technical schools are the famous Lette-Haus and the Pestalozzi-Froebel-Haus II. The former has accommodation for about 2,000 pupils, and gives instruction in every branch of commercial and domestic work, while there are combined housewifery courses for home training, lasting six months and one year. The most important of these is the resident housewifery course, which is held in a separate house and lasts one year. Here 120 girls from middle-class families are taught and boarded for £30 a year; the prescribed materials for sewing, books, etc., cost between £8 and £9. The girls do all the work of the house, which is severely simple in its arrangements.

More home like is the second Pestalozzi-Froebel-Haus, where housewifery courses, teachers' training courses, and non-resident cookery courses are held. The school is being re-built as it has outgrown its habitation, but even under the present cramped conditions the visitor is struck at once by the tasteful fittings and the home-like air in the pretty living-rooms and bedrooms.

A course similar to that in the Lette-Haus, but of a rather simpler nature, is given in the Amalienhaus, one of the large deaconess-houses belonging to the Inner Mission. There used to be seventy resident pupils, but either the somewhat strict discipline or the multiplication of other openings for girls has reduced the number of pupils to about forty.

The day-schools for the teaching of cookery are all combined with restaurants, either for regular guests of both sexes or for working women. The oldest of these schools is presided over by Frau Lina Morgenstern and belongs to the Society of Housewives (*Hausfrauen Verein*). The school was founded in 1878 and has trained considerably over 4,000 young girls either for home life or as teachers, professional cooks, etc. The ordinary courses last about three months, the pupils coming every morning from 8.30 a.m. to 12.30 p.m., and on two afternoons in the week from 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. About twelve pupils are taken together, and a good deal of latitude is allowed in order to suit those who cannot take a full course. The average fee is about 30s. per month.

The ten schools of the Berlin Branch of the National Women's Union (*Vaterländischer Frauenverein*) are conducted on much the same plan, but the fees are nominal and they are arranged for the children of poor parents. The courses are for twelve to sixteen pupils and last six months or one year, and in the two newest schools there are double kitchens, so that the pupils may cook for themselves according to the group method, while they give regular help in the restaurant kitchen where two or three hundred portions are served daily. The society has also opened a new training school for its teachers (October, 1906), where a special study is to be made of the most advantageous expenditure of a small income. •

Only a small percentage of the children in the elementary schools receive housewifery instruction. The Lette-Haus and the Pestalozzi-

Froebel-Haus have each a practice kitchen where the students have a class of school children twice a week. In addition, the Society for the Care of Young Girls (*Verein für die Fürsorge der weiblichen Jugend*) has since 1893 held cookery classes in four or five elementary schools. The town authorities have given the kitchens, but the lessons are optional and may only be given on half holidays. The teachers of Berlin, both male and female, are strong in their opposition to the introduction of compulsory housewifery instruction into the elementary schools, such as is given in London or in certain German cities. The cost of such an innovation certainly acts as a deterrent, but the value and necessity of the instruction for all girls is recognised, and probably the step of making such instruction compulsory will be simultaneous with the institution of compulsory continuation schools for girls. The promoters of the schools of the National Union of Women hope that their methods may become general in Berlin. In short, they aim at making such teaching as is given in the county council schools of domestic economy in London compulsory for all girls who now leave school at the age of fourteen. Needlework is naturally taught in all the public schools for girls, *i.e.*, in elementary, continuation, and higher schools and there are various schools besides those already mentioned where more advanced work may be learnt. The most noticeable of these is the *Heimat Haus für Töchter höherer Stände* (Home for better class girls), but the chief aim of this institution is to train teachers of needlework, or to give girls from poor but educated homes the opportunity of learning some other profession in good surroundings and at small cost. It is difficult to get a complete list of the smaller classes for girls. Different societies are scattered all over the city which work on different lines for the betterment of the working class home. Whether they actually teach the girls to cook or to sew, or merely give them a chance to improve in refinement and behaviour, it is probable that their "domestic training" is no inconsiderable factor in their immediate neighbourhoods.

#### *Other Prussian Towns.*

Cassel may well be taken next, as it holds the proud position of pioneer, as far as housewifery instruction for girls of school age is concerned. This town is well provided with school kitchens, where all girls who reach the highest class in the elementary school have one housewifery lesson a week during their last school year. The large central school for adult pupils belongs to the Society for Women's Education. Here there are detached courses in cookery and every kind of needlework, and there is also a large training department for teachers. There are various classes for poorer girls belonging to different philanthropic agencies. There are also modern resident schools at Reifenstein and Oberzwehren, and three resident schools for younger girls belonging to the *Diakonieverein*.

In Cologne all girls in the elementary schools learn cookery during their last year, and the same is the case in Bonn, Düsseldorf, and other neighbouring towns. Most of the teachers in this district have been trained at the town training school in Cologne. Courses in artisan and middle class cookery are conducted by the women's society in their own school.

Breslau and Posen do a great deal for domestic training, but otherwise most of this activity is to be found in the western provinces. To quote Dr. Hermann Zwick's Pamphlet on Continuation Schools for Girls (1903) :—

“ Eastwards there is less and less and in the country districts a minimum number of domestic schools and classes is to be found. In the lowlands practically nothing has been attempted.”

The same author reckons that in 1901 there were 603 commercial and housewifery schools for girls in Prussia. Ninety-one of these were public schools, the rest were in private hands ; 399 gave commercial, trade or domestic training, 204 were sewing, embroidery, or weaving schools ; 117 were resident schools in the country, the rest were in the towns.

Dr. Kley\* estimated that in Prussia in 1895 one girl in twenty-six attended a technical school.

(ii.) BAVARIA.

The teaching given in Bavaria is mostly confined to Munich, Nuremberg and Augsburg, where an optional VIIIth class has been added to the ordinary elementary school course.

There are forty-six elementary schools in Munich, and twenty-nine of them have an VIIIth class, attended, on an average, by forty children. In the girls' classes most of the time is devoted to domestic subjects. Under this optional system the poorest children are not reached. Of this the authorities are well aware, but the optional class is only a first step. The 8th year will be made compulsory for all children who are not able to attend the higher schools as soon as the time is considered ripe for a regulation making the present permissive arrangement a compulsory one. The continuation schools are divided into domestic and commercial classes. In the former the subjects of instruction are :—“ Religion, domestic economy with hygiene, German, arithmetic, book-keeping, and domestic education ” (i.e., rules for the bodily care of little children, and for their mental and moral upbringing). Optional subjects are :—“ Sewing, French, English, and drawing.” According to the latest reports, there are thirty-five domestic and eleven commercial continuation schools. The number of girls in a class should not exceed forty. Nuremberg has six of these classes for girls, with a total of 225 pupils. They were started in 1896, and in 1906 the neighbouring town of Fürth followed the example. In Augsburg similar classes were started in 1904.

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\* “ Die Ausbildung unserer Töchter nach der Entlassung aus der Schule.”—  
Dr. W. Kley. 1904. (Meyer, Berlin.)

Other teaching of this type is given in Bavaria by peripatetic teachers, and these courses will probably largely increase in number. In 1905 to 1906, sixty-eight such courses were held by ten teachers.

In Munich there are also special schools for domestic training, viz., a cookery and housewifery school for girls over sixteen, opened in 1895 in the old Town Hall, a large sewing school where every kind of needlework is taught, and a small private school, managed by a committee of ladies, where day and evening courses in cookery and needlework are held. The last-mentioned school is to be moved to better premises, and much extended in scope, as soon as funds will permit.

The resident school at Geiseltasteig in the Valley of the Isar, is also under a society, and began in 1903 with eight pupils. There are now twenty-two, and the committee are engaged in seeking better quarters.

In Nuremberg there is a housewifery school, and there are two or three needlework schools, but these are all private, though they receive some small Government and society grants.

#### (iii.) ALSACE-LORRAINE.

In Alsace-Lorraine the society is not so prominent as in other parts of Germany. This has probably delayed the general adoption of domestic teaching, but the towns are now making up for lost time. Strassburg, in especial, is well provided. There is a housewifery school for resident and non-resident pupils, where all the housewifery teachers for Alsace-Lorraine are trained. This school is twelve years old, and was started by the present headmistress. All elementary school girls in Strassburg have a cookery lesson once a week during their seventh or last school year. At present there are six school kitchens. There are free continuation schools, where girls may have three afternoon sewing lessons and two morning cookery lessons a week.

Evening cookery lessons for adults are also given, and are well attended.

Two peripatetic teachers have recently started work in the surrounding districts, where their efforts are much appreciated by the villagers. In Colmar, there are cookery lessons for seventh year pupils, Mulhausen has optional continuation classes, there is an old but re-organised school for servants near Metz, and a Roman Catholic school near Château-Salins. There is a large needlework school with five branch schools in Strassburg. Here all the special teachers of needlework for the state are trained. There are twenty-nine needlework schools in Alsace. These are mostly private ventures, aided by the towns to the extent of free rooms, heating, lighting and sometimes accommodation for the teacher. A few of the schools belong to societies.

The total average attendance for the needlework schools of the province is about 800. The Strassburg schools were founded by the local branch of the National Society of Women (*Vaterländischer Frauenverein*).

## (iv.) WURTEMBERG.

The Kingdom of Wurtemberg and the Grand Duchy of Baden show the most complete organisation, but while Wurtemberg led the way it is now mostly remarkable for its excellent sewing schools, while Baden has outstripped the sister state in the provision of housewifery instruction for girls of every class. In Baden we see the Women's Association at its strongest. The Swabian Women's Society is also a great organisation, and it works in co-operation with the authorities, who have by degrees taken over many of the local schools, though the training and examination of teachers is still in the hands of the society.

Stuttgart is a town of 182,000 inhabitants, and has a large industrial population. It possesses at least thirty institutions and active societies for the relief of distress in all its forms, the training of girls, etc. Housewifery has not as yet been introduced into the elementary schools. The Swabian Women's Society have magnificent needlework and housewifery schools, the latter with resident and non-resident courses, also a course for cookery alone. The Local Benevolent Society (*Lokal Wohltätigkeitsverein*) manages rather simpler schools of the same kind. There are some country resident schools, but these are not quite so popular as formerly. At present, peripatetic courses seem to be more favoured in the country districts. The Swabian Women's Society sends teachers, stoves, and utensils. Nominal fees are charged, and the expenses are generally met by the district authorities or local manufacturers. In 1904, ten peripatetic teachers were thus employed.

The needlework schools of the country now number thirty, and have an attendance of considerably over 6,000 pupils. Many of these schools were started by societies, but most of them have become town property, and are under the official inspection of the department of the Minister of Religion and Education. Many of these schools were founded at the request of the different municipal authorities.

Wurtemberg is also rich in other schools for women. There are numerous higher girls' schools, continuation schools, and training schools for poor or orphan girls. Thus every side of women's education is receiving attention, and on every side the women's societies take a full share in promoting their particular branches of the work.

## (v.) GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.

In Baden we see both the full power of the *Verein* or Society, and also the greatest extension of domestic training. The elementary and continuation schools are managed by the educational authorities. As mentioned previously, attendance at the latter for three hours weekly is compulsory for one year after leaving the primary school. As in the VIIIth classes in Bavaria, this opportunity has been seized to introduce domestic training for girls and different forms of technical training for boys. School kitchens

are not yet provided in every country district, but the system is almost universal, and has the advantage over Munich in that, being compulsory, all the girls in a district learn housewifery.

The authorities also give their support to some of the more advanced schools, but these are founded and managed by the Society of Women of Baden, under the active and untiring leadership of the President, the Dowager Grand Duchess of Baden.

The Grand Duchy, with upwards of 2,000,000 inhabitants, has 347 branches of the Women's Society, with a membership of 61,149 (*see Report 1904*). These branches control forty sewing schools with more than 2,500 pupils, in addition to nearly 200 detached courses in each year for cookery, ironing, mending, dress-making, etc. There are ninety-four institutions for the care of children and 150 for the care of the sick. Altogether 305 nurses of all grades are employed by the society, which cares for upwards of 35,000 invalids either in the hospitals or at their own homes. Some branches also undertake rescue work, relief work, and other social enterprises. In Carlsruhe, a town of about 111,600 inhabitants, the local branch of the society has four divisions with twenty-five different departments. These include the State reformatory, hospitals, and convalescent homes, the care of servant girls on the lines of the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants, people's restaurants and nurseries, a commercial school, employment bureau, etc. The divisions dealing with domestic training are summarised in the plan on the opposite page.

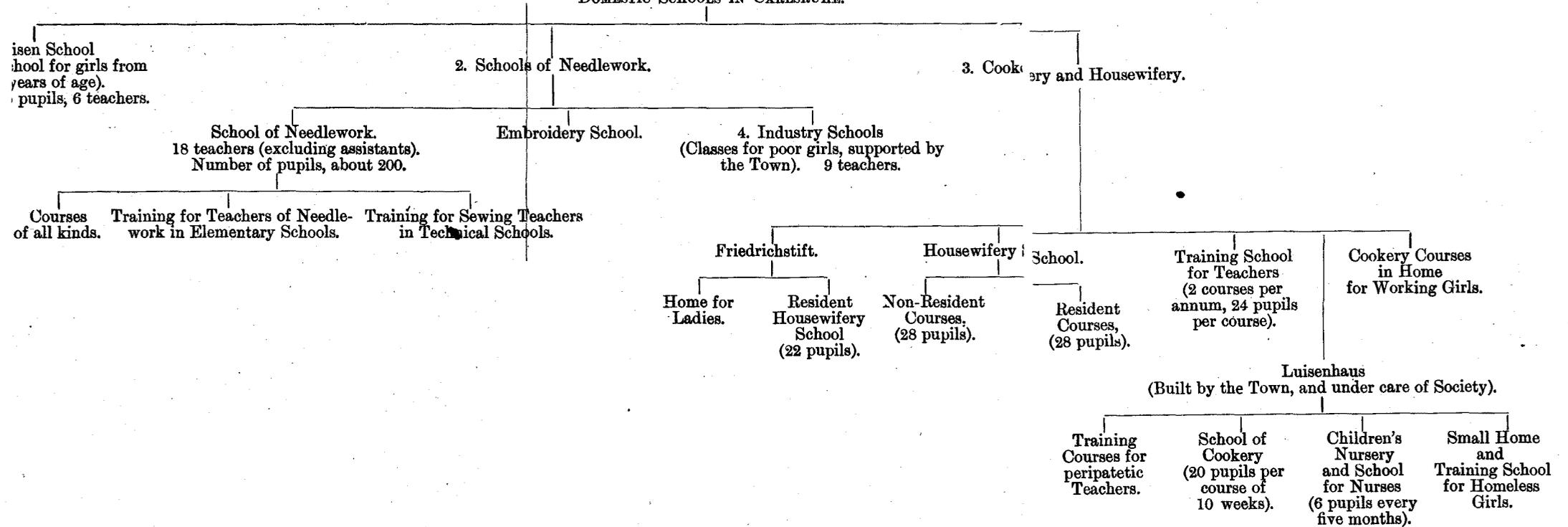
In addition to the above-mentioned institutions there are sixteen elementary schools for girls, where twenty-eight needlework teachers and ten cookery teachers are employed. The six school kitchens are used partly for continuation schools, partly by girls from the highest class of the elementary schools. Nine sewing teachers are engaged in the four "industry schools," and there are six in the three institutions where school girls may come for the free hours after morning and afternoon school when their mothers are obliged to go out to work and their homes are closed to them.

The mere list of all these institutions for training girls is imposing. One fact remains which may well fill English readers with envy—the schools are always full, and there are generally pupils waiting their turn of entry, especially for the cookery classes.

#### (vi.) AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Austria is especially remarkable for the number of sewing-schools which are to be found in the different towns and villages. In 1903, 263 of these schools had obtained official sanction in Vienna alone, and there were about 1,900 in the whole Empire. They are mostly private undertakings, and many of them have very few pupils, so there must be a certain amount of variation from year to year in the exact number of schools. Most dressmaking establishments add a room where pupils can learn dressmaking for home use, and many schools in different parts of the country belong to the various orders of nuns.

DOMESTIC SCHOOLS IN CARLSRUHE.



Even after deducting the large number of insignificant schools, there remains abundant opportunity for the daughters of this deft-fingered race to be trained in every branch of needlework, and though the advantage of a trained teacher is not yet universally recognised, the innate art of the Austrian does much to supply a deficiency which is gradually disappearing.

#### Vienna.

The most famous technical school for girls is the institute of the *Frauen-Erwerb-Verein* in Vienna. This school was founded in 1866, and gives training both for trade and for home life. The accuracy and daintiness of the sewing must be unrivalled, even in Paris. Needlework is at present the only domestic subject taught generally in the elementary schools. It is true that lessons are supposed to be given on food, clothing, housing, etc., in the upper division, but as no time may be allowed for domestic economy as a separate subject it is to be feared that the regulation is not very effective.

The lessons in knitting and sewing occupy from three to six hours weekly, and a skeleton plan is issued for them. The different districts are at liberty to expand this plan according to the sizes of the schools and local needs and customs (*see Appendix B. II.*). Contrary to German practice, the children begin by learning to crochet. In Vienna, considerable dissatisfaction is expressed with the results of the elementary school methods in this respect, and it is probable that the programme will be shortly materially altered.

Vienna offers an instructive object lesson to the student of educational history. The city has long shared in the current of thought which has led to the finished arrangements for domestic teaching of which many German cities are so justly proud. Owing perhaps to the peculiar racial constitution and difficulties of the Austrian Empire, progress in this direction has been more spasmodic, and side by side with some of the oldest technical classes for girls in Europe, such as the school already mentioned, we find still operative the old-fashioned methods of "practice schools" in contra-distinction to methodical instruction.

These schools are always the kitchens of restaurants or other large establishments, and in some cases the proprietors are endeavouring to re-model their plan of instruction, and so to bring it more into accord with modern ideas. The Society of Housewives has a cookery school for thirty or forty pupils, which was founded in 1884. It is attached to a restaurant, and is conducted by a head-teacher and four cooks. In 1892, the first five evening cooking class for working girls was started by Dr. Migerka and his wife. In this school seventy-four courses of three months' duration have now been held. Both here and in a similar school belonging to another society, twelve pupils are taken in a course, and they come on five evenings in the week after working hours. This example has now been followed in nearly twenty other towns, but the schools are generally supported by private societies or by large factory owners. To return to Vienna, there is one upper-class boarding school where much time is given to domestic subjects. It

might be called a finishing school, and was started by Madame Von Petravic in 1904. Ordinary subjects are taught, but the extra domestic course seems to supply a want and also gives better training for intending teachers than has up to the present been obtainable elsewhere in Austria.

#### *Budapest.*

In Budapest there is a cookery school for ladies, which belongs to a society, and has been established for some years. The educational authorities have recently built a fine school for girls, where continuation, commercial and technical classes are held. Here girls can enter on leaving the primary school at the age of twelve, and be trained as dressmakers, or needlewomen, or simply take one or more courses in different kinds of sewing and machining. These girls are divided into groups of ten, and each group cooks two or three times a week. A charge of 3d. is made for the meal, and the arrangements, if somewhat simple, are in accordance with modern ideas regarding the teaching of this subject.

So far as domestic teaching is concerned, the Austrian Empire is chiefly remarkable for the country housewifery schools, arranged specially to give a farmhouse training to the daughters of the better class peasants.

There are about twelve of these schools in different parts of the empire, four being in Bohemia and two in Moravia. Most of them were founded by agricultural societies and are under the control of committees and teachers; the latter are generally practical experts but untrained as teachers.

Indeed, in all the schools described here, in Austria the great obstacle to progress lies in the fact that it is almost impossible to secure efficient teachers who have learnt their work. Some women who are "teachers by nature" have been most successful, but no provision has been made for the training of teachers, and as the Viennese, Hungarian and Bohemian kitchens are in each case peculiar to the country, it has been thought impossible to import help from Germany. In 1906 the Union of Hotel-keepers combined with the school authorities to meet the want, and added to their already existing cookery school a training course for teachers. The programme covers one year and has been most carefully drawn up. It appears to be somewhat overloaded, but it is naturally too soon to form any opinion as to the work or merits of this school. It is to be hoped that its foundation will give both a stimulus to more effective teaching throughout the country and the possibility for carrying such teaching into effect.

#### D.—STATE AID.

The question of State-aid and government has not yet assumed much importance in Austria; the following remarks, therefore, apply chiefly to Germany. Where there is so much diversity of arrangement in control and teaching, the part played by the State in this branch of education has a distinctly unfinished aspect.

Where there is domestic teaching in the elementary schools, the

school authorities of the town in question make all arrangements. They decide what kind of training is best for the teachers and appoint an inspectress. Generally, the teachers are trained in the nearest training school, and in Cologne, Strassburg, Cassel, and other towns the head of this school is responsible also for the inspection of the elementary school kitchens. In Carlsruhe, a special inspectress has been appointed for housewifery and needlework.

With regard to the higher technical schools, the regulations are more fragmentary. Country and town schools are subsidised by different departments of the Government. Grants are not regulated by any general law, as is the case in Belgium and Switzerland. The State grants are made chiefly by the Departments for Commerce and Agriculture, and are apparently in the form of a large subscription. Specimen accounts of a housewifery school are given in Appendix A (*see p. 87*). Similarly, there are no national regulations for the training of housewifery teachers, and this duty is nowhere undertaken by the State. In some places, the need of special training is not even recognised and women who are technically expert are appointed as teachers. Though this cannot be generally recommended from an educational point of view, some of the older schools owe their career, position and success entirely to the whole-hearted devotion of such teachers, who, without special training themselves, have realised the possibilities and importance of their work, and possessed the natural gifts necessary for its development. On the other hand, among the young pupils in an elementary school the influence of the training school is very powerful, and the teachers from the best of these schools certainly excel in their power of interesting the children and rivetting their attention during the four hours which are usually set apart for a housewifery lesson.

Before 1900 every training school made its own regulations for the instruction and examination of the students. In Wurtemberg and Baden the State now recognises the rules thus instituted by the women's societies and requires their diplomas from all technical teachers. In Bavaria the reverse has happened. The municipalities have been in great need of teachers and this forced them to accept slight qualifications. The private societies are therefore seeking to improve on the Government regulations.

Finally, in 1902 the Prussian Education Department recognised housewifery as a subject of instruction and issued examination regulations for teachers. These regulations are now adopted by the various local authorities and societies in Prussia. Though it is the opinion of many that they leave much to be desired, it is an advantage to have a uniform standard which is accepted over a great part of the empire, and it gives girls holding such diplomas a wider field for their energies than is possible where the diploma is only accepted for a certain district.

## II.—TEACHING OF DOMESTIC SUBJECTS IN ELEMENTARY AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

### A.—NEEDLEWORK.

It is safe to assert that wherever there are elementary schools for girls and a woman is in any way available, knitting and sewing are a necessary part of the curriculum. Among Germans and Austrians sewing still occupies a position that may seem old-fashioned to the average Englishwoman, but the teaching in the elementary schools is not dissimilar from that given in England, while one might say that the results show even more similarity.

Prior to 1860 sewing was not a class subject and there was no methodical instruction. Each girl chose her own work.

About this time, just as the philanthropic societies were started simultaneously in different places, so, in the minor matter of needlework, it occurred to three or four widely separated people that sewing would be better taught if simultaneous class teaching were adopted.

Rosalie Schallendorf, the head mistress of a private school in Berlin, gave the first suggestions for the new method in her book "Sewing as Class Instruction" (*Handarbeit als Klassen Unterricht*) which speedily attracted notice. Here she worked out a plan for instruction as systematic and continuous as that given in other subjects, and this plan proved to be the foundation of the system now in vogue in the north of Germany.

About the same time Elizabeth Weissenbach was training poor girls in Zürich as seamstresses. With the help of a friend she worked out a similar plan, which she published in a little book on the systematic teaching of sewing and domestic economy. She was subsequently invited to Baden, where she helped in the organisation and founding of some of the earliest technical schools for girls.

The third person to introduce a method for teaching sewing was school-director Buhl in Wurtemberg. He introduced the Tact or Time method, which is still employed to a certain extent in Karlsruhe, though it is now little used elsewhere.

According to this plan, the children learn their stitches according to time, naming in unison each movement as they make it. Sixty little girls chant thus in a monotonous sing-song over their knitting: Needle through, thread taken, bring it back, take it off. It is claimed for this method that it prevents the formation of slovenly habits of work and keeps a class together. At the same time it soon becomes mechanical and has none of the real pleasure-giving properties of the kindergarten songs which teach the little ones in many English infant schools how to thread and hold their needles, wear their thimbles, or handle the scissors.

Methodical instruction was introduced about the same time in Vienna, and here again it was originated by men, chief of whom was Herr Godin.

In 1892 these ideas had made so much progress in Germany that ministerial recommendations on the teaching of sewing and the examination of teachers were issued (*see p. 76*).

### *Method and Programme.*

The method of instruction varies little in different parts of Germany. Though sewing is a compulsory subject for every student who qualifies for her teacher's diploma, the needlework instruction is in the hands of special technical teachers wherever it is possible to secure their services. This is noticeably the case in the large towns, where differentiation of work among the members of the teaching staff is easily arranged. A great many teachers only teach needlework, but others vary their work after qualifying as drilling or housewifery teachers. Even in small country towns a technical teacher is often appointed who can take charge of the continuation school or similar classes for cookery, and teach drilling and some of the sewing in the primary school and thus fill her time, while the children have the advantage of her specialised training.

Teachers are provided with a large blackboard and generally with demonstration frames. The latter are strung with coarse yarn, and every stitch required in sewing or mending can be shown on them before the children themselves attempt to sew. The lessons are generally given in an ordinary class-room, but in large schools a bright and light room may be devoted to sewing alone. However, it rarely differs from the other class-rooms, except that a small closet or large cupboard is provided for the storage of work and materials.

All the children have sewing cushions, such as are in this country chiefly used by upholstresses. In Carlsruhe, long narrow cushions are laid along the edges of the tables or desks. The work is laid over these cushions and, when necessary, pinned to them. The smaller weighted cushions used in other schools also serve to secure the work and so to keep the long seams, hems, etc., flat and even.

When the little girls first begin their knitting lessons they are six or seven years old. Each child has to provide a bag or basket for her work, and in some places a small cloth to protect it from dirt. In Strassburg the orders are very precise, and every child must bring a basket with a lid. Of course all these receptacles are marked with the pupils' names, and in general they show evidence of much care on the part of mothers who want their children to make a good appearance at school.

The children have nearly always to pay for their own materials. Sometimes they bring them from home, but very often the teacher keeps a store of the prescribed articles, and extra time is allowed her for the necessary shopping. In cases of extreme poverty exceptions are made, and in Alsace-Lorraine the materials are generally free.

"Hand-work" (*Handarbeit*) is the term used in Germany to

include sewing, knitting, crochet, etc. As this term has a wider meaning in English it might be misleading to use it here, and therefore the narrower name of needlework is adopted and used to include knitting and crochet.

In all classes of schools quiet is insisted on during the needlework lessons, and the German regulations forbid reading aloud, the practice of conversation in foreign languages, or any other diversion. In Austria reading aloud is permitted if it does not interfere with the work.

In different states and different school years the sewing hours vary from two to six weekly. Four hours may be taken as the general weekly average, and a lesson usually lasts two hours. This seems rather a long time for the little ones who can only do plain knitting, and some schools start with an hour. However, no strain was apparent in the classes visited.

Simultaneous or class teaching is universal. The children start each new step together, and, where the time-method is popular, they practise in unison. To such an extent is this simultaneous teaching carried in Carlsruhe that all the teachers in the town have to keep the corresponding classes together. The lessons are arranged at a monthly conference, and thus the inspectress knows fairly accurately what is being taught in every needlework class in every elementary school on any given day.

Of course, in every class there is great variety of ability, and therefore each child has some extra work (*Nebenarbeit*) with which to fill up the time if she gets ahead of her companions. This gives opportunity for extra practice in difficult stitches, and also for simple ornamental work, such as crochet edgings, etc.

As in England, very fine materials are forbidden, but the different kinds of darning which have long been given up in our primary schools are still taught in Germany, and the programmes seem therefore rather overburdened if girls under fourteen years of age are not only to learn but to practise and remember every detail of their work.

Many different programmes are issued, but in the end all the German and Austrian children get through much the same amount of work. The division varies, the samplers are more or less elaborate, the garments made in the upper classes suit the fashion or, in the country, the costume of the locality, but in essentials the sketch of a plan given here will give a fair idea of the work carried out by all German girls between six or seven and thirteen or fourteen years of age. Knitting, crochet, marking, sewing proper, mending, and the cutting out and making of simple undergarments are the chief divisions of the work. A few years ago, five or more complicated samplers were still expected from every girl. The present tendency is to dispense with the sampler as much as possible, and much ingenuity is shown in adapting the old sampler work to some useful purpose. This has had an excellent effect on the children, and has added greatly to the interest taken in the sewing lessons.

The first two years, and sometimes part of the third, are devoted to knitting. The different stitches, *i.e.*, plain and purl stitch, reduction and increasing, and sometimes various fancy stitches, are taught in the first year, and a strip showing them all may still be seen in some schools. In others, eighteen of the strips are sewn together to make a child's petticoat. Sometimes they are made into cuffs or comforters or kettle holders. Perhaps the most practical application is to be found in Carlsruhe and Stuttgart, where they are made into a very simple washing glove. As the children have to learn how to use these gloves and thereby hear something about the care of the skin, and the importance of cleanliness, hygienic instruction of a kind useful even to the average well-nurtured German child is introduced more forcibly than would be possible in an ordinary theoretical lesson.

The second year is devoted to the stockings, which in one way or another also act as secondary work through all the succeeding classes. First they have to be hand-knitted from beginning to end, then in succeeding years new heels and toes have to be knitted in, plain or English darning practised, Swiss darning or darning according to the web, perfected until only a slight extra thickness shows where the hole has been, and, finally, stockings and socks of every size and for every age show that the children have thoroughly mastered the subject. The cheapening of knitting machines and of woven stockings has not yet made much impression on this kind of work in Germany, but one wonders how long the old custom of home-production will hold its own against the competition of the cheap ready-made article.

The whole or part of the third year is also occupied with stockings, this time with ribbed legs, and perhaps knitted repairs are also learnt. In some schools the crochet or the marking samplers now make their appearance. A square of crochet work is made, showing various different patterns and a crochet edging is added, either of white or scarlet. The marking or canvas sampler is familiar to everyone. Different kinds of letters, figures, and ornaments are executed in different stitches. Cross-stitch is learnt perfectly and a foundation is laid for various other stitches which are more commonly used on plain materials. Sometimes the children are also encouraged to invent patterns for themselves.

Ordinary sewing is taught from the fourth or fifth year, when the children are ten or eleven years of age. Coarse white linen is used, and in many places the sampler is simply a combination of various stitches, which are introduced with great ingenuity into about three-quarters of a yard of material. Straight and cross seaming and oversewing, hemming, herringbone stitch, tucking, back-stitch, button-hole and blanket-stitch are all shown and a broad hem is made at one end for button-holes, eyelet-holes, and the sewing on of hooks and eyes, loops and strings. Some teachers even contrive to add gathers and pleats, but this is more common at a later stage, when dressmaking is begun. In Baden and parts of Bavaria this sewing-sampler is later transformed into a really pretty apron,

A deep hem-stitched border or a frill is added at one end and the other is gathered into a narrow band. The seams, etc., are so arranged as to ornament rather than disfigure the whole, and the children have the pleasure of using their work instead of laying it by for occasional admiration.

The fifth to the seventh years are very busy. Not only must all the different kinds of patching and mending be learnt and practised, but simple chemises and other kinds of underclothing are cut out and made. The patterns are also entered and described in exercise books, in order that the children may be able to repeat them later. Everything is made in the right size for the workers and all articles are nicely finished and marked. The moments for "extra work" also provide crochet edgings for the chemises.

In Strassburg and some other places optional mending classes are provided either by the town or by private people; the children bring worn garments from home and have extra practice in applying what has been learnt at school.

If there is an eighth year, machine-sewing is begun, and in some places time is found for a white embroidery sampler showing the most usual kinds of scalloping and of raised marking.

Altogether a very great deal of work is expected during these years, and many teachers find it difficult to get through the whole course. Beautiful specimens of children's work are shown at exhibitions, etc. The average production is by no means unlike a piece of work from the same stage in any English council school. There is the same difficulty in securing regular stitching, the same difficulty in keeping the work clean. In view of the greater simplicity of the English course and the longer time over which it is spread English girls ought to attain greater facility in what they actually learn than their German sisters. Here the deeply ingrained housewifely spirit of the people undoubtedly comes to the aid of the German girl.

How much the pupils remember depends chiefly on individual capacity. When they go into a more advanced school of needlework it is generally found necessary to recapitulate at least the sewing sampler. Many teachers go over the whole ground covered in the elementary school, with the exception of the knitting. The average opinion among the more advanced teachers seems to be that, given average ability, a good foundation for future proficiency is laid in the elementary school, but that further training is necessary if a girl is to attempt successfully the general sewing needed in an ordinary household, whether artisan or middle-class.

The ordinary traveller in Germany, accustomed to the woe-begone appearance of the children in the poorest streets of English towns, will see at once that the German women do not entirely give up sewing. Ragged children can be found even in Germany, but their rarity shows that few women lay aside sewing altogether after leaving school, and it must be confessed that the art is often lost entirely by an English girl who has to undertake the rougher kinds of factory work from the time she leaves school.

B.—COOKERY AND HOUSEWIFERY.

(i.) *Methods.*

Cooking, lessons on food-values, cleaning, hygiene, washing and ironing, in so far as they are taught in German elementary schools, are all combined in the weekly half-day spent in the school kitchen. As we have seen, every year increases the number of German towns which have added these subjects, combined under the name of housewifery, to the curriculum of the elementary schools. The old controversy as to the value of such instruction is not dead. There are still many educationists who assert that such lessons are waste of time, and that the children are too young to remember and to benefit permanently by the few lessons for which the elementary school can give the means and the time. Many advocates of this instruction share these misgivings to the full, but find them more than counter-balanced by the dread of a more extended decadence of home life and comfort among the working classes. It is urged that even a smattering of knowledge is an advantage to a girl, and the only way to ensure that she gets it is to take away from the lessons any permissive character and combine them with her compulsory education. The bravest are those who go further, make a continuation school compulsory and so give the lessons at a slightly later age, as in Baden and parts of Bavaria, as also in Solothurn and other districts in Switzerland. Quite apart from the increased ability to grasp the technical subjects taught when daily life is already in close contact with them, the compulsory continuation school has great social value. It, so to speak, bridges over the gulf between school restraint and the self-control which should come with adult years. It provides a time of partial restraint and adherence to rule and order, the want of which is so dangerous to many English boys and girls who receive at one stroke their full freedom, and partial, if not complete, independence in life.

Both in the elementary and in the continuation schools, lessons and kitchens are arranged on the same plan in every part of Germany, as well as in Belgium, Switzerland, Sweden, etc. Closer inspection reveals, in Germany, certain underlying differences which give considerable variety to the teaching. These technical lessons are governed by two ground theories. The older is the idea worked out by Fräulein Foerster in Cassel. According to her followers, children of thirteen are too young to become cooks, and, moreover, to train cooks is not the province of the school. The educational aim of the teachers is to rouse interest and to bring the ordinary lessons of the school into touch with actual life. All the natural science, geography, arithmetic, etc., learnt in earlier years must find practical application in the school kitchen. Housewifery is to be the educational subject which sums up all these, just as the English schoolboy finds in trigonometry a practical application of his algebra and geometry. According to this idea, the amount of food cooked and the number of recipes learnt become of minor importance. The reasons for cooking, the relative values of various

ingredients, and the fundamental rules for dealing with them are the ground work of the lessons, and the kitchen becomes a sort of school laboratory in which habits of order, cleanliness and promptitude are indeed learnt, and in which a foundation is laid that should enable the children later to attempt any more advanced technical work that they may wish to learn. It aims at preparing them to become housewives when years and strength shall have given them the requisite physical and mental capacity, but its supporters assert that little girls of fourteen cannot be either cooks or housewives, and that any attempt to overburden their minds with the necessary technical knowledge results in a process of memory and not of deduction, and that the whole is apt to be lost in the course of the two or three succeeding years.

Accordingly, very simple dishes are cooked, and during the earlier part of the year only one dish is allowed at each lesson.

The syllabus of instruction issued for these housewifery classes is given on p. 90. It will be noticed that the children are reminded at each fresh step of the corresponding lessons in the lower classes.

This method is too slow for many authorities, and, particularly where this kind of teaching is rather new, we find the kitchens ruled by an idea diametrically opposite to that prevalent in Cassel. The children are too young to understand much theory, and the opportunity is too precious to be wasted in mere discussion. Here is their chance to learn to cook; let them do so and have all the practice possible. Thus the children are taught in Strassburg, in Cologne and the neighbouring cities, and, to a lesser extent, in Bavaria also. In Cologne or Strassburg a complete meal is cooked at every lesson, and in Cologne the children dine at school on cooking days, coming to the kitchen at 10 a.m. and going back to school at 2 p.m., and already at the second or third lesson two or three dishes are simultaneously prepared under each system. Under all systems the recipes and accounts are written out and the why and wherefore of every stage in the process is always carefully explained.

There are many schools which hold an intermediate position between Cassel and, for example, Cologne. Chief of these is Karlsruhe, and, as the Karlsruhe Seminar has been training teachers since 1883, its influence is widely spread, though every teacher finds that methods must be adapted to suit each fresh district. This applies especially in Germany, where the different States have so long been separate and individual, not only in government, but also in costume, food, and many of the minor customs of life.

Whatever the advantages of the two systems may be, it is evident that the Cassel method of teaching is a great strain on the teacher. The children must be interested and kept attentive for four hours, and the less the practical work the more difficult would this seem to be. Possibly the fact that the very best of the Cassel-trained teachers are installed in the local schools may help to account for the pleasure and unflagging interest shown by their pupils. Whatever the cause, any signs of weariness and inattention observed in the course of the present inquiry have been found in the kitchens where the more crowded programme is adopted. This seemed

at first very surprising, but after all the children are likely to be more interested where they have only to do what they thoroughly understand, and a class of girls of twelve or thirteen who cook stuffed veal (calf's breast), "salted potatoes" and spinach at the third lesson, as was seen in one elementary school, can hardly be expected to do more than commit the recipes to memory, careful as the teacher was to explain all that was done.

Naturally, all the authorities make equal claims regarding the after use of their particular plan of teaching. Evidence has been obtained from other sources which inclines one to the belief that the necessity of cooking a complete meal at every lesson from the first onwards leads to much after-forgetfulness. The Baden schools seem to show very good results. In Cassel it is significant of the value attached by the parents to the housewifery lessons that since all girls who succeed in reaching the highest class have had this privilege, there have been far fewer applications than formerly for the German equivalent of the English labour-certificate.

In this connection it is interesting to quote the opinion of one of the most experienced authorities in Switzerland, where each kind of teaching has been fully tried and where the after-results can also be carefully compared by the inspectresses in the course of their visits to adult schools and classes. Like most others, Swiss ladies started by thinking the Cassel method rather overdone, and a reduction of theory with an increase of cooking much to be desired. Experience has led them to the same conclusion as that gained by the writer in the course of watching the varying degrees of fatigue in the little pupils in the different States, viz., that the preference must be given to a plan of instruction which is inductive, where each step follows naturally from the one before it and, above all, where the progress is sufficiently slow for every point to be thoroughly mastered and comprehended. Such advantages the Cassel method undoubtedly has, but it needs an exceptional teacher to make it really operative, and it has many opponents who find it too ideal and scientific for the needs of daily life and untalented pupils.

A specimen lesson offers no great points of difference from similar lessons in other parts of the Empire. The class consists of sixteen to twenty-four children, twenty-four being the usual number, though it is occasionally exceeded, and in Saxony as many as forty children are put under the care of a teacher with an assistant or a pupil-teacher. Where there are only twenty-four children, the teacher has no assistance. In any case, the pupil teacher system is seldom favoured in Germany, though students in training are often expected to conduct a class in the presence of their critical comrades.

In arranging the lessons, their practical application at home is always borne in mind. The school kitchen is to resemble the home in every detail possible, and stoves, utensils and furniture, as well as the dishes cooked, are to be such as are familiar to every child present. To carry out this idea, the children always work in groups or families, four or six being the usual number in each group.

The members of a group are numbered (one to six or one to four) and, during the lesson, each number has certain duties attached in order that the general work, cleaning and order of the kitchen may be learnt. In most elementary schools the children change their numbers once a month. In Baden the division of duties for four groups of six children is based on the following plan:—

	Before the Lesson.	During the Lesson.	After the Lesson.
1.	Fill the water-well and can. Lay the fire.	Keep up the fire. Keep the floor clean. Fetch and return the necessary provisions from the stove room.	Sweep and clean the floor. Put away brush, pan, and dusters.
2.	Fetch coal and wood. Cut up wood.	Lay and clear the table. Say Grace. Take all refuse to the box provided.	Collect the crockery for washing. Clean the stove and empty the water-well; clean the brass rod and knobs. Rub and wash the hearthstone.
3.	Arrange the writing materials and attend to the ink pots.	Keep the table clean, and cover it with paper for writing. Give out and collect exercise books. Dish up.	Clean the table, wash the stools, and put them on the table. Clean the "selling table" and wipe the cupboard shelves.
4.	Fetch the water for the stove in a pail.	Keep the pail full of water. Keep the kettles, etc., in order.	Wash up the crockery etc. Clean the sink, etc. Wash out and hang up the kitchen cloths.
5.	Attend to the crockery cupboard. Go with No. 2 to the cellar and carry the lantern.	Get out the crockery, empty it, and put it out of the way.	Wipe the crockery, etc.
6.	Do the shopping. Give out towels. Receive the purse and count the money.	Make up the accounts. Shopping. Keep the purse.	Count the money and return the purse. Put away crockery, etc. Hang up the towels to dry. Clean the floor.

In cooking the children generally work in pairs. Each pair then prepares a complete meal if possible, and only at the end are the two or three portions put together to make one dish for the group. Another plan is to make each pair responsible for one dish.

The duties connected with the actual cooking are divided afresh before each lesson. The lesson begins with a description of the menu for the day, and the hygienic teaching arising from it. The food value of the ingredients, their origin, cost, preservation and adulteration are all treated, and as much of the lesson as is possible is conveyed by means of question and answer. Then the recipes must be dictated, the quantities and cost entered in the account books, and some recapitulation generally takes place. In Munich most of this theory is given in a distinct lesson and the children have more time for practical work. When space permits, a small garden is attached to the school, where each child has a tiny patch in which to grow some kind of vegetable.

The theoretical part of the lesson is divided according to the practical work necessary for the day. At one point the teacher stops while the fires are lighted, water fetched, etc. Whenever a natural pause occurs in the cooking, part of the theory occupies it. As soon as the dishes are ready the tables are laid, and the children sit down according to their groups, grace is said, and the food is served and eaten. Afterwards a most vigorous and thorough cleaning-up occupies the last hour, if not longer.

Considering the relaxation of the meal, the four hours usually devoted to a housewifery lesson do not seem too long for the children. The demonstration lesson, as understood in England, is entirely absent. The teacher does a little informal demonstration as occasion arises, but the English observer cannot but note with surprise the entire neglect of this assistance to teaching which prevails in all classes of technical schools for girls in Germany.

On the other hand, the inclusion of the meal seems to be an unmixed advantage, which might perhaps be combined with the English practice of selling the dishes for the children to take home. The latter plan enlists the interest of some of the parents, but to taste all that you have cooked has its educative influence, especially on young children.

The arrangements regarding shopping vary considerably. Unless the market is close at hand the teacher generally attends herself to the general shopping and only takes her class, or a detachment of it, under particularly favourable conditions. At other times "No. 6" is sent on any extra errands. The teacher also weighs out most of the provisions required before the class assembles. Sometimes a class that has finished early is allowed to prepare for the class coming next day, by weighing out and making up the necessary packets of flour, sugar, etc.

Either the teacher or two children appointed for the purpose often "keep shop," sell the groceries and account for the money received. In any case, the children have to keep the accounts and understand the cost of everything they use.

#### (ii.) *Syllabus and Cost.*

In arranging the menus for the housewifery lessons in elementary and continuation schools, the home circumstances of the

pupils are continually borne in mind. At all costs must the teachers avoid fostering luxurious tastes in their pupils, and where such additions are made as syrup sauce to a blanc-mange or sultanas to a bread pudding the teacher not only points out the possibility of doing without these luxuries, but she also proposes various cheaper substitutes for giving the additional flavour which the younger brothers and sisters at home may be supposed to require. In Cassel about 250 marks or £12 per annum is reckoned for the expenses of each cookery class and the teachers find this an ample provision. Where more practical cooking is attempted the expenses are greater, but the meals are free in almost all these schools. In Alsace-Lorraine the peasantry are said to be richer than in Baden and better food must therefore be provided if the children are to be able to cook for a household later. In part of Schaumburg-Lippe, where the old yeoman class still possesses the land and large estates are unknown, a simple housewifery school has been closed because the rich peasants insisted that their daughters should enter the more expensive school which had been opened close by for girls of the upper classes.

In schools where "a complete meal" is cooked the menu usually consists of either soup and meat, or meat and vegetables, or else soup or meat is cooked with some kind of pudding, but pudding is by no means a necessary constituent of a complete meal.

The teachers usually have considerable freedom in the choice of dishes. A list of main subjects is issued and round each subject suitable meals are grouped. The teacher can then choose the exact dishes according to the state of the market and time of year. Thus we have preliminary lessons on the care of the stove and utensils. These are followed by lessons on milk, meat, vegetables, grain, fats, starches, fruit, etc., etc. The chief subject for the day has also most prominence in the practical work, but suitable additions are chosen in order that the children may never lose sight of the hygienic necessity of a varied diet. In Karlsruhe the housewifery is as strictly organised as the needlework, and two menus are chosen for each week and no further choice is permissible in any class. This ensures uniformity of teaching and enables the inspectress to watch the classes more carefully, but the method would have disadvantages for teachers who are accustomed to a less circumscribed régime.

In Munich and Strassburg, where "complete meals" are the rule, the average cost is between 4d. and 6d. per head.

In Baden the cost is often as low as 2d. or 2½d., but here the needs of a poorer public must be borne in mind as the teaching, being compulsory, reaches the very poorest, and not only the children of the superior artisan who can afford to allow his child an extra year at school, as is still the case in Munich.

According to information supplied by the courtesy of certain trades union officials in Stuttgart, the average earnings of a skilled working man in the hardware trades amount to about 2½s. a week. Overtime is paid at the same rate, and though, of course, many

men can earn 30s. or more per week, a greater number sink below the 24s. and are in the same circumstances as the English unskilled labourer with his irregular 18s. to 20s. a week. Most of the wives do some kind of home work, the most usual in this particular district being machining for the underclothing factories. With hard work they can earn about 7s. a week in this way, but it must be remembered that these women belong to the skilled artisan class among whom the standard of home comfort and cleanliness is high, cramped as the dwellings necessarily are. In consequence women rarely earn as much as the 7s. if there are young children. As soon as the children are old enough they must help in the house in order that the mother may be free to work. Rents and taxes for two or three rooms and the share of a kitchen vary from 4s. 3d. to 11s. 3d. a week; in Berlin, roughly speaking, each room costs 3s. per week. Where the man lives outside the town and consequently pays a lower rent, much of the pecuniary profit is lost through travelling and the necessity of dining at a restaurant. The women of the labouring classes reckon to spend about 10s. a week on food. In a family consisting of a man and wife and two children, and reckoning the two children as one adult, this gives barely 6d. per head a day for food, and in the German food market 10s. has little if any greater purchasing power than in England. From these figures it is clear that the schools with their 2d. dinners are well calculated to meet the home needs of their scholars. Skilled workmen can afford a larger sum per head, but it is proportionately easier to plan school meals to meet the larger income.

In Cologne, in three or four schools where the children were cooking for the second time, all the classes were dining off different kinds of sausages, with the addition of potatoes prepared in various appetising ways, and, in one case, of the well-known *Sauerkraut*.

The Carlsruhe 2d. dinners naturally all consisted of almost the same dishes at the time when the classes were visited, and the children were cooking a kind of dumpling made from groats, egg, and bread-crumbs, and eating it with stewed prunes or other preserved fruit.

A more expensive meal in Munich was arranged as follows for a class who were nearing the end of the school year :—

MENU FOR 4 TO 5 PERSONS.

Liver-dumplings in Soup.		Beef.		Green Beans.	
	Pf.		Mk.		Pf.
½ lb. bullock's liver	22	1½ lb. beef	1'03	¾ lb. beans	15
Suet	6	1½ litre water	-	25 gr. butter	6
Onion, parsley, or marjoram	2	Seasoning (onion, etc.)	2	3 dessert-spoons flour, 1 of vinegar, salt and pepper	3
6 stale rolls	12				24
½ litre milk	6			5 rolls	10
1 egg	6				
½ dessert-spoons salt and water	-				
	Pf. 52		Mk. 1'05		Pf. 34

Total Mk. 1'91, or nearly 2s. per group.

There were only eighteen children in the last-mentioned class, but the teacher always shares the meal, and in this case the head-master of the school was also invited. Only one meal was cooked at each stove, and one girl in each group watched the cooking of everything, though the others did the mixing and preparing. Towards the end of the course most teachers give one or two lessons on preserving. This is very necessary, as the artisan's wife is in many parts of the country still expected to preserve fruit, vegetables and eggs for the winter, and nearly every dwelling is provided with a cellar for the storage of potatoes, fuel, etc.

### (iii.) *Equipment.*

The earliest school kitchens were very humble affairs. Some are still to be seen in the older schools or in country districts where it is very difficult to secure the extra funds for any innovation. In the modern schools every effort is made to make the kitchen as perfect and as attractive as possible. A room in the basement or on the ground floor is generally selected, but it must be well-lighted and airy and there are often windows on two sides. The floor is tiled or covered with a thick linoleum. The latter plan seems to be preferred by the teachers, as they find it easier to keep clean. Many of the old kitchens still have wooden floors.

Where possible, the pipes from the stoves are carried out under the floor, in order to reduce the heat of the room. A deep dado of tiles, generally white, with a blue, red, or green border, surrounds the room and occasionally reaches to the ceiling. At one end is a small platform, with the teacher's desk and chair, and behind her is the blackboard.

Some modern schools have the kitchen on the top floor, and this plan has great advantages. Not only are other rooms free from the smell of cooking, but the kitchen itself is beautifully light and airy. Such an upstairs kitchen, visited in Cologne, seemed to leave nothing to be desired when once one arrived there. The wide view and freshness of the air offered a strong contrast to the kitchens in neighbouring schools. The kitchen was big enough to have a large extra space free at one end. The floor was tiled, the walls painted white, and the cupboards and fittings were prettily shaped and painted in red and blue. Cream-coloured casement curtains hung at the windows, and though there was no luxury, the whole place had a most attractive air at once of simplicity and homeliness. A good larder and storage for coal and wood were provided on the same floor, also a private room for the teacher, this last being a feature of all the newer schools in Cologne. Above, the roof space was utilised for drying the kitchen washing, while the mangle and irons were in the kitchen. Other towns provide equally attractive rooms, but no basement room can give such an impression of brightness and airiness.

In furnishing the kitchen, the idea of groups or families regulates every detail. There are four stoves, four tables, with six stools each,

four cupboards with their complete sets of utensils—in fact, four of everything, so that each group may be in reality a complete and independent class. The sinks are often only a cold tap over a basin, but many towns have added washing-boards. Where this is not done, the washing tubs stand on the stools by their respective tables, on which the clean crockery and utensils are laid ready for the dryers. Where there are only four children in a group, everything is provided six times in each kitchen, the stoves and tables standing in pairs. The stoves stand in the middle of the room, so that all the children of a group can stand round them, but they are otherwise exactly like the stoves found in the kitchens of the district. In Munich an extra table, or rather set of three shelves, stands by each stove and holds the pastry-board and rolling pin, small brush and dust pan, etc. Most of the utensils are of cheap enamelled ware, though some schools have more than one kind in order that the children may learn all kinds of cleaning and how to preserve the better class articles. The taps are usually between the windows, and in Bavaria the space between them is filled by long narrow tables with a shelf below for pails, etc. Knives, forks, and spoons are kept in the table drawers. In Cassel, for example, each cupboard is furnished as follows for a group of four :—

1 market basket	6 small plates	3 large pastry-boards
2 tubs	1 (blue) colander	3 small pans
1 meat dish	1 soup tureen	1 large pan
1 water jug	3 small brown bowls	2 scrubbing brushes
6 glasses.	3 pots with handles	1 nail brush
1 salt box	3 iron pots	1 pot brush
1 sieve	3 blue pots	1 washing-up bowl
1 basket for wood	3 earthenware pots	1 brush and dust pan
6 crockery dishes	3 small pastry-boards	1 two-litre measure.
6 large plates		

Extra utensils and those for occasional use, such as cups and saucers, etc., are kept in a separate room which is provided for the general stores.

In Munich, where as many as three teachers sometimes use the same kitchen in turn, a buffet or sideboard is provided for each class, and in this the groceries and spare crockery are kept.

At least one of the stoves is heated by gas. In some places arrangements are made by which all the stoves can be adapted as gas stoves during the summer.

Each child has two kettle-holders connected by a long string by which she hangs them round her neck or waist. Washing half-sleeves are often worn, and, of course, aprons are compulsory. In the State school at Rheydt-am-Rhein the children cover their heads with neat little crotchet caps, and this gives them a very smart appearance. All these things are generally provided by the pupils, though the school may keep a store to supply occasional deficiencies. Special coarse canvas or waterproof aprons for cleaning and washing up are kept in most schools, and all the necessary cloths, etc., are also school property.

## C.—LAUNDRY WORK.

The German system of grouping all domestic teaching round the domestic hearth leads, no doubt, to a more complete correlation of subjects than is possible under the English system of separate courses. It also leads to less complete instruction in each branch, and the subject that seems to suffer most is laundry work.

Needlework and cookery rightly hold the most important places in the eyes of practical educationists, but, perhaps, the pre-eminence assigned to these subjects hardly gives the laundry a fair chance. Housework would also be included were the weekly cleaning of the kitchen which takes place after each cookery lesson less thorough. As it is, the ideas of cleanliness and order instilled are probably sufficient to serve for the work of the two or three rooms which will probably be in each girl's charge in later years.

English methods of teaching laundry work do not find much favour in the eyes of the German ladies. The severely simple equipment and methods prescribed in their schools probably point to a desire to keep this branch of teaching more or less in abeyance. This is in some ways a wise provision, for we must not forget that in the German elementary school four hours a week during one school year is the only time allotted to domestic subjects other than needlework.

Following the rule that the children must be responsible for all the work of the school kitchen, it is the kitchen linen which they learn to soak, wash, mangle and iron. Following also the German rule so strange to the English mind that the household is not to be upset by a weekly wash, these lessons in laundry work take place at stated intervals during the year, the towels, table linen, etc., being provided in sufficient quantities to last for several weeks. For example, in the Munich syllabus for continuation classes given in Appendix C., the 14th, 30th, and 37th lessons are "washing days," and the whole housewifery course occupies thirty-seven half-days.

Preparation for lesson 14 is made during the preceding week. Lessons are given on the different materials used in washing, *i.e.*, water, soap, soda, blue and starch. In elementary schools in other German towns this theoretical teaching is given in the kitchen, either in the intervals of the laundry work or in a previous lesson. On washing day the children receive either bread and butter or rolls with a cup of cocoa or chocolate, or a cold meal of sausage and salad or some similar dishes which do not require much preparation. If the lessons are held more often than once a week provision is made beforehand and cakes and biscuits are baked so as to be in readiness. Part of a second lesson is generally given up to ironing.

Special laundries are rarely seen, though sometimes the little room with a stove and copper which has been provided for the school-keeper is called into requisition.

In most schools the tubs are placed on the stools just as usual and the kitchen washing takes the place of the washing of utensils and crockery. A mangle is usually part of the kitchen equipment,

and in these schools no special stove is provided for heating the irons. No "fine ironing" is attempted and the table linen is hardly ever starched. The teacher goes as far as she professes to go; she teaches the daughters of working men to thoroughly cleanse cloths and dusters and the rougher sorts of table linen and to keep the contents of the linen cupboard in order and repair. Valuable hints may be given as to the management of bed and body linen, but the thorough German does not mean to attempt too much for the time at disposal, and therefore laundry work proper is chiefly a subject for more advanced housewifery schools.

#### D.—GARDENING.

In Cassel, Munich, Baden and other towns an attempt is made to combine a little practical botany with the housewifery lessons. Wherever it is possible, each class has its small patch of ground railed off from the playground. A few flowers are tended in the centre, but the growing and use of various herbs and vegetables form naturally the chief subjects of instruction. A special part of the exercise books is kept for the accounts of the gardens, and the times of sowing or planting, the progress of the plants, etc., are all described. In Cassel, for example, the school year begins in the spring, when there is a great deal to be done in the garden. At this time the children are not ready to do much cooking and it is easy for all to adjourn to the garden for a little while on fine mornings. As the summer advances, in the natural course of things, the garden requires less attention and the kitchen more.

#### E.—HYGIENE.

The hygienic part of the teaching is so closely combined with the practical work that perhaps the best idea will be given by a description of one or two lessons heard by the writer.

We will take first one given in Cassel.

The kitchen is a ground floor room, and has a tiled floor, a light green dado, and cream-coloured walls. Round the top are painted a series of such mottoes as: "Save in time, and you have in need," "The little kitchen builds the big house," "Your home is your kingdom—stay there," etc., etc. There is a cellar for wood and coal, and larder and store room for extra provisions and utensils.

The five and twenty children are bright and tidy, albeit the patched clothes of some tell of home poverty. They all answer to the numbers one, two, three and four, but the teacher knows most of their names, and uses the numbers as little as possible.

The lesson begins with recapitulation of the theory given previously. Everything takes the form of question and answer, and all answers are given in complete sentences. The lesson proceeds somewhat as follows:—

I.—(All children seated at their respective tables):—What are the constituents of the body and why do we need food? What

are the chief kinds of food, and why are they mixed? We are going to cook "milk soup." What should be added to make a complete meal? Other meals suggested to fulfil the same conditions..

- II.—Numbers 1, 2, and 3 fetch for each group a glass of sour milk, a strainer, and two plates.
- III.—Look at the milk. What are the parts of milk, and which is the cream, etc.
- IV.—Skim off the cream and strain the remainder of the milk through a cloth.
- V.—Here follows a short lesson on cheese, its manufacture and value as food. Then all the children turn towards the desk and the questions as to the parts of milk and the effects of souring, straining and skimming are repeated.
- VI.—Sour milk is a favourite dish in Germany, and is now, therefore, treated in some detail.

The children are already acquainted with the action of bacteria, the value of ice, boiling, covering, and, above all, of cleanliness in the preservation of milk. The digestion of milk and the action of the gastric juices are made comprehensible with the help of homely illustrations, and, at about nine o'clock, the recipe for the day is slowly evolved by question and answer, and written on the board as follows:—

Milk soup—for one adult or two children:—

$\frac{1}{2}$ litre milk	-	-	10 pf.	} Total 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 12 pf.—about 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ d.
3 dessert spoons of flour	-	-	1 pf.	
Some cold water	-	-		
Teaspoon of salt and dessert spoon of sugar	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ pf.	

A busy time follows:—Numbers 1 lay and light the fires, the two's rinse out, empty and refill the water wells, the three's buy the milk and flour from two girls who have been told off to keep shop, while the four's fill the washing basins, rinse and fill the kettles, and wash out the clothes that have been used for straining the milk.

VII.—The rest of the work is done in pairs and each couple cooks independently, though two portions are finally cooked together, thus making one for each stove. At this early stage, however, there are twelve little pots of milk on the fires and twelve bowls holding the mixture of flour and water. The teacher mixes the first bowl of soup, and then each pair cooks their own particular portion. The saucepans are then stood aside, to be warmed up again when required, the tables are cleared and covered with blotting paper, and, after a short interval in the playground, the recipes and accounts for the day are dictated, and the notes are indexed.

VIII.—If the weather is fine the class now migrates to the garden; on a wet day, the gardening notes are written up, and an extra polishing of knives or utensils fills any extra time. Before the tables

are laid, the guest who happens to be present hears an amusing discussion between teacher and children as to the best way to show hospitality. These discussions always result in a clean tablecloth, often a vase of flowers, and an extra plate, and nearly always an extra portion of soup, etc.

The meal follows, and provides opportunity for the practice of the politeness and good manners which are too often obscured in homes when the pressure of poverty is great.

The cleaning of kitchen, stoves and utensils is a cheering sight, especially if the appearance of the children suggests a deficiency of such care in their home upbringing.

Where more cooking is done the lesson is necessarily rather differently arranged, though to the superficial observer the difference may not be apparent immediately.

The kitchen equipment is the same, the children are divided into groups in the same way, and have their special duties told out to them.

When they arrive in the kitchen the work for the day is described, and the details are rehearsed until each child knows by heart what will fall to her share. This lesson is interrupted or may even be preceded by the practical work of lighting fires, filling water-wells and kettles, etc.

As the alternatives of practice and theory proceed, it becomes obvious that the demands of the former have caused the slow method of teaching by question and answer to give way to more direct teaching. The hygienic or scientific facts are the same as in other classes, but here the teacher repeats them slowly and distinctly, and makes different children repeat what she has said.

In Baden, this part of the proceedings is utilised as the reading lesson, and the girls read in turn passages describing the value or preparation of different kinds of food, the origin of rice, potatoes, sugar, etc.

Only a few practical directions are given at a time, and at frequent intervals the teacher rings a bell to call the class to attention, a few facts are perhaps again recited by teacher and pupils, and fresh directions are given.

Under this "dictation method" the children learn a great deal, and with young children it is easier to appeal to the memory than to the logical faculties.

Still, the observations made cannot be followed out into all their bearings on the home lives and experience of the children, as was prettily done in the course of the informal talk between teacher and pupils in one of the classes visited in Cassel.

Taken as a whole, it is easier to give a lesson according to this second method, and therefore better results are sometimes achieved with teachers and pupils of average capacity.

This fact probably accounts for the impatience with which the "Cassel-method" is often mentioned. The observer must decide for himself on the relative merits of the two systems. Each has its advantages, and the success of any given class depends more on the teacher than on her system of teaching.

Such lessons as these, varying only in the relative importance assigned to practice and theory, are now being given in many parts of Germany. The minute sub-division of duties which is necessary to keep all employed does not tend to give the children a good idea of their work as a whole. Each detail is learnt thoroughly, and where the children are drawn from the better-class artisan homes, as is undoubtedly the case in Cassel and Munich, the mothers are well able to initiate them gradually into more complete independence, while the fact that her child already knows how to set about each detail in the work is a great saving of time and energy to the busy overworked mother. The meal seems to be a very desirable institution. It connects the lesson with daily life in a practical way, the children gain in refinement, and the practical work acquires a more immediate interest.

In Baden the lesson often lasts only three hours, and the work of the teacher is complicated by the fact that a certain amount of reading, writing and arithmetic must be combined with the housewifery instruction. A special reading-book has been issued to meet this need, and the origin, value and preservation of food and of the materials used for furniture and clothing, are there described. Questions and answers, therefore, give place to reading aloud in these classes, and great attention is paid by the teacher to the diction and expression of the children. Scope for writing is given in the exercise-books which contain the recipes, and, considering the age of the children and the fact that no rough copies are made, these are everywhere wonderfully neat.

Munich gains considerably from the fact that the teachers who started the 8th classes are still in office and combine the enthusiasm of the pioneer with the experience gained by years of work. Extracts from the syllabus are given in Appendix C.

The general time-table is arranged as follows:—

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.		Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	
			(a)	(b)			(a)	(b)
8-9	Religion	Arithmetic	Cooking	Sewing	Religion	Arithmetic	Sewing	Cooking
9-10	German	German	"	"	German	German	"	"
10-11	Domestic Economy	"	"	"	Domestic Economy	Domestic Economy	"	"
11-12	—	—	"	—	—	—	—	"
2-3	Arithmetic	Domestic Economy			Arithmetic	Drawing		
3-4	Singing	Mending			German	"		
4-5	Drill*				Drill			

\* A detachment of the class often spends the time for drilling in gardening. The long pause, i.e., 11 a.m. till 2 p.m., is given in order that the children may help at home, should the mother wish. Extra lessons in French or in technical drawing may be taken if desired.

The children who attend the Continuation School (5-10 hours weekly), in preference to the 8th class, have many of the same lessons, but they are of necessity much reduced in number. Though only ten lessons can be given in the school kitchen, as much time as possible is still devoted to domestic subjects.

"German" stands for more than language and literature and includes also the lessons on health and education, which, in the hands of a competent teacher, prove almost the most interesting part of this curriculum.

The arithmetic consists chiefly of mental calculations based on the requirements of an ordinary household. The reading-book also furnishes some literature and a few stories, though it must be confessed that the choice of literature is limited by the desire to make everything turn on the education necessary for a good *Hausfrau* with all the domestic virtues.

The exceptional character of the curriculum of the 8th classes in Munich makes it necessary to consider the course as a whole. It is specially interesting from the fact that here rules of health and the care of children are more carefully taught than in other German cities. The cookery lessons are based on the method usual in Germany, but the composition of the menus and the necessary cooking are all learnt theoretically in a previous lesson. This enables the children to start practical work at 8 a.m., immediately on their arrival in the school kitchen, and the meal takes the place of the morning lunch and is served at about 10 a.m.

In Bavaria special teachers for housewifery are not employed. The authorities prefer that the same teacher should teach all the subjects in the class, and therefore the staff to whom the 8th classes are entrusted consists of teachers who are ordinary trained and certificated teachers who have in addition passed through a cookery class in the local housekeeping school. Before these classes were started, a deputation of teachers was sent to see some of the older German schools, but otherwise the Bavarian cities, under the leadership of Munich, have formulated their own methods. The cookery lesson does not gain by the substitution of the general teacher for the specialist. There is necessarily less assurance in the handling and division of the material, but it may be true, as is claimed by the authorities, that the general teacher has more power of correlating all the subjects in the time-table and of arousing a proper sense of their relative value and proportions in the minds of the pupils.

After learning what are the best kinds of bed and bedding for infants, how to feed, bathe and dress them, etc., the girls are taken to a crèche and there learn also how to sterilise milk. The care of older infants follows, and here something of a kindergarten training is given. The simplest materials are converted into fascinating toys at the smallest cost possible, the children have practice in telling stories, they sing the favourite action songs, and, in at least one class, each girl draws up a book of games and songs for children. These books are more or less illustrated, and some of

them give evidence of real artistic talent. Ordinary toys are not neglected; their uses and suitability for children of various ages are discussed, and there may even be an afternoon set apart for an exhibition of toys, followed by all the forty girls in the class forgetting their continuation school age and learning how to play themselves. This, however, is a rare treat; most of the school time is taken up with much more serious matters. The girls learn ordinary book-keeping, and also the laws relating to the conduct of a small business, the use of cheques, promissory notes, etc. They also learn the laws relating to domestic service, which are more precise in Germany than in England. Very useful lessons are given on the duties of a mistress to her servant, and the servant to the mistress, during which all the minor questions of "give and take," honesty as regards time, household rules, etc., are discussed. Such lessons ought to help towards a re-adjustment of domestic service, a problem which seems to be even more pressing in Germany than in England.

The lessons on manners are very entertaining. In short, though the curriculum contains a great deal of solid instruction, the whole tendency is distinctly humanising, a turning from formal school lessons, and the evident pleasure of the pupils shows that the course succeeds in fostering an intelligent interest in life outside the school. Most of the girls in these classes come from the lower middle and upper artisan classes, and servants are kept in many of the homes. When the 8th class becomes compulsory, many of the lessons will need some adaptation if they are to become comprehensible to the children of the poorest and to include the necessities and interests arising out of their home conditions.

### III.—TEACHING OF DOMESTIC SUBJECTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

#### A.—DAY SCHOOLS.

In 1830 the secondary schools for girls in Germany were all private and mostly conventual. Even now many schools of this class are private, and, of the public schools, the majority are supported by their respective municipalities and not by the State, which has hitherto concerned itself chiefly with the education of boys. These girls' schools are thus supported out of the town rates and taxes, as distinct from those raised by the State or province as a whole. The word "supported" is used advisedly, since the ordinary fees are not always equal to the cost of the institution, and any deficit is borne by the town, while the municipal director of education with his committee are the governors of the higher as of the elementary schools.

The higher education of girls has reached its present stage of development in spite of much opposition, and a great deal of its progress is due to the untiring energy of the Society of German Women (*Allgemeiner deutscher Frauenverein*) and kindred associations.

*Needlework.*

The usual higher girls' school (*Höhere Töchter Schule*) has a course covering ten years and the girls leave at the age of sixteen. Needlework is always taught during some or all of these years. In some cases it is dropped in the highest classes, when other work becomes more absorbing; in other schools it is not begun until the girls are ten years of age.

Two or three hours a week is the average time set apart for needlework, though this is often exceeded in certain classes. In Baden, for example, girls of ten and eleven have four hours a week in the sewing classes. The next three classes have three hours weekly, and in the two highest there is a weekly lesson lasting two hours, but attendance is optional.

The programme is very similar to that issued for elementary schools as far as the method and order of the work are concerned. The longer time and the better home circumstances of the pupils allow this programme to be somewhat extended. More drafting of patterns can be taught, the use of an ordinary sewing machine may be shown, and materials and finish suitable to the needs of the pupils are permitted. Indeed, the materials are sometimes too fine and must be trying to the eyes of the children, but there is always sure to be a school rule that sewing lessons are to be given at the brightest time of the day, when no artificial light need be used.

Some embroidery is generally included, and the best work from secondary girls' schools is often as good as that shown in a regular sewing school.

The arrangement and details of the work vary, but the programme given in Appendix D. gives an outline of the general scheme. Judging from the specimens shown with this programme, the time at the teacher's disposal suffices to produce very good work in each successive stage.

*Hygiene and Housewifery.*

In all these secondary schools, every class has regular lessons in natural science for an hour or more every week. It is not necessary to describe these lessons in detail. The elements of botany, physics, and physiology are the same in every country. The characteristic of the German teaching is the practical turn that these lessons are expected to take during the last year or two of school life. In the case of girls they develop insensibly into what is often termed in England "domestic economy." Elementary physiology becomes the chief science subject and the physics and chemistry already learnt are gradually applied to domestic problems. A certain amount of hygiene is also introduced.

This transition is well shown in the programme of science teaching for a girls' high school given in Appendix E. This example comes from Munich and its domestic side is more developed than is usually

the case. As Munich is an advanced city in regard to its continuation schools, so in the beautiful municipal secondary school for girls these lessons on "preparation for life" are more explicitly feminine in character than is usual elsewhere.

This is not the place to discuss the advisability of the introduction of domestic subjects into the already crowded curriculum of a girls' high school. All the arguments against their introduction into the elementary school would seem equally, if not more forcible here, where the girls are likely to have time and means to study them later.

It is sufficient to say that the educational authorities of Munich believe in impressing the whole of a girls' education with a housewifely trend.

This secondary or higher school for girls was founded in 1822 and reconstituted in 1874. It is housed with the liberality and beauty characteristic of the city and is divided into six classes for girls between the ages of ten and sixteen. All through the school two hours a week are devoted to the usual science lessons, which are combined from the 4th class onwards with what one might call domestic theory.

In the 5th class an extra hour is added; the 4th, 5th, and 6th classes have also one hour a week for lessons on health and the physical and mental development of children. It is this latter part of the syllabus that is so carefully developed. The earlier half might serve for any good girls' school in Germany. (*See Appendix E.*)

Syllabuses are apt to be misleading and in this case the reader must remember that it is drawn up for school-girls and shows what is aimed at more than what is actually accomplished. The lessons give a good grounding in elementary science, with many hints for turning such knowledge to account in the management of a home. They do not and cannot teach an immature girl of sixteen to actually apply and carry into practice all that is suggested. Hence there is always a need for recapitulation at a later stage when more practical work can rightly be attempted and mastered and the logical faculties of the girls are more fully trained. Most of the science learnt at school is relearnt by those girls of eighteen who enter a training school for housewifery teachers, or even one of the modern housewifery schools which do not aim further than to teach women to become intelligent mistresses of their households.

This early science teaching is not, however, wholly lost, despite this need for recapitulation. Housewifery teachers who have had experience of pupils both from secondary and elementary schools agree in saying that the former learn far more quickly to cook, bake and wash than the latter, whose home conditions would seem to give them the advantage in practical knowledge.

Needlework is taught as usual in the Munich school here described. The obligatory school hours are from twenty-seven to thirty weekly, but in addition there are extra optional subjects in the three highest classes which may raise this total to thirty-four or thirty-six hours.

One of these extra subjects is cookery, which is nominally optional, but, as in the elementary schools in Cologne, etc., is in reality taught to all the girls of the highest class.

As only twenty-four to thirty girls can work in the kitchen at the same time, the class has two divisions for this subject, and each division spends the usual half-day of four hours in the kitchen with its adjacent class or dining-room.

The arrangement and the plan of work are similar to those followed in elementary schools, but naturally progress is quicker, a fuller programme can be allowed, and the discipline can be less strict than among younger children.

Here, as in the continuation classes, cooking is taught by an ordinary certificated teacher who has taken an extra course of cooking lessons.

There is necessarily little to say about domestic training in the ordinary German secondary schools for girls. Probably the number of schools of the same class which include domestic subjects is greater in England than in Germany. In both countries the idea of including them at all is somewhat modern, and it is still doubtful whether the plan will be generally adopted. If the exception becomes the rule, some other subject will have to be curtailed, and the German girl who leaves school at the age of sixteen has not too much time for general education. The housewifery school is probably a better expedient for giving girls the practical knowledge so necessary in later life, and it is in this branch of education that Germany specially excels. These schools, however, belong to a later chapter.

#### B.—“FINISHING SCHOOLS.”

The boarding or finishing school in Germany is much like any school of the same class in England, and needlework and hygiene have the same place as in the time-tables of the day-schools which have already been described. There are, however, a few “finishing schools” for girls which are of a very different type.

These are the four schools of the *Diakonieverein*, the first of which was founded in 1894 by Dr. Zimmer, of Berlin-Zehlendorf. They are open to girls of sixteen and upwards who have passed through a higher girls' school. Two schools are in Cassel, one in the neighbourhood of Wilhelmshöhe, and the newest one, which has a more far-reaching time-table, has lately been opened at Berlin-Zehlendorf.

The aim of these schools is to prepare girls for the ordinary life and activities of cultivated women. They do not prepare for teaching or any other profession, but they profess to afford good preparation for those who wish to enter a training school for any branch of professional life later. All lessons are given in relation to the practical needs of life, i.e., history and geography are taught in connection with contemporary politics and travel, the natural science lessons of earlier years are brought into touch with

household problems, and while the girls take part in every detail of the household work, the artistic side of life is not neglected. Music is an extra of which the majority avail themselves, all learn singing, and, more important still, the house is dainty and homelike, and the girls are encouraged to arrange the pretty bedrooms nicely, and to keep the rooms bright with flowers. Extracts from the prospectus are given in Appendix F. The schools are well staffed with trained teachers, and even with thirty or forty pupils keep to their principle of being in the best sense a "home for girls" (*Töchterheim*). The full course lasts one and a half years and the cost is between £50 and £60 per annum.

The method here adopted is so interesting that it may not be amiss to transcribe a few extracts from a descriptive pamphlet written by one of the head teachers. Even allowing for the idealism which is apt to mar the reality of such a description, it gives a charming picture of the school life, and the happy tone of the place is not in any way exaggerated.

After describing the old-fashioned boarding-school and the attendant risks of unfitting girls for quiet home-life, the writer proceeds:—

"A change has taken place in our views about the position and duties of women. A woman can no longer be brought up 'only for the family.' A woman belonged in her house as long as there was enough work for her in the house, and our great-grandmothers could still give six daughters enough independent work with slaughtering, baking, brewing, sewing and dreesmaking for the whole family, with the care of visitors and of invalids, with washing and gardening. As industry, factories and machines, hotels and hospitals, more and more did the work that the women had formerly done at home, as societies took the place of private charity, and housekeeping became more and more simplified, women had to seek outside work in order to find a profession outside the walls of home, for work is the great law for all which we cannot disobey without great damage to ourselves and to society, without becoming absorbed in pleasure-seeking, sport and diletantism.

"The woman's sphere was not only changed, it was widened. We see now in society the broader family life, which for its prosperity needs all the available powers of the women. She must be a helpmeet to her husband in this wider sense and must learn to take her share in business, administration, and education.

"Such a change of duties naturally brings a change of education. A great movement of reform is altering the girls' schools . . . .

"Doubtless there are still schools in which the education is confined to foreign languages, painting, music and sewing, where afternoon and evening are devoted to amusement. In opposition to these there are more serious schools, which strive to prepare the young girls for the duties of the age, which aim at so developing character that they may work later in home and society as true wives and mothers, and that they may learn to govern and apply the mental wealth which has been given to them at school.

"What can the boarding-school accomplish in this way more than school and home?

"For one thing, the school can afford to engage better teachers than the parents who educate a daughter by herself at home. Then it is so difficult to learn household work at home. Many mothers have not time to teach and to watch their work being done with the clumsiness of the novice, while the cook either objects to her presence in the kitchen or else is overpleased and shields her from all the less pleasant work. Then, too, there are many little faults and habits which it is difficult to correct at home, or it may be that family

failings develop which are unnoticed there. In the large school party such things are more easily checked, while the companionship of a large number rubs off little angles and peculiarities, and the girl learns to stand on her own feet and be a responsible being.

¶ Naturally these advantages have their corresponding pitfalls. The girls may become spoiled because all the arrangements of the house are made for their sake, and their interests are everywhere the centre of attention.

“Among so large a number bad elements can also creep in. At such an impressionable age the girls are easily led into paths other than those striven after in the home of their parents—extravagant enthusiasms (*Schwärmerieien*)—that dangerous disease of these years can lame the will-power, cause dreaminess and loss of interest in reality, and for a time estrange from the family. Hence the choice of a school is of first importance, and parents must be in full sympathy with the aims and methods of the teachers.”

On these principles, Dr. Zimmer founded the *Töchterheime*, a list of which has already been given.

“It is no small task that we try to achieve in one year, and only girls in good health can be admitted to these schools. We have, however, the pleasure of seeing most of our pupils improve in health.

“The food must be simple, but good, strength-giving and abundant. Milk-drinking is specially desirable, and there are days when we take as much as a quart a head. Our doctor attaches special value to plenty of fruit and vegetables, the latter being unfortunately not very popular with the girls. Coffee and alcohol are not allowed.

“There is a daily walk of one hour, in winter soon after dinner, in summer about 6 o'clock. Every week one afternoon is given up to a longer expedition into the hills and the woods.

“Shall we glance at the life and work of the ‘home’?”

“At 7 a.m. the getting-up bell rings; prayers are at 7.30, and then cocoa or milk with white bread are served. Now everyone has to attend to her household, which changes every week; laying the tables, washing the china, cleaning the lamps, dusting, etc.

“Lessons begin soon after 8 and the different groups go into their different classes.

“We will first follow the cooking group. They collect for a theoretical lesson. The teacher describes the different kinds of food, their prices and food values, the best way to use what is left, etc. The menu and recipes for the day are dictated, and now all go into the kitchen in their pretty blue and white striped working dresses, with spoon, knife and kettle holders at the girdle. They work in pairs, and each pair has a special duty each week in addition to the cooking, such as to look after the stove, breakfast, store-rooms, etc. Each pair cooks a meal for four or five persons. How gay it looks when all the pots and pans are on the great stove and all the bright, happy faces are intent on their work. The girls enjoy baking most, and make everything from simple tea-biscuits to difficult tarts, which are decorated with original designs.

“Such a work of art is often sent home as a birthday gift. Fruit and vegetables are preserved in all kinds of different ways. Ten minutes before dinner all except two go upstairs to dress, and after dinner another group clears away and disposes of what is left.

“The other group, which was in the kitchen the previous week, has this week sewing lessons on some of the mornings. The object is to enable each girl to draft and make all ordinary undergarments.

“These lessons are interrupted by drill, in the open air if possible, and a pause for lunch.

“Other mornings are occupied with English and French lessons, drawing, visits to the picture gallery (a remarkably fine one in Cassel), and lessons on form. The last title needs some explanation. In this lesson the forms and customs of social life are taught. A group of about ten girls collects and

in an informal way we discuss our subject. The girls relate instances of bad manners in themselves or others that have struck them during the week ; we make known to them our own observations, and by means of this general discussion we are spared much wearisome daily fault-finding and at the same time self-criticism is extraordinarily educative.

"We discuss behaviour in lessons, at meals, on excursions. We practice bowing and introductions, we receive callers, instruct servants, clear up questions of tact, and are only sorry that the lesson is so soon over . . .

"Dinner is at one o'clock, and the afternoon lessons give us mental work. Bible-lessons and ethics illuminate questions of the day and the debates over the questions raised often last till bed-time. The same may be said of the lessons on education . . .

"The German literature lesson should cultivate judgment and a taste for the best reading, therefore we read and criticise good books with our pupils, books that can be borrowed from the school-library on Sundays.

"Recitation and dictation are other useful lessons.

"The health lessons teach the build and functions of the human body, and simple rules are given for avoiding illness both for ourselves and others. First-aid is taught by a doctor or an experienced nurse. Except in cases of infection the girls may help to nurse any case of illness in the house. The domestic science promotes an understanding of chemical and physical processes, as far as they affect the realm of the housewife, and gives also a knowledge of the apparatus, machines and foreign products which can be used.

"Domestic economy deals with heating, lighting, washing, beds and cleaning, and is accompanied by practical work under a teacher who with her group carries on the housework. As a woman must have some knowledge of the government of the country, social law and insurance, in order not to be helpless and ignorant when difficulties arise in her own or other families, we give citizenship lessons to teach the chief facts that are likely to be needed. Compositions in the form of letters, presentations, reports, etc., give practice in style and in forms usual in social and commercial intercourse.

"We also find it a good thing to teach our pupils to use a railway guide ; that they can do for themselves, that they ought to do and not rest content in the knowledge of their own ignorance or inexperience. For this reason it is also necessary for them to learn more arithmetic and accustom themselves to domestic book-keeping ; one to two hours weekly are given to this.

"The knowledge gained is not sufficient for commercial purposes, but it enables the girls to keep methodical and accurate household accounts. This must be also done with their personal expenses. From time to time they must send an exact account of these to their parents.

"We are very anxious to train them in principles of economy. It is of educational value for them all to have the same amount of pocket-money (6s. to 8s. a month), out of which they pay for excursions, theatres, postage and presents . . .

"The evenings are so arranged as to give both rest and recreation. We have singing, sewing, and reading aloud, and a dancing lesson once a week.

"A special favourite is the lecture evening. Certain girls prepare a short lecture on a theme of their own choosing, for example 'Training in Truthfulness,' 'Beauty in the Home,' 'How to tell Bible Stories to a Child,' etc. Lively discussions follow and give an insight into many social questions.

"We endeavour to awaken and strengthen interest in these questions through lectures by experts during the winter, while we give the girls opportunities for practical work.

"We visit with them a hospital, a *crèche*, a home for waifs and strays, and one for imbeciles. Some of them take part with pleasure in a children's service. Others visit and read to the poor old folks, chat with them, and even help them with their housework.

"The happiest time in the whole year is before Christmas ; we dress dolls and make pinafores for a free kindergarten, tiny shirts for the little ones in a *crèche*, mend up old clothes which can be given away, and try in all ways to rouse the joy of giving and of care for others . . ."

A description of the cheerful Sundays and birthdays and other festivals follows, and there are few words on the aims of the school and the anxiety of the teachers to avoid all overstrain and superficiality. This is no professional course, simply a preparation for a full and complete private life.

"At the same time, we never lose sight of our other aim, which is to encourage every girl to choose an independent calling which is not only to be a refuge after a time of idle but unsuccessful waiting for marriage.

"Every girl, even the daughter at home, should have her own calling, her sphere of responsibility—otherwise the feelings of being misunderstood and of discontent arise, for through them every unused force revenges itself.

"If God leads a girl to a righteous marriage, all that she has learnt and conquered comes to her aid. If her life turns out otherwise, she must be able to stand bravely and happily on her own feet. She must be so brought up that marriage shall never be to her simply a refuge from need, and on the other hand her work outside marriage must also not appear to her purely a matter of economic necessity. . ."

True and wise words these, and a happy picture they give of wise and womanly educational effort. It is a peaceful picture, too, in these days of pressure and examinations. Such a school life is impossible for most girls who must hurry from school to college and from college into professional life, and yet one cannot help wishing that some such influence might leaven our modern system of education. Many of the pupils of the *Töchterheime* are now married, but a large number have passed on to the training courses for teachers, the commercial school, and the hospital and are now leading useful lives in the professional world without feeling any drawback from the change given by the combination of practice and theory in the "finishing school."

These schools have been described at some length, because they give, as far as practical work is concerned, a fair picture of the work done in many of the resident housewifery schools for girls of eighteen and upwards. We find there, too, the same desire to train all-round character, to arouse interest in social questions and social work, and to give an intelligent appreciation of music, art and literature. The spirit is the same among all these enlightened teachers and patronesses, though naturally more of the serious and scientific work may be expected from girls of maturer age.

A school for poorer girls which also gives a sort of secondary education is the Luise School of the Society of Women of Baden, at Karlsruhe. It is open to the daughters of country clergymen, teachers, civil servants, etc., who desire for their daughters a better education than is afforded by the local primary schools, but who cannot afford to pay the full fees of ordinary secondary schools. The yearly cost for those who have not scholarships is about £31, which covers everything except the materials for sewing and other lessons. The school is thirty-five years old, but has been re-built. There are seventy or eighty pupils and six teachers. Six servants are also kept for the rougher work of the house, which is beautifully large and airy and has large dormitories and class-rooms and pretty reception rooms, chapel, and sick-room.

There are two divisions in the school, one for girls between fourteen and sixteen, and a higher one for girls over sixteen years of age. The girls in the junior division spend each morning (8 to 12 a.m.) in the sewing classes, where some very perfect hand-sewing is to be seen, as well as nicely cut-out and finished garments. In the afternoons lessons are given in Bible history, German, French (optional), geography and history, natural science and domestic economy, drawing, singing and drill. The senior class is for girls between sixteen and seventeen, and domestic economy takes the place of history and geography, while drawing develops into pattern-drafting for the more advanced dressmaking and embroidery which are now taught.

All the girls in this class pass three months in the kitchen and have also special lessons in fine ironing. The school is always well filled, and a considerable number of scholarships open its doors to girls who would otherwise be compelled to forego the advantages of a secondary education.

#### IV.—DOMESTIC SUBJECTS IN TECHNICAL SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

##### A.—GENERAL FINANCE AND GOVERNMENT.

When we come to the regular technical schools and classes where domestic subjects are taught in Germany, we find even more variety than in England, where, if under different county authorities the arrangements are dissimilar, at least the schools are nearly all destined to meet the needs of the poorer classes of the population. The classes for high-class cookery in English technical institutions present very little variety, and the combined housewifery courses open to girls of the upper classes are few and far between, especially in resident schools. The abundant provision of evening schools in many towns and peripatetic courses in some of the counties have their parallel in Germany, though this special division in domestic schools has reached a greater development in England.

The great impetus given to technical teaching in England by the passing of the Technical Instruction Acts of 1889 and 1891 and the Local Taxation Act of 1890 has been wanting in Germany, where there is also nothing to take the place of the Swiss Federal Resolution (1900), which gives such liberal aid to technical classes for girls, or of the general government organisation of these subjects in Belgium (Circular of 1889).

In the absence of such general encouragement from the authorities the magnificence of the German buildings and equipment is all the more surprising. Many technical schools for girls now belong to the municipalities, three belong to the State, and the rest have been built by societies. In many of these schools the fees of the students, coupled sometimes with the sale of school work and produce, pay all current expenses, but the actual purchase or erection of suitable buildings are eloquent of the self-sacrifice and

public spirit of the private friends of girls' education. There are still many schools in old and more or less unsuitable buildings, but most of the newer ones, especially in such towns as Berlin, Stuttgart and Hanover, are built with a generosity in space and equipment which is probably unparalleled in the private institutions of any other country.

The management is usually vested in a committee. As in other countries, government or municipal aid entails a certain amount of inspection and representation on the governing committee, but the inspection at least often exists more in theory than in practice. On the other hand, the lady members of the committee generally take their duty with that earnestness and thoroughness which is always said to be a German characteristic; they give up a great deal of time to their schools, and often help out the finances by providing regular help to the staff, while in some cases the superintendent is also an honorary official.

These technical schools may be roughly divided into three groups :

- (a) Sewing schools.
- (b) Cookery courses.
- (c) Complete housewifery schools.

One or two technical schools provide courses in laundry-work, ironing alone or housework, but these are few and far between and do not call for detailed description.

In large towns all of these schools are often combined in one building. This is the case in the Lette-Haus in Berlin, in the school of the Women's Society in Hanover, in the State schools in Rheydt, Potsdam and Posen, and in many other places. Even where this is the case, the branches are often more or less distinct and have been started at different times and have developed independently of each other.

#### B.—SCHOOLS OF NEEDLEWORK (*Frauenarbeitsschulen*).

The sewing schools were the first technical schools for women to get a firm footing in Germany and Austria, and they are still more numerous than any other kind of girls' technical schools.

They were mostly started in order to train poor and respectable girls as needlewomen, dressmakers, or embroidresses. In most schools this object has now become a secondary one, and the majority of pupils come to learn to make and repair their own clothes, or else to train as teachers of needlework.

Contrary to English and Swiss experience, the German teachers have seldom found it necessary to separate the private from the trade classes, and one rarely finds a course, such as some recently started under the London County Council, which is a substitute for ordinary apprenticeship. It may be that the German training is more business-like than that given in other countries, but it is also probable that the workroom requirements are rather less specialised than is certainly the case in a large business in England.

Regular needlework schools owe much of their progress to Wurtemberg, where they originated, and where they have attained their greatest development.

It is no longer possible to point to any particular school as producing the best work. The standard is everywhere very high, and if there is some variation in artistic expression it would be impossible to surpass the delicacy and beauty of the work done in the chief schools in Vienna, Strassburg, Carlsruhe, Reutlingen or Ulm, not to mention several other towns.

Reutlingen (South Wurtemberg) holds the parent school of needlework for a large part both of Germany and Switzerland. That part of Wurtemberg had long been celebrated for the work of the women, but between forty and fifty years ago it was realised that the old race of artistic needlewomen had died out, and that there was no one who could undertake the elaborate embroidery required for banners, church vestments, and the like. Accordingly an artist undertook to teach one or two women, in the hope of reviving the lost art, and out of this small beginning has sprung the famous municipal school of Reutlingen, and fifteen others in Wurtemberg alone, not to mention numerous other schools in the surrounding countries and States. The Reutlingen school was founded in 1863; between 1870 and 1889, 269 teachers were sent out, of whom forty-seven were working in Wurtemberg, fifty-two in other parts of Germany, and twenty-six in foreign countries, one of them in Manchester. The syllabus is given in Appendix G as an example for this class of school.

#### *Fees, Hours, etc.*

The courses for private pupils generally last three months, but most girls stay longer and pass through more than one class.

In such subjects as handsewing, machining or dressmaking, the lessons are given daily, either for three or four hours in the morning or the afternoon, or else the pupils come twice a day.

In millinery, embroidery and ironing the lessons are often given only twice or three times a week, and in any case millinery is far less popular than in England.

In certain classes which correspond more nearly to the English girl's club than anything else in Germany outside Berlin, the fees are nominal, or else the instruction is free. In all cases they are as low as is consistent with the proper working of the school. Roughly speaking, they work out at about one penny an hour, but this estimate is exceeded in some cases, and is too high in others.

#### *Method of Teaching.*

In general, every course is complete in itself and may be attended without reference to any other part of the school, if the intending pupil can prove that she already knows enough to profit by the instruction. Some schools insist that all shall learn handsewing

before proceeding to any other class, but even when the rules both as to sequence of classes and sequence of work appear most strict, a good deal of latitude is generally allowed to suit the individual requirements of the pupils.

From twenty to thirty pupils are admitted into an ordinary class; if the number is exceeded an assistant teacher is appointed or a parallel class is started. Drawing is usually taught as one accompaniment to some or all of the classes. In all courses for dress-making or underclothing, pattern drafting is compulsory, embroidery is usually accompanied by lessons in design, and in some schools all pupils learn elementary drawing from the round for the sake of the training this gives in accuracy of observation.

The sequence of work is most defined in the Wurtemberg schools, where it is the rule that no pupil shall attempt to carry out work which she cannot design and draft for herself.

This is particularly interesting in connection with the embroidery. All designs are developed from nature studies; leaves, flowers, fruit, etc., are sketched in natural size and then combined and conventionalised to suit the work in hand. If real artists are scarce among the pupils, the result is a higher general level in taste than can be found where pupils are allowed without knowledge or observation to use any design which can be bought or obtained from teacher or friends. Design is taught in the same way in other parts of Germany, but the effect on the average work is less striking where drawing and work are not so closely combined and the pupils are allowed to let the needlework get in advance of their power of drawing and planning for themselves.

Courses in handsewing are generally arranged for beginners. The usual plan is to begin with a sampler of some kind showing all the different stitches, and then to teach all kinds of patching and fine darning. Generally, the simpler kinds of white embroidery are added, in order that the pupils may at least be conversant with all kinds of marking, and some of these courses end with drawn-thread work. Very fine stitching is often shown, but some of the more modern schools allow the machine pupils to do long seams, etc., as they say that the time should be spent on work which can be better done by hand than by the machine and not *vice versa*. Some simple undergarments are usually made in these classes.

In many schools pupils are only accepted for a machining course when they have passed through the class for plain sewing. In this second course all kinds of undergarments are made, including men's shirts. Needless to say, the pupils have also lessons in drafting all that they make, and often shapes and forms which are not actually carried out are entered in the elaborate "pattern-books."

In some schools the garments are first made in reduced size in muslin. In the *Frauenarbeitsschule* in Dresden, for example, all garments are made first to fit rather large dolls. It is, however, more usual to find pupils from the first providing their own materials and making garments for themselves. Most dressmaking courses begin with a plain blouse and a petticoat, and then the pupils pass

from these simple forms to complete dresses and costumes. Large samplers are sometimes made first from odd pieces of material in order to give practice in all kinds of stitching, boning, pleats, tucks, gathers, etc., and the sewing on of hooks and eyes and loops.

Each of the older schools has its own method of teaching drafting and cutting out, and a great number of different text-books has been issued. The courses all begin and end alike, and the work achieved at each stage shows little variety. Some teachers believe in drafting a great number of different patterns and the walls of their class-rooms are hung with a great variety of sleeves, bodice-parts, etc.

Others show very few patterns; they give rules and proportions for cutting out each different garment in a simple style and train their pupils to adapt these patterns to varying fashions.

This was especially noticeable in the case of a teacher at Rheydt, who, after teaching her class to draft and put together what one might call a simple ground form, made them evolve from it a princess robe, a "reform dress," a dressing gown, a tea-jacket, etc.

In the later stages excellent work worthy of a first-rate business establishment is often accomplished, and this does not by any means apply only to the largest towns. There is, on the whole, very little stereotyped following of any one method. Most of the training schools aim at developing the ingenuity of the students: adaptability is a necessary quality in a country where local characteristics are so strongly marked, and most teachers realise the necessity of somewhat varying their methods to meet the comprehension of each fresh set of pupils.

In Ulm, for example, at one day's notice a small exhibition was arranged in every department. The work was all remarkably good, but of the dresses and blouses especially it was difficult to believe that they were mostly the work of girls who were only learning the art as amateurs. This school is a particularly interesting one in many respects. There are double courses both in machining and dressmaking, and a great many girls stay two years at the school. It seems to be in every way a part of the town life. The same thing was very noticeable in Reutlingen and is apt to be wanting in newer or more officialised schools.

At the Ulm school, great care is taken not to diminish the home ties of the girls, and whenever a pupil is wanted by her mother for any special occasion, leave of absence is readily given by the head teacher, whose aim is in every way to supplement the home life and training, and in no way to supplant it. Pupils who wish to enter a trade stay at least two years in the dressmaking classes and are often three years in the school. Local employers are so anxious to secure these girls that they cannot be trained quickly enough to meet the demand for their services. As in many other schools, the classes are very mixed socially, and the superintendent finds that this has a good effect on all classes of pupils.

Here, and in some other schools, orders are executed so that

girls who cannot afford to supply much material for themselves are given a chance to work through the whole programme. At Ulm such pupils receive their earnings in full, but it is more general to deduct about 10 per cent. for the benefit of the school.

At Esslingen, needlework teachers from the neighbourhood who are temporarily without work can also return to the *Frauenarbeits-schule*, and employ themselves on the school orders, and thus earn something while they are seeking a suitable post.

Millinery classes are often only held for three months in the year. Good lessons are given both in Vienna and Berlin.

In the Viennese school (*Frauenwerb Verein*) four courses are held every year; each course lasts from two to three months, and the lessons are given twice a week and last three hours. The pupils begin by learning to make simple shapes and all kinds of hats and bonnets and also to arrange trimmings for dresses, etc.

In the Lette-Haus in Berlin pupils come for at least four months; the weekly lessons and hours are the same as in Vienna.

During the first month the pupils prepare a sample card showing all kinds of rosettes, frills, bows, bandeaus, etc., which are mostly made of stiff muslin. The second month is occupied with fancy pincushions, sachets, etc., in order to give practice in the dainty handling of delicate materials, and afterwards come children's bonnets and then shapes for ordinary hats and bonnets.

Embroidery is hardly a "domestic subject," but mention at least should be made here of the exquisite work that is done both by private and trade pupils. The schools are all deeply imbued with the modern spirit, and in some places the designs are distinctly secessional, both in form and colouring.

There is, however, so much excellent work from an artistic point of view, that it would be unfair to deprecate the teaching on account of occasional exaggerations in style. There are few places where the work is not technically perfect, though here the racial differences of the different states are manifested in the varying degrees of delicacy and daintiness of touch. The white embroidery is generally especially striking, but the endeavour to apply artistic principles to all articles used in the home is, perhaps, the most noticeable feature of this side of the work in the needlework schools as far as the present paper is concerned.

Every school and every course has its fixed programme of work, but one generally finds that this is fairly elastic, and that only the first two or three items must be strictly adhered to. Afterwards the requirements and capacity of each individual pupil are taken into account, and subject to the consent of the teacher, girls make mostly "what they like."

Good examples of sewing-schools for girls of the working classes are to be found in Stuttgart and Munich.

In Stuttgart the Charitable Society (*Wohltätigkeits Verein*) maintains a central sewing school, or rather two parallel schools, and three branch schools. Fourteen trained teachers are employed,

and there are about thirty girls in a class together. The course lasts nine months and is free; the girls spend six weeks machining, six weeks mending, and the rest of the time is given to hand-sewing. If they wish to learn dressmaking they stay three months extra and work for themselves. When they first enter the classes for white sewing they also make something simple for their own use, but the school takes orders and is therefore partially self-supporting, and as soon as the girls can be trusted not to spoil material they take their share in the general "bespoke work," for which they receive a small wage. The rooms are airy and well lighted and have a very neat appearance, as the tables are all furnished with shelves, and therefore do not get littered. The school hours are from 8 to 11.30 a.m. daily, and from 2 to 5 p.m. on four days in the week.

In Munich the classes are held by the ladies who own the Home for Working Girls, a homely boarding-house for better-class working girls whose homes are at a distance, combined with a registry office and an excellent scheme for apprenticing young servants.

The sewing classes are held twice a week, from 7.30 to 9.30 p.m.

The course lasts four months and costs about 2s. Pupils provide their own material, and the strictness of the rules regarding punctuality and regularity of attendance bears witness to the popularity of the classes. Embroidery, crochet, and fancy knitting are forbidden, but all kinds of mending are taught, also elementary dressmaking and white sewing. Ironing courses are held at the same time, but these only last two months, and the charge is 5s. for the course.

There are many such classes in Germany, some of them wholly devoted to mending, and the rules are always stricter than has so far been found possible in any such classes in England. The classes are generally well attended, and many of the girls and women are doubtless very poor, but they rarely belong to the lowest ranks, to that class which furnishes the unskilled factory girl, and which does exist to a certain extent in Germany, though the stranger can only find it after some seeking.

The country sewing schools are like the big town schools in miniature. There are a great many in Alsace and Baden, and good examples may be found at Rastatt and Radolfzell.

In Dornbirn (near Bregenz) Herr Haemmerli, a large employer of labour in the neighbourhood, has built a charming housewifery and sewing school, which is free to the employées or the families of employées. The sewing courses last eight weeks, and the pupils come either from 2 to 5 or from 6 till 8 p.m., fourteen being admitted to each class. They are supposed to make only the simplest of garments, but in reality they have great freedom of choice.

The splendid buildings and equipment of the large town schools have been mentioned more than once. Some are in houses built expressly, but many are housed in fine old buildings, whose wide staircases and fine airy rooms have made them easily adaptable to the requirements of a school.

This is the case with the famous school at Reutlingen, which

occupies a beautiful house, standing in a large shady garden. It holds about 150 pupils, and those who come from a distance are placed with families in the town under the superintendence of the school authorities. The Wurtemberg Rules about pupils drawing all their own work originated here. Each course lasts three months, with daily attendance from 8 a.m. to 12 a.m., and from 2 p.m. till 5 p.m. Most of the pupils stay two years. Here one sees the different kinds of fancy wool-work, lace, etc., for which the Reutlingen district has been famous for generations. Most of the teachers have been many years in the school, which hardly seems like an institution, so happy is the relationship between teacher and pupil, making the classes seem more like large families than school classes. Reutlingen is justly proud of its pioneer school, and it is claimed that the school influence has much improved the public taste of the neighbourhood as regards dress and ornament (*see Appendix G.*).

The Strassburg sewing school is nearly thirty years old; after eight years in private hands it was taken over by the local branch of the Women of the Fatherland (*Vaterländischer Frauenverein*). About 50 per cent. of the pupils learn for home use, and after mastering the necessary preliminaries and samplers the programme is very elastic. Contrary to the ideas most prevalent in Germany, the head-mistress is not particular to have only trained teachers, still less to have them all trained in her own school. She believes in introducing fresh ideas, and therefore usually engages a head dressmaking teacher from Brussels and an embroidress from Vienna. Drawing is not compulsory here, but it would be impossible to find more perfect work.

The great sewing school of Carlsruhe is housed in one of the group of buildings erected by the Women's Society. The classes are held in huge rooms, holding about fifty-six pupils. Each teacher is responsible for sixteen pupils. The teachers, who are trained in the school, are distinguished by their white caps, with little black velvet bows. There are nineteen courses held in the school, and some of them are in three parallel divisions. Each course lasts thirteen weeks, and is held three times a year.

The chief courses are hand-sewing, machine-sewing and dress-making. These are held from 8 to 12 every morning, and the corresponding classes for pattern drafting are held on two afternoons from 2 till 4 o'clock. The additional courses are so arranged that pupils attending the chief courses can learn one or more kinds of fancy-work at the same time. All the work is very good, including the embroidery, though a separate school is reserved for those pupils who wish to master this art more thoroughly.

It would be easy to multiply examples of the German sewing schools, each of them of equal interest and with special characteristics, but perhaps enough has been said to give the reader an oversight of the general system and principles.

Similar schools exist in Switzerland and there are analogous

courses in many of the English continuation schools and technical schools, but probably the most complete development of teaching in all branches of what they call "woman's handiwork" is to be found in Germany.

Ironing courses, apart from the necessary pressing of garments made in the ordinary classes, are held in many schools. At Cassel, pupils spend six hours a week in this course, for which 10s. 6d. a quarter is charged.

In Munich, the course includes fine washing, ironing and polishing, and lasts either nine or twelve weeks, the pupils attending for 32 hours weekly.

In the large school of the *Frauenerwerb Verein* in Vienna, the lessons are given daily from 8 a.m. to 1 p.m. or from 1 p.m. to 6 p.m.

There are free places for those who wish to become ironers, and these scholars must attend daily for four months. Other pupils come for one month or less, and there are also classes lasting two weeks, with a daily attendance of three hours either in the morning or the afternoon. The fee for the latter is 8 *kronen*, or about 6s. 6d.

These ironing courses are not particularly popular, and the equipment is often less lavish than that accorded to other subjects. The room is generally in the basement, and though rarely deficient in light and air, they are not so strikingly attractive as the various sewing-rooms. Round stoves are generally provided for heating the irons and the work is done at long tables. If the course includes washing, the laundry is usually an adjoining room, furnished with a large copper, and various large tubs for the actual washing. That these movable tubs have one advantage, was seen at Dornbirn, near Bregenz, where the household wash takes place about once in ten weeks. The tubs had all been moved out into the garden and the washing was going on in the fresh air under the trees.

Both in the separate courses and in the resident housewifery schools there is a tendency to diminish the actual washing as much as possible. Where there is a large household, one or more washer-women are engaged, and the teachers say of this as of other rough work: the girls do enough to know how to do it.

When one examines the garments hanging round an ironing-room the estimation in which this subject is held in contrast to others becomes at once apparent. The work is all good, practical and sufficient for the ordinary needs of life, but it lacks what one might call the professional finish which is the general characteristic of the other work done in technical schools for girls.

In the resident schools the equipment is generally better, and care is taken to save labour as much as possible. In the resident housewifery school in the *Lette-haus* in Berlin there is even an automatic washer, which saves a great deal of labour, a great consideration in a household of 150, where no servants of any kind are permitted.

#### C.—COOKERY COURSES.

Detached cookery courses for girls are apparently losing their popularity in Germany, and, to a less extent, in Austria. A great

many are still held, but their inferiority to the complete housewifery course is so patent that they are often only regarded as a makeshift, suitable for country places or for girls who must learn the technique of cookery with the least possible delay. In many places, the old cookery course has been extended to include at least the elements of hygiene and a few practical lessons on housework.

The method of instruction is not radically different from that employed in elementary schools. The group system still prevails, though the group diminishes in number the higher the class of school, and naturally the syllabus grows at the same time more and more complicated. A very general plan is to let two pupils work together and cook a complete meal, consisting of four or five dishes, for a certain number of persons. Other teachers let their pupils work alone and each is responsible for one dish. Many schools are less definitely organised, especially where the teaching is only just emerging from the stage of being simply an opportunity to cook.

The number of pupils in a class varies; it is rarely more than twenty-four for a teacher, and it is often considerably less in a high-class school.

The kitchens are nearly always combined with restaurants, where regular guests have *abonnements* or serial tickets. Sometimes these dining-rooms are reserved for ladies, but very often they are open to both men and women. The cost is moderate, and the pupils take it in turn to wait, but the responsibility of preparing a restaurant dinner entails much extra anxiety on the teacher, particularly when, as often happens, the pupils are all new together, a fact which the guests are not supposed to guess from the quality of the food served. On the other hand, much extra scope is given for practice by introducing the restaurant dinner. Very often two distinct menus are cooked, one for the guests and one for the pupils, and orders are taken for parties, receptions, etc., and thus the advanced students have practice in high-class cookery without the extra expense which probably often acts as a deterrent to English girls. Fees and syllabuses vary according to the class of pupil expected in any particular school. Schools with restaurants are always open, and the teachers go on leave in turn in the summer, taking it in turns to share the work of the absentee, unless the school can afford to engage a *locum tenens*.

Classes for working girls are held in many towns, and it is here that many employers of labour have shown great generosity. Six Cassel-trained teachers are entirely employed by large factory owners to teach the families of their employes, and many of the short peripatetic courses have to thank local manufacturers in part, if not altogether, for their existence.

The pretty school at Dornbirn, near Bregenz, has already been mentioned. It belongs, in fact, to three of our categories, as resident housewifery courses, sewing courses, and day and evening cookery classes are all held beneath its roof.

Herr Krupp, the famous manufacturer of silver and pewter ware, has a small school in Berndorf, near Vienna. This is only an evening school for girls belonging to the families of factory hands or who themselves work in the factory. The lessons are given on five evenings in the week for three months, and six girls are admitted to each class. Those who have passed through a cookery class have the privilege of entering one of the sewing classes, a much more popular subject in this neighbourhood. Sewing is free, but cookery pupils pay 2d. an evening for their supper, a fee that does not nearly cover the cost of the food provided.

The girls come straight from work, which ceases at 5 o'clock. The class hours are nominally from 5 p.m. till 8 p.m., but the lesson lasts little more than two hours. After nine hours' work as a wrapper, packer or burnisher, a longer lesson would be useless, as the girls often arrive tired, and many live at some distance from their work. This school is rather experimental, and the original and generous plans of the founder have been much modified in consequence of the local opposition, which is often aroused by an experiment, particularly in a conservative country district.

The firm of Henschel, manufacturers of locomotives, heavy machines, etc., in Cassel, have also done a great deal for the welfare of their workpeople. They have built model dwellings which are let at a very reasonable rent, though, according to the universal town custom in Germany, these are in the form of the great block buildings which are generally inhabited from necessity in London and often can hardly find tenants in English provincial towns.

A pretty little cookery school, with apartments for a resident teacher, is established on the first floor of one of these buildings, just above the large assembly hall. Here free lessons are given to workmen's daughters who have left school. The standard of food is rather higher than that in the kitchens of the elementary schools, being what they call "good burgher's fare," as befits the family of a skilled artisan.

The kitchen, dining-room and storeroom are bright and roomy. The girls come daily in the mornings, and cookery courses, lasting three months, alternate with classes for ironing, washing and mending, which last only two months. One month's holiday is given after each five months' work. A trained teacher is employed, and the firm give her the same right of pension as she would have as a teacher engaged under the regular education authorities. A good many girls stay a whole year, and some of them are induced by their school experience to enter service. They are not of the social class from which factory girls are drawn, and as there is no opening for female hands at the Henschel factory and very little in Cassel, service or commercial work provide the natural openings, particularly for the daughters of skilled workmen.

Where the philanthropic employer is absent—and he is still wanting in a great many neighbourhoods—his place is often taken by the philanthropic association. Good examples of such cookery classes for working women are to be found in Cologne. Munich and Vienna,

but a complete list of these classes would be a long one, were it possible to draw one up.

Evening classes for working boys and girls are in sensible disfavour in most parts of Germany, though it is doubtful whether the practice of opening secular and technical Sunday schools is much to be preferred. As we have seen, efforts are being made in Bavaria to supplant these old Sunday schools, and in Baden this is already accomplished. Further north, Sunday is still eagerly used as an opportunity to teach "something useful."

In Cologne, more than one of these Sunday cooking classes may be seen. One school admits thirty working girls, and charges about 3d. a head for the meal which they cook and eat together.

The Women's Society has a private school where week-day and Sunday classes are held, the latter being exclusively for working girls. About twelve attend on an average, but they enter when they like and come very irregularly. These girls come mostly from such trades as hand chocolate-making, fine ironing, or dressmaking, and are generally anxious to learn, especially when they are prospective brides, as is frequently the case. The school is open from 9 a.m. till 1 p.m., thus leaving time for the indispensable Sunday outing.

In Munich, we find an example of the old-fashioned evening classes. These are also under a private society, and are very popular. The girls come twice a week for eight weeks, and pay a fee of about 3s. Until new premises can be found, only twelve girls can be admitted at once, and parallel and rather more expensive classes have been started for counter and office girls in order to meet the great demand for admittance. Sometimes a forewoman comes with eleven of her girls, and such a class is always specially successful. The lessons are given in the usual way, and two are chosen to serve the meal, which consists of such dishes as vegetable soup, a cheap meat dish, and pickled cabbage, or some other inexpensive vegetable.

The evening classes in Vienna and about sixteen other Austrian towns owe their origin to a small evening school for factory girls which was started in 1892 at the instance of the Central Factory Inspector, Dr. Migerka, and are under the active superintendence of his wife, who is president and herself gives the weekly hygiene lesson to the girls. Since the opening of the school, more than seventy courses have been held, twelve pupils being admitted each time. The girls have to come every evening from 6 p.m. to 9 p.m., with the exception of Sundays and public holidays, and the course lasts two months. Three times a week there are sewing lessons, when six girls sew and six cook. On these evenings former pupils are also admitted, but they leave before supper.

Once a week a cold supper is prepared in advance for the following evening, when the president gives a simple health lesson. Similar arrangements are made before the fortnightly cleaning evening. On the evening when no extra lesson is given, all twelve girls work in the kitchen. Owing to the short time at the disposal of the

teacher, it has been found impossible to arrange for the writing of the recipes during class without unduly hindering the practical work. The recipes and details of cost have therefore been printed or typewritten and mounted on stiff cards; these copies are lent to the girls, who copy them at home on Sundays into their notebooks. The careful and accurate way in which this is done shows that the pupils fully appreciate their privileges. They are mostly skilled workers, *i.e.*, ironers, flower-makers, machinists, etc., and belong therefore to the higher class of working-girl, but it speaks well for their diligence that they come night after night when they have already worked nine or ten hours at their place of business. In spite of the long working day which this entails, many girls improve greatly in health during the course, owing to the nourishing and regular evening meals. The classes are well filled, and though they are nominally for single women, it is not uncommon for a young married man to appear and beseech the teacher to admit his incompetent wife into her already crowded kitchen, and such requests are always granted, unless the class is so full as to render the inclusion of an additional member absolutely impossible. This little school also possesses a small lending library, and this addition to the ordinary school equipment is much valued by the girls.

Unpretentious as this school is, it has exercised much influence, not only on its 900 pupils, but on like-minded people in other localities who have followed the example given by the founders. A similar school was started eleven years ago in an industrial suburb of the city, and here an extension has been made and the rooms are used in the mornings by the daughters of small shopkeepers, clerks, etc., girls who enter neither factory nor service, and who are generally obliged, as they grow up, to do a large share in the work of their own homes.

Pupils must be not less than sixteen years of age, and they pay a fee of about 2*sh.* for daily instruction for three months, with an additional 6*d.* a day for dinner.

“The pupils learn about fifty soups, forty vegetables, thirty different meat dishes, twenty kinds of roast meats with salad and *et ceteras*, about 100 puddings, and how to prepare fish and birds for the table. They learn also to preserve fruit and vegetables and the most important facts about feeding invalids and infants. If the pupils live in the neighbourhood they go to market with the teacher. Lessons are given on the food-value and quality of the materials used, on methods of heating, and the exact keeping of household accounts. Pupils are also taught to clean and keep in order the utensils, the linen and the dwelling.” This is an ambitious programme for a small school, but these classes have been held for two years, and whether the whole syllabus is worked through or not, the girls seem to learn a good deal and to work independently and with interest.

Peripatetic housewifery classes take the place in the country of the Sunday and evening classes in the towns. They are held in many

parts of Germany—notably in Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Alsace-Lorraine, and the neighbourhoods of Cologne and of Giessen. In Austria the courses are free to both men and women, and domestic subjects are only treated in connection with more distinctly agricultural subjects, such as fruit and vegetable growing and preserving, dairy work, etc.

Most peripatetic courses last from three to six weeks, a limited number of pupils coming every day from morning until evening. Fees are generally nominal, and probably hardly cover the cost of the food. Where the National Women's Society or any other Women's Union provides teacher, utensils and, if necessary, a stove, the village is expected to provide suitable rooms for classes and teacher, firing and light. This is often done in part if not altogether by the local authorities.

Special day courses as a preparation for domestic service are occasionally held, but most of this work is done in resident schools or large institutions. Day schools of this description are to be seen in Munich and Stuttgart, the latter being a particularly favourable example.

There are two teachers and about sixteen girls in this school. The kitchen is bright and airy, and is furnished with three double stoves. Each couple of pupils cooks a complete meal, and eighty guests are served daily at the school with 6d. dinners, besides a number who send for the meal. The girls learn to wait, clean, etc., and a certain number enter service later, but this is not obligatory, though the school is intended for girls who propose to do so.

Day courses in middle and high-class cookery were the starting-point of domestic teaching for adults in Germany, and they are still more numerous than any other kind of domestic school. Wherever there are modern technical schools they are held under the best possible conditions, and here again there never seems to be any lack of pupils in spite of very strict rules as to regular daily attendance during the three or six months of the course. These courses are naturally to be seen at their best in such renowned centres of domestic training as Cassel, Carlsruhe or Berlin, but this does not by any means imply that other towns are behindhand. Some schools, such as those in Munich and Strassburg, have outgrown the allotted space and are looking forward to extensions which will enable them to rank among the first of their kind. It is, indeed, difficult to select examples from the great number of first-class schools, not to mention the many in smaller towns.

In Berlin, the best known courses are those held in the Lette-Haus where four kitchens are daily in use to accommodate the students in training and the day and resident course pupils, exclusive of the residents in the regular housewifery school.

Each kitchen is arranged for sixteen pupils and the equipment is not only practical, but refined and pretty. Both gas and coal stoves are used, and all kinds of utensils are provided. Four pupils prepare a meal for four or six persons. At 12 o'clock teachers and pupils leave the kitchen and cooks take their place and put

all the small portions together, finish the cooking in enormous utensils and serve the dinners for the restaurant, pupils, etc.

Other courses for cookery alone are held in the Pestalozzi-Fröbel Haus and in most of the large technical schools, but as these are also resident schools whose main object is to give complete housewifery courses, they are described in the next section. In Stuttgart there is an extra school for cookery classes, which is held on the ground floor of the large needlework school. The course lasts three months, and is in two parallel divisions. The pupils come from 8 a.m. till 2 p.m. and from 3 p.m. till 5 p.m. on alternate days, paying an inclusive fee of £3.

There are sixteen pupils in each division and intending teachers are also admitted but their course lasts for a whole year.

Dinner is cooked daily for 110 people. The pupils work in pairs, and four to eight complete menus are cooked daily, consisting of soup, two meats and a sweet dish. During the last month of the course each day two couples cook quite independently a meal for four persons, in order that all may have practice in cooking for a small number. (*See Appendix J.*)

In Carlsruhe there is also a cookery school in addition to the housewifery school. Here twenty pupils come for courses lasting seventy-three days, for which town pupils pay 7d. a day, a fee which includes the cost of dinner. Pupils from a distance can board in the school, and are charged 1s. 6d. per day for board and lodging, reductions being made when they are absent for part of a day.

This school professes to teach simple middle-class cookery, *i.e.*, it was meant originally for girls belonging to the lower middle class. Ten cook the regular dinner every day, and ten are engaged in the distinct branch of baking and also do the waiting and attend to the dining-room.

Lessons in theory are given in summer from 7 a.m. till 9 a.m. At 11.30 a.m. the pupils dine, and at 12.30 p.m. dinner is served to the restaurant guests, who in this case are all ladies. From 2 p.m. till 3 p.m. fresh recipes are explained and twice a week the boarders have an arithmetic lesson. On Sundays and public holidays the school and restaurant are open as usual, but only ten pupils attend.

Dinners, consisting of soup, meat and vegetables, cost about 7½d., and the school pays its current expenses and usually has a small surplus at the end of a course. It is situated on the third floor of the Luisenhaus, a fine building which has been erected by the city authorities and given into the charge of the Baden Society of Women, who use the remaining space for other of their useful philanthropic enterprises.

It is unnecessary to prolong the list of these cookery courses. and the differences due to teachers, local customs and minor variations are little variety in principle or method. Some very good examples are to be found, but in the main the teaching is not so scientific as is possible where time is short and given a consideration, and for those girls who have

neither time nor means for a more complete course they offer a valuable opportunity for gaining some systematic knowledge of the value and preparation of all kinds of food.

Mention should be made here of the non-resident combined housewifery courses which are held in some schools notably in the Lette-Haus in Berlin, and in the technical school for girls in Vienna.

The courses in Berlin last six months or a year, and are included here as the residence is quite apart from the class-rooms, where resident and non-resident pupils work together.

They are arranged not only to give training for home life, but also to prepare any girl to take a situation as companion, "mother's help" or lady's maid in a town or country family. A complete course, lasting eleven months, costs about £25; instruction in cooking is given four or five times a week, and there are classes for washing and ironing, all kinds of sewing, book-keeping and housework, which is practised in a special suite of apartments.

The combined housewifery courses in the school of the Frauenwerb Verein in Vienna last two years, but there are shorter detached courses for most of the separate subjects. In the combined course the pupils come daily from 8 a.m. until 11 a.m. or mid-day, and again from 2 p.m. till 5 p.m.

The mornings during the first year are, with the exception of one month in the laundry, entirely devoted to different kinds of sewing and cutting-out. In the second year five months are spent in the dressmaking class, two and a half months in the kitchen, and there are classes for millinery, fine mending and hairdressing, eighteen lessons of two hours' duration being given in the last subject, which is very popular. German, arithmetic, geography, drawing and elementary hygiene fill all the afternoons. The fee for this complete course is about £15, exclusive of materials for needlework and the necessary school books.

#### D.—RESIDENT HOUSEWIFERY SCHOOLS.

##### (1) *Town Schools.*

The town resident housewifery schools differ chiefly from the cookery schools just described in that some, if not all, of the pupils live at the school, and therefore the work can be arranged more on the lines of an ordinary household.

These town schools form a kind of transition between the day technical schools and the resident schools in the country, for where some of the pupils live at their own homes the school has a kind of double character and can hardly be said to belong to either class.

Some of the town schools are practically ordinary technical schools with a residence attached. Such is the case in the Government school at Rheydt and the schools in Munich, Cassel, Hanover, etc. In some of these schools the lessons are given to residents and non-residents together, and cooking becomes the chief subject taught. The residents do a certain amount of housework in attending to their rooms, and in some cases extra lessons in sewing, washing

and ironing are arranged for them. The accompanying lessons in elementary hygiene and natural science are given to the whole school.

In all the housewifery courses, be they held in day or resident schools, the instruction covers practically the same ground, except for certain broad distinctions between town and country schools. In the cookery lessons the pupils are expected to learn to prepare all the dishes used in an ordinary German household, and also the special delicacies required at Christmastime and for household festivals. They also learn to preserve fruit and vegetables, an art that must be often taught to perfection, to judge by the store-rooms in nearly all the schools with their loaded shelves, of which the teachers are always justly proud. A theory lesson is generally given each morning before the actual cooking begins. This consists chiefly of an explanation of the menu or menus for the day. The teacher questions the class closely on every detail in the cooking of the various dishes, asking in every case the reason for each process. The value of the different food-materials from the point of view of health is also explained.

The pupils are always divided into groups, some working in the kitchen, others in the house or laundry. Those belonging to the house group generally spend half the morning at least in the sewing room, where clothes are mended, and simple undergarments, overalls and blouses are cut out and made.

In the afternoons the science lessons are given. These consist of lessons in physiology, hygiene as regards both food and dwellings, and generally there is a singing class, and sometimes drilling is added. A few representative schools are described below, and this will probably give a clearer idea of the usual workings of such schools than any statistical generalisation, as many schools are unique and individual, especially in the country.

Various kinds of homes and housewifery schools are served to the upper artisan and lower middle classes are to be found from 2 p.m. by places. Some are attached to a sisterhood, as, for instance, the school of the Sisters of St. Vincent and St. Paul in Cologne. Others are in connection with homes or semi-philanthropic boarding-houses. Of this class is the large Amalienhaus in Berlin, where from forty to seventy young girls come every year to do all the work of the house and the night shelter and boarding-house under the supervision of ten deaconesses, two trained teachers of needlework and a laundry instructress. Board and lodging for these girls costs 15s. a month.

These schools may be termed old-fashioned in many senses. The bare dormitories, the constant work, sometimes lasting, with very short intervals, from 6 a.m. till 9 p.m., and the fact that the school does the housework of some other institution, all emphasise the fact that one is in an institution. The girls doubtless acquire technical knowledge of all branches of housework, besides receiving valuable training in habits of cleanliness, order and punctuality. Otherwise the school can hardly be said to give a training for home

life, when all that is homelike is practically excluded. These schools have undoubtedly done valuable work and filled a much-needed place in the past. It may be that they will be needed for some time longer, but meanwhile the German women may well claim that their newer housewifery schools show what may be done in uniting a school for hard practical work with a house where all that goes to make a home homelike has as full an expression as is possible in the absence of parents and young children.

Turning again to the mixed day and resident schools, one of the prettiest is the second Pestalozzi-Fröbel Haus in Berlin (*see Appendix J.*, p. 114). Separate courses are held in each branch of domestic work, but there is also a combined housewifery course lasting six months which is shared by residents and non-residents alike, the fee for the former being £22 10s., for the latter £14. One of the kitchens is used by a class of little day-scholars who pay about £7 10s. for a year's course which prepares them either for service or for home life. The plan of lessons and the general arrangements are similar to those found in other schools, but the Pestalozzi-Fröbel Haus has a peculiarly friendly air. All details are arranged with the most minute care, and, perhaps most important of all, while the school course provides plenty of hard work, the rooms give one no suggestion of being in an institution. They serve rather as an example of how to make a home cosy and artistic. This house has three large kitchens, each capable of holding a practical class of twelve pupils. In the school at Hanover there are four, each furnished with utensils of a different colour. These kitchens are used respectively by the students in training, the private pupils, the continuation school girls, and children from the elementary schools. On the upper floors are pretty bedrooms for those pupils whose homes are at a distance and the building is so spacious and bright as to give quite a luxurious impression.

This generosity with regard to space, light and fresh air is characteristic of all the best modern schools in Germany, and is equally noticeable in the technical schools in Stuttgart and Karlsruhe.

At Stuttgart, the school belongs to the Society of Swabian Women, who built the present house five years ago. The school was started in 1896, and can now accommodate forty-five boarders and about twenty-five day pupils. Some of the students in the commercial school are allowed to board here. The bedrooms hold two, three or four pupils and are so arranged as to leave plenty of free space. They are plainly furnished, but naturally the students like to bring their own ornaments. Different kinds of wood are used in different parts of the house and the floors are treated differently on the different storeys so that the pupils may learn every kind of housework. On each floor there is an airy dressing-room where the kitchen overalls must be hung whenever they are not in use. Four ladies board in the school; dinner guests are received and many meals are fetched by neighbouring families, according to the custom common on the Continent. The resident ladies have two rooms

each and bring their own furniture. They pay about £6 a month; the dinner guests pay 8d. a day for a meal consisting of soup and two meats with the usual extras.

With these resources added to the fees of the pupils the school not only pays current expenses, but also a regular rent which is gradually clearing off the debt on the building. The pupils have a good work and dining-room which is separated by a movable partition from a fine dining-room. This second room serves as the restaurant, and on great occasions, such as the yearly meeting of the society or when the premises are let for a wedding, the two rooms are thrown into one.

Continuing our journey from the upper floors downwards, we come to the basement, which is more like a ground floor. Here are two large kitchens, each furnished with a roomy scullery. One is used by the resident, the second by the non-resident pupils, but the same food is prepared in each. The meals cooked for the guests and the pupils are quite different, in order to give extra scope for practice. The kitchens are fitted with both gas and coal stoves; the pupils work in pairs and each pair cooks four or five dishes. Two teachers and two students are employed in each kitchen.

The laundry is also very well fitted up, but the pupils are not expected to do all the washing of the house. Each one does such of her own things as are prescribed by the school programme, and this sensible plan is followed in many schools of this class. A laundress and five servants are kept to attend to the general washing, the stairs and corridors and to do other rough work. In the older schools it is the rule to have no servants, and great stress is laid on the fact that the pupils do *all* the work of the house. The newer idea seems to be slowly gaining ground that it is waste of time for the girls to do over and over again rough work which can be learned with very little practice, and it certainly seems more practical for girls of the rank received into these schools to learn all the work at first, but afterwards to leave the work of charwomen and scullery-maids to servants hired for the purpose, thus reserving more time and energy for the more advanced or intricate household duties.

To return to the Stuttgart school: the housewifery course lasts five and a half months. Thirty-two girls are received, and paired for the whole course. Sixteen work daily in the kitchen and the other group attends to the house, laundry, etc.; these groups change places once a week.

The usual theoretical lessons are given during the afternoons, and an interesting addition here is the discussion of the proper regulation of the household work. The girls draw up plans for this and learn what duties should be apportioned to different servants, what it is fair to expect of them, etc.—a very practical difficulty in the path of most young housewives.

In Stuttgart the teachers are chosen from different training schools. This may, perhaps, break the continuity of the teaching, but it certainly has a broadening effect on the school as a whole.

The teachers have four or five weeks' leave each year. The residence is closed during August, but the day cooking school is always open. The courses in the two kitchens begin at different times, so as to avoid having both filled with beginners.

Each term, or quarter year, is enlivened by four dinners (*Probe-Essen*) to which the parents of the pupils are invited.

The school at Karlsruhe is built on much the same plan as the one in Stuttgart. Here also we find the double kitchen and the parallel cookery lessons for the day and resident pupils. A certain number of "dinner-guests" are received, but no meals are sent out.

The house and bedrooms, each holding from two to five inmates, are very simply furnished, but here again we find the roominess which is so lacking in more old-fashioned schools, both in Germany and other countries.

There is room for twenty-eight resident pupils, and the fee for the twenty-two weeks' course is £20. A second course immediately following the first only costs £16. The house is under a head-mistress, who is assisted by a housekeeper and four teachers, all of whom have been trained in the adjacent training school. As in Stuttgart, the residence is closed during August, but the day school is always open, though it is naturally somewhat less popular during the hot summer months.

As soon as the pupils arrive they are sorted into pairs and the arrangement holds for the whole course. Half work in the kitchen and half compose the house group. These groups change daily, but the small extra house and kitchen duties which are given to each couple are only changed once a week.

Breakfast is at 7 o'clock, and by 8 the ordinary bedroom work is done. By this time the fourteen day pupils have arrived and the pupils of both kitchens assemble for the daily theory lesson, which is given by the head teacher. Recipes are always dictated and learnt beforehand, so that this lesson is really recapitulation. The recipes are repeated and then the girls are questioned in the most minute way on every detail of their preparation, and they are expected to know the reason for every step. The purchase of the necessary ingredients is not forgotten and there are many questions on the recognition of good and bad qualities, etc.

Finally the menu is taken as a whole, and the girls say how they are going to divide the work, so that the three or four dishes shall be ready at the same time.

This lesson is given very briskly, and at 8.30 a.m. practical work starts. Each pair cooks a complete dinner, thus fourteen dinners are prepared daily to be divided among about 100 persons. As a rule all recipes are made out for six persons, this being considered a convenient average number from which to learn how to reckon for a family. Two pupils are chosen each day to accompany the cookery teacher to market. Each week one of the pupils acts as housekeeper; it is her duty to keep the accounts for the whole house and to give out all supplies from the capacious store-room.

Meanwhile, the house group is turning out rooms if it be Friday or Saturday. On other days the house is in order by 9 o'clock, and then some go to the ironing-room, and others do the parlour-maids' work in the two dining-rooms.

The residents wash their own clothes from three to five times during the course, but except for kitchen and table linen, the rest of the washing is given out.

Dinner begins at 11.30 a.m., and after the meals are cleared away all are free until 3 o'clock, when the usual theory lessons begin. Four servants are kept to do the rough work, and as the house is heated throughout from the basement there is hot water on each floor and thus this work is minimized as possible. An interesting addition to the curriculum each pupil spends in all eight days in the neighbourhood of these days a roomy school is on duty from 8.30 a.m. till 8.30 p.m. in exception of dinner-time. Thus she has an opportunity to begin to learn is cooked for something of the right management and so on.

The work for the day is distributed with both generally. They are divided into two classes, a pair each pair copy lasts three months, for which they pay £4. student includes dinner. Their hours are from 8 a.m. to 11.30 a.m. on three mornings in the week, with explanation and dictation of recipes on two afternoons. They also have a special afternoon lesson in baking every fourteen days.

In both kitchens the girls look very smart in their large white aprons and white caps with knife and dishcloth hanging from their belts, and when work is in full swing, the scene is very bright and animated.

### (ii.) *Country Schools.*

Before describing the regular country housewifery schools, mention should be made of two schools which stand between our groups of town and country resident schools. They are situated at Baden-Baden and at Schwetzingen, and belong to the Dowager Grand Duchess; the second school being under the special care of her daughter-in-law, the reigning Grand Duchess. Except that more gardening is taught at the school in Schwetzingen, the two schools are similar in arrangement, and therefore only one need be described. The school in Baden-Baden is situated close to the castle, and is under the minute supervision of the Dowager Grand Duchess, who visits it almost daily, looks into all the household details, and questions the girls closely on their work.

The school buildings consist of two handsome villas which have been adapted to their present use. There is room for forty-four pupils in all, but the course is held in parallel divisions and each house is practically independent of the other. The directresses are secondary teachers, but each is assisted by three special housewifery teachers, who have all been trained in the seminary at Karlsruhe.

The course lasts four months and costs £25, with an extra 25s. for

washing. The pupils are chiefly girls from noble or very rich houses, and the school arrangements are designed to foster a love of simplicity and an interest in social work. The discipline is strict, especially when one considers the home circumstances of these girls, but the place has a homely air, and the educational ideal is carefully preserved. The school life is not designed to teach only the handicrafts of housewifery. As in all true teaching, the subjects taught are regarded as the vehicles for a training designed to influence the whole character.

The girls rise at 6.30 a.m. and assemble for prayers at 7.30, all dressed in the neat school uniform of dark blue print dresses and large white aprons.

The girls are divided into four groups with six in each. The kitchen-group has already gone into the kitchen at 7 a.m. to prepare the simple German breakfast, which is served soon after 7.30 a.m. Afterwards they go with the cookery teacher to market, and the rest of the morning is occupied with the preparation of the midday dinner. The meals are planned out with the teacher for a whole week and the work is then divided. Each girl cooks one dish alone every day; she knows beforehand exactly what duties will devolve upon her, and she has to do the shopping and be in all ways responsible for her share of the work. This plan is very effective in giving the girls some idea of what housekeeping as a whole involves, a difficult thing in such a large household, where the separate duties are apt to get more detached than in everyday life.

The kitchen group is also responsible for the afternoon coffee at 4 o'clock and the supper at 7.

The parlour-maids begin by laying the table for breakfast. When the breakfast things are washed and put away, they help in the kitchen, and attend to any baking that may be needed, this being here, as elsewhere on the Continent, a branch of cookery which is considered as almost a separate art. They lay and clear the table before and after each meal, wait during the meal, and wash up all glass and silver, cleaning the latter thoroughly on Saturday. One of them also acts as housekeeper.

This housekeeper undertakes the control of the household, under the guidance of the directress. She interviews the tradespeople, takes in the supplies and enters them in the housekeeping book. She is also responsible for the supplies needed for the evening and the next day, and has various small duties, such as writing the menu on the blackboard, giving the pupils their numbers for the day's work, etc. During the morning she goes several times through the house to see that both pupils and servants are doing their work conscientiously and efficiently. She pours out the tea or coffee, serves the soup, keeps the china cupboard in order, and sees that all scraps are used up to the best advantage.

Another of the parlour-maids is responsible for the order of the kitchen, for proper dusting, wiping of shelves, etc., and particularly for the cleanliness of both stove and floor. At all times the kitchen

must be a model of cleanliness and order, a rule which the frequent unannounced visits of the Dowager Grand Duchess must make very effective.

The next group is responsible for the general order of the house ; they dust the furniture, water the plants, close and open windows and blinds at the appointed times, go through the bedrooms and see whether the beds are properly made and the washstands are in perfect order, and also sweep the garden steps, dust the garden seats, etc. Just as the parlourmaids assist in the kitchen, this group helps the laundry group with the ironing. This last class is not expected to do the actual washing. They do all the preliminary sorting, soaking, etc., and give out the proper amounts of soap and soda. They also hang the washing out to dry, starch, damp, fold and iron it. On mornings when there is no laundry work the third and fourth groups have a sewing lesson from 9 till 12 o'clock.

The sewing lessons are severely practical ; mending and machining samplers are made, then plain undergarments and a fitting petticoat-bodice. This course has been planned in order to fit the girls to help as teachers in the sewing and mending classes for working women, which are such a popular form of philanthropy in Germany, and which are not unlike many of the English clubs for working girls. To this end, the girls also have lessons in the simplest artisan cookery, and the most advantageous use of a small income.

In the afternoon there are theoretical lessons from 2 till 4, and after coffee two hours are set aside for gardening or walks. Evening prayers are at 9, but any who are tired can go to bed as early as 8 o'clock.

The watchwords of the school are modesty and simplicity, and even on Sundays the girls all wear uniform, though a simple blue woollen dress replaces the print one of the week days.

The aim of the school is to train the rich girls of the country to realise the duty of unselfish work in the world. It helps them to realise that their easy life and social position give them a social responsibility and that they do not only constitute so much opportunity for pleasure-seeking.

The Dowager Grand Duchess takes a personal interest in each pupil, learns about her home circumstances, and seldom lets her leave Baden without some advice as to the best kind of social work to take up immediately on her return home.

In the regular country housewifery schools we find class distinction still more marked than in the towns, but this arises chiefly from the difference in the instruction given.

The first class schools take pupils who are seventeen or eighteen years of age and who have at least passed through the full course of a good secondary school. The instruction, and especially the scientific work, is based upon the work done in a school of this sort, and is therefore incomprehensible to a girl who has left school at

thirteen or fourteen, even if she has attended a continuation school later. This becomes obvious if we turn to Appendices B (I) and E, and contrast the scientific teaching given in the Berlin Elementary Schools and a Girls' Higher School, bearing in mind that these examples approximate more closely than is usual. It must also be remembered that a girl who has had ten years at school develops usually more intelligence than one who leaves at the age of thirteen or fourteen.

Beginning with the simpler schools, we find some of the best examples in Baden and in different parts of the Austrian Empire. Many of these schools were founded by private societies, but as their utility has become more widely recognised, they have been taken over by agricultural societies, district councils and other public bodies. Sometimes they are in connection with an agricultural school, and the girls cook for the male pupils. In other schools, the buildings are used by the young farmers during the winter months, and by the housewifery pupils during the summer.

The best established schools are in use all the year round, the courses lasting from five months to a year, according to local arrangements. One of these Austrian schools is at Budweis, in South Bohemia. The courses last five months, for which the inclusive charge is about £10.

The usual theoretical lessons are given, but there are some additions to the ordinary syllabus, notably Bohemian and Austro-Hungarian history, and lessons on behaviour at table, in the house, the street, the church, in company, etc.

The care of domestic animals, dairy-work and gardening are also included as suitable and useful in a country school.

As many of these schools are primarily intended for the daughters of farmers, small landed proprietors, etc., an effort is made to teach the rudiments of all the duties a countrywoman is usually called upon to perform, and the Austrian schools have been very successful in this way, governed as they chiefly are by bodies of men who are conversant with all the details of country life.

In the Baden schools the country character is not quite so pronounced, and the summer classes often consist chiefly of town girls whose parents wish them to benefit by country air while adding this finishing touch to their education. The country girls can be more easily spared during the winter months, and some of the teachers find the work of this half year the easier, as these girls are more accustomed to manual work.

The oldest and one of the best known of these schools is at Radolfzell, at the head of the Lake of Constance. The little town of Radolfzell possesses the usual sewing and continuation classes, and also a sewing school, which was founded by the bequest of an old inhabitant, so that girls of the neighbourhood have more attention than falls to the lot of most village girls.

The first housewifery course in Radolfzell was held in 1882, and the success of this and two succeeding short courses led in 1883 to the first regular housewifery course held in Baden. This course

lasted five months and was really a private enterprise, though there was a little assistance from public funds.

A house for six pupils was fitted up on an island in the lake, and it was proposed to hold winter courses only. This provision was soon found too scanty and even when arrangements had been made to take sixteen peasant girls, 107 had to be refused admittance. Rapid progress was now made. The school had already been moved once into more commodious quarters. The substantial three-storey house which it still inhabits was built with the aid of public and private subscriptions, and after about seven years of State aid and inspection it was bought by the local authorities and has since belonged to the German equivalent of a district (*Kreis*) council.

The school fees are supposed to cover current expenses, and they vary somewhat with the state of the market, but they come to about £9 per course. The house is lit with electric light, and is well arranged, though everything is of the plainest. There is room for twenty-four pupils, and two teachers are in charge. In summer, the school is often only half full, and this makes the work very hard, though the winter pupils have to cook for the scholars at the winter agricultural school. A schoolmaster gives the lessons in singing, ornamental-writing and arithmetic, and a doctor lectures on sick-nursing.

"The 'Housemother,' who is also the head teacher, gives the practical instruction in cooking, baking, laundry-work, dairy-work, and branches of agricultural teaching (chiefly fruit and vegetable growing), arranges the practical kitchen and household duties, and also the menus, according to the general principles dictated by the Committee. She explains these to her pupils and dictates the recipes."

The duties of the second teacher are less onerous. She supervises the upstairs work of the house, and teaches sewing, with elementary dressmaking and drafting.

The girls are divided into four groups and change their work once a week. They are busy from 5.30 a.m. till 9.30 p.m., and the household duties are in this school considerably augmented, for there are pigs and fowls to be tended, and a fairly large garden must be kept in order.

The school belonging to the Heidelberg district is less severe on the pupils in the way of hard work, but it trains them more carefully in various branches of needlework. For this reason, perhaps, it is very popular, and even in summer there is seldom a place to spare. Probably its popularity is still more due to the motherly directress who has presided over its fortunes and growth during eighteen out of the twenty-three years of its existence. This was the second of the Baden housewifery schools, and it too was started by a private society, and passed later into public hands. The schoolhouse is an ancient family house in the quiet little country town of Neckarbischofsheim. It stands in a pretty garden, but the gardening lessons are theoretic only, lest the hands of the girls should be spoiled for sewing, on which the directress lays much

more stress. Her great aim is to keep the school like a large family, and consequently the steady work and plain rooms are powerless to dispel the home-like feeling which only a genial personality can inspire. The general school arrangements and the course of teaching do not call for special mention, unless we except the wonderful store of preserved fruit, vegetables and eggs which is to be seen in the capacious cellar. The hours, too, are shorter than in Radolfzell, being from 5.45 a.m. until 9 p.m. daily, with more pauses for rest or recreation, though even then the demands made upon the activity of the pupils must be considerable.

Most of the schools which have been described have their counterparts in other countries. Probably each country can learn something from every other, but all alike can now point to the fruits of years of experience in the shape of well-established classes in the elementary schools, regular technical schools, etc. Turning now to the last group of technical schools for girls in Germany, the country housewifery schools for well-educated girls of seventeen or eighteen years of age, we find a group of schools which are almost, if not quite, unique. In England the only school of the kind is the well-known private one at Malvern. There are schools in Switzerland which profess to do the same work, but both there and elsewhere, though the training is undoubtedly very valuable, the school arrangements must fail to remind the pupils of the homes which they have temporarily left.

These country housewifery schools in Germany are at present few in number, and on one point at least they are somewhat divided. The majority aim at fitting a girl to be mistress of a country house. She must know the principles of gardening, dairy-work, poultry-keeping, etc., in order to be able to control her servants and to direct affairs intelligently. She therefore has some practice, while at the school, in all these matters, but the organisers fully realise that the year at their disposal is far too short to teach these subjects thoroughly. They have to aim at the all-round education of the future country lady, and do not claim that the pupils are in any sense specialists or fitted, without further training, to adopt any one branch of the work as a profession, or even to teach in elementary housewifery schools.

The Society for Country Housewifery Schools has done wisely in thus limiting its aspirations, and leaving to others all special training, except in one of its schools, where a two years' course has been instituted for intending teachers. In 1897, Fräulein von Kortzfleisch and three friends founded the first school of this class at Offeiden. After about three years this school had outgrown its bounds, and the forces had to be divided. School fees are arranged to cover all current expenses, but Government aid has been called in to solve the housing question. The result is that the society has been offered portions of historic buildings which were falling into disrepair, and which have in two cases been most successfully adapted to meet school requirements.

The chief school of the Society is at Reifenstein, in West Saxony.

It occupies one wing of an old cloister, and the whole enclosure is one of the royal domains. Magnificent pine woods encircle it on three sides, while in front stretches the fertile open country. A large piece of garden ground is allotted to the school, which is at once most picturesquely and most healthily situated. The wide corridors and quaint living rooms give an old-world air to the place, in spite of the large modern family of merry girls who constitute the household.

The course lasts one year and closes with an examination. Pupils between the ages of eighteen and thirty-eight are received in April or October. A fortnight's holiday is allowed at Christmas and Easter, and eight days are given in October. There are no summer holidays, chiefly because this would be such a bad time to leave the plants and animals, and also because just at this time of year the country life is most advantageous to the girls.

The school fee is £15 a quarter for German pupils; foreigners or any who do not wish to take the full course are charged £17 10s.

There is room for thirty-six pupils; they are provided with pretty little double bedrooms, which they ornament according to their own taste and make as cosy and homelike as they wish.

The kitchens and living rooms are large and well arranged, and a small house stands apart in the garden where there are rooms for occasional cases of infectious illness. Here also are the gardening class-room, greenhouse, potting-shed and laboratory.

The scientific apparatus, diagrams, etc., are very complete, and the school is, of course, staffed by trained teachers.

In summer the day begins at 6 a.m.; in winter everything is half an hour later. By 8.30 the ordinary daily housework is completed, and the pupils separate into their three groups and proceed to practical work. This plan is varied at the Society's second school at Obernkirchen, near Hanover. There all the pupils have a theoretical lesson from 8 a.m. till 9 a.m., as they are much fresher for that kind of work first thing in the morning than they can be after a tiring half-day in the kitchen, the laundry or the garden.

At Reifenstein the weekly morning programme for each group consists of :—

- Two mornings in the kitchen.
- One morning in the garden.
- { One lesson on fowl rearing in the early part of the year.
- { One lesson on dairy work in the later part of the year.
- One morning's ironing.
- One morning for laundry or housework.

Lunch is at 9.45 a.m., dinner at 12.30 p.m., and afterwards there is free time until 4 p.m., broken only by the summons to afternoon coffee at 3 p.m. From 4 p.m. till 6.30 p.m. there are class lessons. Each group bakes once and has one sewing lesson a week. There are also weekly singing lessons, and half an hour each afternoon is set apart for drilling.

The lessons in physics, chemistry, book-keeping, hygiene of food, daily life, etc., botany, dairy work, gardening, and fowl and bee keeping are distributed over the whole year, so that a certain

amount of instruction in each subject finds a place in the syllabus.

Each pupil has also some special house-duty, such as cleaning the lamps, washing the silver, laying the table, etc. These duties are changed once a week.

Supper is at 7.30 p.m., and afterwards there is some general reading on one evening in the week, and on another either a debate or some other form of entertainment.

The day here is a long one, but it seems to suit the pupils, and, hard as the work is, it would be difficult to find a pleasanter method of mastering domestic subjects.

On Sunday the work is reduced as much as possible, but in the afternoon the children of the neighbouring peasants are allowed to come and learn handicrafts such as carpentering, shoe-making and mending, cardboard work, etc., for the Society aims at more than training efficient housewives—one of its objects is to rouse an interest in social work and duties.

The other schools at Obernkirchen and at Kempen, near Posen, are very similar in organisation and method. The school at Obernkirchen occupies one wing of an old foundation where ladies of small means, but with not less than sixteen noble ancestors, can find a home suited to their position. The old building was not fully occupied, and six years ago one wing was a ruin. The noble ladies have their portion intact, but the ruin has been rebuilt for the school.

The syllabus of the school at Obernkirchen is given in Appendix K. This one has been chosen because this school includes a course for teachers.

The speedy success of *Fraulein von Kortzfleisch* and her friends shows that their schools have supplied a public want. They have also led to the foundation on similar lines of two independent schools. One of these belongs to the ladies of Munich, but as the school has outgrown its first home and will shortly be moved and rearranged, any detailed description would soon be out of date.

The other school is a private one, and belongs to *Frau von Rossbach*, an enthusiastic student of social problems.

The school was only opened early in 1906, and therefore nothing can be said as to the results of the teaching. It is situated on an old farm property near the village of Hopfgarten, between Leipzig and Chemnitz. The house has been entirely rebuilt and fitted with the proper modern conveniences. No regular servants are kept, but a woman comes in to clean the corridors, and the pupils only wash as far as is necessary for instruction. They do not do the heavy laundry work of the house.

Everything is arranged to save work as much as possible, hot and cold water is laid on all over the house, the rooms are built with rounded corners, and the washing basins are fitted with taps and waste-pipes. The dormitory system is in favour in this hygienically arranged establishment, and the large rooms are light, airy and empty of all save beds and the dividing curtains. A large room adjacent is divided into numerous cubicles, and here every

pupil has her private dressing-room as well as an airy spot in which to hang her working clothes. This room is also furnished with shower baths, while regular bathing facilities are provided elsewhere. Wardrobes are placed in the corridors. The living-rooms are not arranged with the same severity. There all is made as home-like and artistic as possible, while the beautiful garden, open terraces, verandahs and spacious grounds give every inducement to live out of doors as much as weather and lessons will permit.

Clothing and diet are also regulated by hygienic principles. "Reform-dresses" are worn for working; no tea, coffee or alcoholic drinks are provided, and a vegetable diet is substituted for meat three days in the week, as being more suitable to the country life and manual work. Pupils are advised to bring both a bicycle and a hammock, and regular excursions are arranged to vary the monotony of the school year, which is otherwise only broken by a month's holiday at Christmas.

The groups of pupils change their work weekly. The day lasts from 5.30 a.m. till 9 p.m. in summer. In the winter no one gets up until 6.30 a.m.; the household retires at 9.30 p.m., and half an hour less free time is allowed after dinner. The evenings are devoted to general reading, music or other recreation.

The instruction as a whole differs little from that given in the other schools, except on one point. In the schools already described the gardens, fowl-runs, preserving-kitchens and dairies are all there for the benefit of the pupils and are in use only so far as the course of instruction requires, though there is often a surplus, which is sold. At Arwedshof we find a large country estate doing a regular trade in farm and dairy produce, *i.e.*, fowls and ducks, eggs, honey, cheese, preserves, *etc.*, and the pupils have therefore continuous practical work in all branches, and gain as well some knowledge of the management of country business. As the school is designed to give an insight into country life and to aid in tempting people "back to the land," this doubtless has its advantages, though the experience of the old-fashioned cookery schools with their restaurants has shown that the introduction of the business element sometimes has its drawbacks from a general educational point of view.

The careful attention paid to hygienic details and the healthy life have resulted in marked improvement in the health of the pupils, in spite of the hard work which is expected of them.

It may be added that the directress is very hopeful of having in the future pupils from other countries, and of thereby giving a wider scope and more broadness of view to her school.

There is one more country housewifery school, and this one must be specially mentioned, as it is on rather a different plan from the foregoing.

It is the seventh foundation of the Cassel Society for Women's Education, and was designed and built by Fräulein Foerster, who now spends most of her time there, and is the directress, as well as acting as honorary superintendent of the Women's School in Cassel, where she also teaches regularly.

The school is near the village of Oberzwehren, about thirty minutes' journey from Cassel, and close to the magnificent woods of Wilhelmshöhe. The difference between this school and the other country housewifery schools is one which a study of the Cassel method of elementary cookery teaching would lead one to expect. This is not a school where a pupil can in one year obtain a general, if elementary, insight into all the home duties of a country lady. There are three courses at Oberzwehren, in each of which there is room for six or eight pupils, who enter either for gardening, housewifery, or "small animals," i.e., the rearing of poultry, goats, pigs, rabbits and bees. All three courses have joint lessons in natural science, hygiene, civil law, book-keeping, sewing and handicrafts, singing, gymnastics, etc.

The new house is beautifully arranged, and here again all the surroundings are artistic and homelike. The lessons are naturally more thorough than can be the case where more subjects are attempted, but in addition to the limited programme of work allowed to each pupil, the chief distinction of this school lies in the sort of ground principle on which the whole organisation is based. First of all, knowledge of principle must precede practice, and the practical work must therefore be regulated and subordinated to the stage of mental development at which the pupil has arrived. Practical or technical achievement must never be regarded as an end in itself, but only as a contributing factor in a liberal education, or rather, in life itself. Hence we find the idea of preparation for life as a whole pervading all arrangements, and this is especially noticeable in the efforts which are made to stimulate a sense of the beautiful in literature, art and nature.

A good library is provided and the girls read the classical dramas together. Different mottoes are chosen for each week, written in an ornamental hand and hung up in the dining-room.

Over the beds there are picture-frames in which fresh reproductions from good masters are hung weekly. A beautifully arranged flower garden surrounds the house and the rooms are also prettily decorated with flowers.

The girls also teach sewing in the village school, and during the winter there are handicraft lessons at the house for village boys. Towards the end of the course each pupil has a certain number allotted to her for whom she has to keep house for a week. This is found to be an expensive proceeding, but of course it increases the value of the training.

Needless to say, the arrangements of kitchen, laundry, etc., are as perfect as foresight and experience can make them.

Some of these details may seem trivial, even obvious, but they show the different ideal which pervades these modern schools as compared with the older ones in some parts of Germany or in Switzerland. Woman is not only the comfort-maker, but also the beautifier of the home. The second element has been too often neglected in the past, thereby nullifying much of the use of the schools. These German schools for future home-makers therefore set an example

which other countries would do well to adapt, if they do not find it practicable to follow it.

## V.—TECHNICAL TEACHERS IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

### A.—TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF NEEDLEWORK.

Though all women candidates for an elementary or secondary teacher's diploma in Germany and Austria are obliged to take sewing as one of their subjects, it is the general rule to have a special teacher for needlework wherever it is possible to obtain one: This is easy in the large town schools, where two or three teachers are often fully occupied in teaching needlework alone.

The training course for a certificate as teacher of needlework generally lasts one year. Courses of this kind are held in all the large needlework schools. Examination regulations are issued by the Prussian Government. In Baden the Women's Society has drawn them up and they are recognised by the Government. In Wurtemberg the same thing has happened. In all parts of Germany this special training is almost entirely in the hands of the societies. It includes a certain amount of practice in class teaching, but most of the time is spent in learning to perfection the different kinds of knitting and sewing.

#### *Prussia.*

For the Prussian examination each candidate must prepare :—

1. A new stocking, marked with two letters and a number in cross-stitch, also an unfinished piece of knitting.
2. A 'crochet sampler, sixty to seventy stitches wide, showing various patterns and surrounded with a crochet edging.
3. A man's night shirt.
4. A chemise.
5. An old stocking which has been re-heeled and on which both kinds of darning are shown.
6. Four to six small samplers or one large one of moderately fine material, such as would be used in an ordinary household. On this sampler must be shown different kinds of patching, darning and marking.

This programme gives the minimum of the work that must be submitted to the examiners, and from it alone no one would gain an adequate idea of all that is accomplished during a training course such as the one given in the Lette-Haus in Berlin. This examination course of work is sufficient to prove that the candidate thoroughly understands her subject, so far as it is taught in an elementary school.

The candidate also gives a trial lesson.

If she is already a teacher the theoretical examination consists merely of *viva voce* questions on the aims and methods of teaching needlework, on the choice of materials, and on the most important books which have been issued on the subject.

Candidates who have not already gained a teacher's diploma are also tested in their knowledge of the German language, by means of a written paper in pedagogy. They may also be required to write an essay on some subject connected with the teaching of sewing.

*Baden.*

In Baden the practical programme of needlework is more exacting, and there are also two grades of teacher and two distinct examinations. The first only qualifies to teach in ordinary elementary schools. The examination work includes all kinds of knitting and mending, and the candidate makes small-size models of the different garments required. Of course this is accompanied by the usual lessons in drafting, for which she prepares most careful and complete sets of diagrams. The embroidery required for white marking, monograms and scalloping also belongs to this course.

The course lasts at least five months, and costs £2 10s., exclusive of materials for work.

The students work about eight hours a day, the time being divided among the different subjects as follows:—

	per week.
1. Practical work: knitting, crochet, sewing	- 31 hours
2. Drawing	- 4 "
3. German	- 4 "
4. Arithmetic	- 3 "
5. Lessons on the upbringing and teaching of children	- 4 "
6. Singing	- 1 hour

Spinning can also be learnt if desired.

The student who aspires to a post in a technical school for girls passes the first examination and then spends at least one year preparing for the higher one. It is, however, not often possible to get through so quickly, and most students take a special arrangement of the various necessary courses which lasts two and a half years. The chief subjects are hand-sewing, machine-sewing, and dressmaking with the accompanying drafting. Each course begins with the making of a complicated sampler; in the hand-sewing course various undergarments are made. Three different kinds of each article are shown, and by the time this and the machining courses are finished, there is no dainty article of lingerie which could not be drafted, cut out, and made by a student.

The secondary subjects are so arranged as to accompany and vary the more serious work of the chief subjects just mentioned. The chief of these minor subjects are wool and fringe work, white and coloured embroidery, art embroidery, drawing and design.

The embroidery is not even surpassed in the special school for art embroidery, and the above list of subjects gives no idea of the scope and variety of the work produced. Every kind of fancy work is practised, while certain branches are carried to a specially high pitch of excellence according to the individual capacities of the pupils.

*Wurtemberg.*

The Wurtemberg system of teaching needlework has already been described (p. 49). The chief training school for teachers, is the School of Women's Work at Stuttgart, but many students still choose the famous old school at Reutlingen.

The Wurtemberg examination is again a double one, the regulations for teachers in elementary schools differing little from those issued in other parts of Germany. The second examination is more specialised, and, instead of taking the whole course as in Baden, the intending teacher studies either dressmaking or embroidery with drawing and design. She is thus able to attain to the highest proficiency in the special subject chosen, though of course she is not able to take sole control of small country needlework schools, as is the case with teachers trained in Carlsruhe or Strassburg. The full course for a specialist teacher in embroidery takes four years. In the other subjects it is somewhat shorter. The fee for the first examination course is six guineas, a sum which covers the instruction given during fifteen months.

#### B.—TRAINING OF HOUSEWIFERY TEACHERS.

The Prussian regulations for the examination of housewifery teachers are at present undergoing revision. It is proposed to have two distinct examinations, one qualifying to teach in elementary or continuation schools, the other to be a necessary qualification for posts in higher housewifery schools, such as the large town schools or the schools of the Society for Country Housewifery Schools. In the Lette-Haus in Berlin, the examination is already divided in this way.

It is only recently that government regulations for housewifery teachers have been issued at all. Prior to 1904, each society or municipal school trained and examined as seemed best to the governing council in question. In the older schools the course of training has not been materially altered, though it is becoming very general for all schools to prepare for the recognised diploma. In Baden and Wurtemberg, the authorities prefer their own regulations and still examine according to the schemes which they have recognised at the instance of the Societies of Women. Cassel and Carlsruhe have the oldest and best known training schools.

Perhaps the next school in point of reputation is the Pestalozzi-Froebel Haus in Berlin, and hundreds of teachers have trained at the Lette-Haus. Of late years a host of other training courses have been instituted to meet the rapidly growing demand for certificated housewifery teachers. The Society for Country Housewifery Schools has a course lasting two years at the school at Obernkirchen near Hanover. The Munich Society trains teachers at the resident school at Geiseltasteig, and there is a special training department in the beautiful school in Hanover. The Government schools at Rheydt, Posen and Potsdam also train teachers. As we have seen, the school in Strassburg has trained all the teachers for Alsace-Lorraine, and the municipal school in Cologne has provided the teachers not only for the elementary schools in that city, but also for the schools in Bonn and other neighbouring towns.

In spite of all this activity, one hears everywhere of the difficulty of obtaining efficient teachers, and the demand still far exceeds the supply. Many of the newer schools have still to prove their

methods. As for the Austrian Empire, the first training course was only started in the autumn of 1906, and as the Austrian considers German cooking inferior and the Hungarian thinks his style is superior to Austria as well as to Germany, it will probably be some time before trained teachers can take command of the housewifery schools in the two countries.

The majority of training courses last one year. In Carlsruhe the actual seminary course only lasts five months, but in order to enter this school, candidates must prove that they are already well versed in the art of cooking.

In the examinations the pupils have to show themselves capable of doing every kind of ordinary housework: washing, cleaning, cooking, etc. They must also understand book-keeping, and great weight is attached to a knowledge of elementary hygiene, the theory of nourishment and the care of children.

In all the training courses, practice or criticism lessons in class teaching are an important item. Unfortunately, opportunity for this part of the work is generally rather limited and the student has to be content with a far smaller number of practice lessons than is obligatory in London. Very often, too, the class consists of fellow-students, and though this plan must give excellent training in self-possession, it can hardly take the place of teaching a class of twenty-four school children.

#### *The Carlsruhe School.*

The Carlsruhe school was the first to establish training courses, and the methods in vogue both here and in Cassel may be found in practice not only all over Germany, but in many schools in Switzerland. Each student in Carlsruhe gives from ten to fifteen practice lessons, in a room which is exactly like the ordinary school kitchen. As the Baden continuation school teacher is obliged to teach a certain amount of reading and writing during the housewifery lesson, so in these practice lessons the theory is read from the continuation school reading book and most careful attention is paid to pronunciation and diction, all local dialect being most carefully corrected. As many of the students come from country districts where the Baden dialect is very strongly marked, this is a necessary precaution. These practice lessons are at first written out beforehand and worked through with the head-mistress. The students keep a complete set of books, *i.e.*, accounts, recipes, lesson plans, with schemes for the division of the practical work among different classes of children, and a book of notes similar to those dictated to the children. The students are expected to take a daily walk, but there is not much opportunity for recreation during this course, which is really too short for the amount of work which is prescribed. All the housewifery teachers in Baden have been trained here, and about half the former pupils are occupied beyond the limits of the Grand Duchy.

Though the training course in this school only lasts five months instead of the year which is usual, it must not be supposed that the

year's work is compressed into this short space of time. The five months are wholly spent in preparation for teaching, and candidates must have acquired the necessary practical knowledge beforehand.

#### *The Cassel School.*

In Cassel there are two training courses, each of which lasts one year and costs £10. Candidates must be at least eighteen years of age and have some practical knowledge of the arts of housewifery. As would be expected, the scientific and pedagogic sides of the training are almost the most important in Cassel. Indeed, it is a common saying in some parts of Germany that the Cassel teachers know very little about cooking. It may be true that the number of recipes actually learnt is small, but the students from this school certainly know how to teach, and as they are well grounded in the elements of cookery, it is not difficult for them to adapt themselves to local requirements if they obtain posts in other parts of the Empire. This course and that for an elementary sewing teacher can be taken simultaneously.

If the candidates for elementary school posts are not required to learn high-class cookery, the same cannot be said of the students who take the second examination, which qualifies them to teach in the more advanced housewifery schools.

Students are not eligible before they are nineteen years of age, and the whole of the work is more advanced than in the preliminary course, though the subjects learnt are fewer.

Candidates for the higher examination usually spend two years in the school and take both examinations.

Though one year is the time usually allotted to a training course in housewifery, it is increasingly recognised that this time is too short to learn cookery, laundry-work, housework, book-keeping, natural science, and hygiene, with, in many cases, a certain amount of gardening. At Geiseltasteig the course lasts one and a half years, at Obernkirchen two years, and the head mistress of the municipal training school at Cologne finds that exceptionally good preparation is necessary if a pupil is to complete the school programme in one year.

#### *The Cologne School.*

In Cologne the theoretical lessons may be specially mentioned. The whole course there is well planned, but lessons in practical work and the criticism lessons vary little as one passes from school to school.

In Cologne great attention is paid to gardening, and the students are trained in this subject by the director of the botanical gardens. A plot of land is allotted to each student, where the usual vegetables and a few flowers are grown. There is also an excellent laboratory in the gardens, where the lessons in chemistry, botany and physics are given. The lecture room is like a large greenhouse, and is surrounded with specimens of the different plants which contribute to the needs of daily life, such as small tea and coffee plants, cocoa palms, etc.

Domestic book-keeping is taught in the most elementary cookery class, and is therefore a necessary part of every training course.

In Cologne the subject is treated from a very wide point of view, and it was interesting to hear the students discussing the distribution of the incomes of artisans earning £45 to £75 a year, of a middle-class family with £90 to £120 a year, and of well-to-do people who had a yearly income of £150 or more, the family in each case being supposed to consist of parents and two children. In each case rent was reckoned at 12 per cent. of the total income, and the artisan's food was supposed to cost 62 per cent., while the "rich" family only spent 50 per cent. of its income in this way.

The detailed expenditure of a working man earning 5s. a day was next discussed in the most practical way. The rents of attics, single and double room dwellings were explained, and then followed a discussion on the best economies for the wife to practice. It was made clear that she should not make certain garments for the family unless the money saved in doing so exceeded what she could earn by taking in ironing in her spare time. The advantages and disadvantages of ready-made clothing followed, though no allusion was made to the underpaid labour which is so often the curse of cheap garments. However poor the family might be, the students were told to allow for the father's pipe, newspaper and an occasional glass of beer. Then, as the students showed ignorance of the prices of such garments as shirts, the lesson closed with an exhortation to examine the windows of small shops and to come with more practical knowledge next time, when the imaginary budget would be concluded.

It was amusing to note that even book-keeping was no exception to the other lessons in a German school, and the subject was opened with introductory remarks on its moral value and its share in promoting and maintaining domestic peace and happiness.

In Strassburg, the future work of the candidates is much simplified by regular lessons in official correspondence, register-keeping, etc.

Taken as a whole, these training courses have the same characteristics as the other technical schools for girls, and the objections to which the programmes are most open, viz., the overcrowding of subjects, and the shortness of the time allowed, are at present occupying the minds of educationists, and will, in all probability, soon be removed.

### C.—SALARIES OF HOUSEWIFERY TEACHERS.

The present position of teachers of needlework and housewifery is almost as unsettled as the rules for their certification. Of course, State rules regarding pensions do not apply to teachers employed by private societies or individuals, though here and there we find that such private employers have arranged to treat their teachers in every way as if they were employed by the public educational authorities. In Baden, the housewifery teachers have as yet no right to a pension; but here again the educational rules are under

discussion, and it is probable that the next few years will see various changes, among them being definite State regulations for the certifying of housewifery teachers, and, it is to be hoped, for their treatment both while they are servants of the State and after they cease to be able to work for it. Meanwhile, the teachers for the women's society in Carlsruhe are insured by their employers against sickness and old-age.

In Wurtemberg, the State has adopted the regulations of the Swabian Women's Society in examining teachers of needlework, the chief technical teachers for girls in this part of Germany.

The pension arrangements for these teachers are rather curious. They have no right to a pension, but when they can no longer teach they have the right to apply for one. The authorities will then take into consideration all the circumstances, the age, service, etc., of the applicant and fix the amount to be granted.

The salaries of the numerous teachers of needlework in Wurtemberg are paid by the town and the State together. The towns give a minimum salary of £45 to which the State adds £2 10s. These contributions continue to increase, until, after twenty-seven years of service, a teacher may be in receipt of the maximum salary of £95. It must be remembered that the majority of these teachers are employed in comparatively small towns, where life is not so expensive as in the big cities; but even so, the prospects are not particularly brilliant.

In Strassburg the teachers in the school of needlework have salaries ranging from £30 to £80, with a pension of £20 a year when they reach fifty years of age or become incapacitated. The resident teachers in the housewifery school earn from £25 to £60, but they are expected to pay their own insurance premiums.

The needlework teachers in the elementary schools in Munich start with a salary of £20. Teachers in the advanced technical school have an initial salary of £62, with a rise of £6 every three years for fifteen years. These teachers have a very long training in the large school of needlework. The actual training course is short, but it is only a recapitulation course as far as practical work is concerned. Before entering this class a candidate is expected to pass through the various courses of the school and thus to gain complete technical knowledge of her subject, and so the preparation for teaching often occupies five or six years.

The teachers of the 8th classes are not ranked as technical teachers. They are regular secondary teachers (*Wissenschaftliche Lehrerinnen*) and, as such, are subject to the ordinary State regulations.

Teachers in all resident housewifery schools usually begin with a salary of between £20 and £30, but here again it is impossible to give a general rule, owing to the different classes of schools and the different rules by which they are governed.

Where technical schools are closed either between the different courses, or at the same time as other schools, the teachers have from eight to ten weeks' holiday every year. In many schools

some of the work goes on all the year without break, and then the teachers have a month's leave in the summer. This is hardly enough, and unless an extra teacher is engaged to supply the places of each of the absent ones in turn, the holiday is generally both preceded and followed by a pressure of work that must tend to neutralise its effect. The schools which hold courses lasting five months and are closed for a month between each course seem to be among the most advantageous for the teachers.

Taken as a whole, and compared with other occupations open to educated women in Germany, technical teaching offers a very fair opening. The profession is not yet overcrowded. On the contrary, complaints of the difficulty of finding efficient teachers are everywhere heard, and a woman with good training and average abilities, with, above all, a love of the work and a belief in its social value and necessity, may be sure of making her way. Probably in all professions, more is demanded in Germany than in England. Life is apt to be viewed there in its most strenuous aspect, and hard work and much devotion for an apparently small return are expected in all walks of life. The lot of the technical teacher must not be considered apart from this fact, and, so viewed, it may be considered as satisfactory; while the housewifery teacher, at any rate, is generally associated with Committees or presidents who regard her work as a social mission. This may make them occasionally very exacting, but at any rate she is not left isolated and unsupported in the face of an opposition which is apt to rise against any novelty. The teachers in country villages have a more difficult time in this respect, and their lot is often by no means enviable during the first few years. On the other hand, when once the value of their work is recognised, no teachers receive more gratitude and unreserved appreciation than those who work among the simpler folk and a population small enough for them to become personally known to all the families in the district.

## VI. CONCLUSION.

The preceding pages do not pretend to give a detailed description of all the domestic schools in Germany and Austria. The absence of Imperial reports and statistics and the variety of agencies at work make it almost impossible to give an accurate and complete idea of all that is done. It is to be hoped that at least an impression has been given of the principles which underlie this branch of teaching, of the general methods followed and of the lines along which the national experience and sentiment desire that progress should be made. It is in this last respect that Germany offers an instructive object lesson to neighbouring countries.

Her organised housewifery instruction came into being later than in England or Norway. The schools lack the support given by regulated Government grants as in Belgium or in Switzerland. Many questions which are still unsolved in Germany are equally debated elsewhere, and in some ways German schools are old-fashioned beside corresponding ones in neighbouring countries.

To an English observer, the rarity of demonstration lessons is one of the most striking points connected with foreign housewifery teaching. The value of such lessons seems to be scantily appreciated, but their almost universal absence is probably dictated chiefly by motives of economy.

The equally general adoption of the group or family system and the school dinner seems to have an excellent effect, and these methods might probably with advantage be adapted to English requirements.

Broadly speaking, methodical housewifery instruction has, wherever it exists, been established in the hope of solving three social problems. There is first the ever-present servant difficulty, but this is not solved by housewifery schools except in isolated instances. A great many girls attend the foreign schools and then return to live at home. In London many girls fight shy of such schools lest they should lead to service. The diminishing class of girls who would naturally enter domestic service undoubtedly benefit greatly by these schools, and a few are attracted to join the ranks who would otherwise have drifted into industrial occupations, but more cannot be claimed for these schools as a solution of the servant difficulty.

There remain two weightier questions: the influence of modern industrial conditions upon women of the working classes, and the influence of modern life, higher education and professional occupation on girls of the middle and upper classes.

To arrest the decay of home life among the industrial classes various expedients are tried, but they consist largely in different kinds of housewifery teaching. In this respect, probably the Belgian schools, with attendance on certain days or evenings for two, three or even four years, are the most effective.

The lessons in connection with elementary schools, or even during the year following dismissal from the elementary school, are little more than a sop to Cerberus. They are a step in the right direction; they may exert an influence on the mothers through the children, and the little that is learnt and not forgotten in the six or seven succeeding years is better than no knowledge at all. The same may be said of the short peripatetic courses lasting six or eight weeks, which find so much favour in several countries, though here the pupils are older, and therefore what they learn is of more permanent value to them.

The abolition of evening continuation classes and the substitution of compulsory day continuation schools is an achievement on which certain parts of Germany should be unreservedly congratulated. Not only does the teaching given gain in value from the fact that the pupils come to school when they are not exhausted by long hours at so-called business, but the moral value of such schools is almost inestimable. They tide over the dangerous period in a child's life between regular school discipline and complete independence. If, in England, all "young persons," as the expression is used in industrial legislation, were under the partial superintend-

ence entailed by a compulsory continuation school, we should hear less of the "hooligan" and his equally objectionable girl equivalent.

If girls had to spend half a day each week in a well-ordered housewifery centre, they could not become lost to a sense of decency and self-respect, and they would also obtain a lasting idea of the comfort of a well-ordered home and some knowledge of how that comfort could be attained. The present system of continuation schools does a great deal, but it does not reach the more shiftless part of the population, and girls' clubs, valuable as they are, cannot hope to be more than oases in the desert.

Another advantage of these compulsory continuation schools is the fact that they tend to counteract the deadening effect of the monotonous factory work which is the lot of an increasing number of girls.

Baden and Bavaria in Germany and Solothurn in Switzerland have shown neighbouring countries how to start. It is to be hoped that the example may be soon followed and that the principles recommended will be carried out far more thoroughly than is at present the case in these pioneer states.

The compulsory continuation school applies to the problem as a whole. Voluntary effort can only touch individual cases, and the accounts of German and Austrian schools for working-class girls show that this is done as successfully as is possible with limited means and voluntary attendance. The popularity of these schools is their most satisfactory characteristic and speaks volumes for the tact and perseverance of teachers and committees.

Perhaps the evening schools of this class in Vienna and Munich are both the simplest and among the most successful in reforming homes where the inheritance of home-sense has been stamped out by the strain and stress of obtaining the necessaries of life.

It is when we come to the third point of the home problem, the decay of domesticity among the middle classes, that Germany has scored her most striking success.

Discarding the bare dormitories and exhausting round of rough work, and also the mixed companionship which must make life in the old-fashioned housewifery school the reverse of inviting to girls from comfortable homes, Germany furnishes us with example after example of home-schools. The work is always severe, but in these schools the future life of the pupils is considered in every school arrangement. They learn to do the roughest work because this knowledge will make them competent mistresses in the future, but they are not wearied by a monotonous repetition of mechanical processes. Every faculty is directed to its place in the great object of home-making. All they have learnt finds its place and scope in the orderly and methodical government of a house, while the social and musical evenings and the decoration of the rooms direct and train artistic sense and taste and help to give confidence and ease. Interest in social work is awakened and stimulated by work for and among the children of the neighbourhood.

Such a school is a finishing school in the best sense. It in no way supplants the modern liberal education of girls, but it can claim to be a fitting climax and close. It must be, moreover, a valuable transition between a life of study and the life of the professional, still more of the leisured woman.

In all other grades of housewifery instruction Germany is fully abreast of her neighbours; she can teach much and she can in most cases still learn much.

In this last kind of school she has shown the way and gives an example which other countries would do well to imitate.

M. CÉCILE MATHESON.

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## APPENDIX A.

## SPECIMEN YEARLY ACCOUNTS—STRASSBURG HOUSEWIFERY SCHOOL.

RECEIPTS.			EXPENDITURE.		
	£	s. d.		£	s. d.
Non-resident fees -	176	15 0	Salary of principal -	60	0 0
Resident " -	472	10 0	" assistants -	121	2 0
Town grant -	115	0 0	Wages of servants -	16	16 0
State grant -	30	0 0	Accountant's fee -	5	0 0
Various and unexpected receipts -	76	2 6	Various house expenses -	528	7 6
			Heating, light and water	36	19 3
			Maintenance, etc. -	62	2 0
			Sundries -	34	19 3
	<u>£870</u>	<u>7 6</u>		<u>£865</u>	<u>6 0</u>

## APPENDIX B.

## I.—EXTRACTS FROM THE PROGRAMME FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF BERLIN.

## Time Table.

	VIII.	VII.	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Scripture -	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4
German -	8	7	7	6	6	6	6	6
Object Lessons -	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-
History -	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	3(2)
Arithmetic -	4	4	4	4	4	4	4(2)	4(2)
Natural Science -	-	-	-	-	-	3(0)	3(2)	3(2)
Physical Geography -	-	-	-	2	2	4	4(3)	3
Drawing -	-	1	2(1)	2	2	2	2	2
Writing -	-	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Singing -	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Drill -	2	2	2(1)	2	2	2	2	2
Sewing -	-	-	(2)	(2)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(4)
Total -	20	22	24	28 (30)	28 (30)	32	32	32

The figures in brackets denote the number of hours to be given to a subject in the girls' classes.

## VI.—NATURE-STUDY.

## A.—NATURAL HISTORY

## Class V.—2 Hours.

## Summer Half-year.

Preliminary examination of twelve indigenous flowering plants, with clearly defined organs.—From these the principles of classification to be worked out.—Observation of the development of a plant.

*Winter Half-year.*

Preliminary lessons on twelve indigenous mammals and birds and their habits.—Principles of classification.—Rules for independent observation of animal life.

*Class IV.—2 Hours.*

*Summer Half-year.*

Twenty wild plants which can be grown in the playground and the school-room.—Functions of the different organs of plants.—Further lessons on classification and the development of plants.—Rules for independent observation and for home-gardening.—Recapitulation of work of previous half-year.

*Winter Half-year.*

Lessons on sixteen indigenous and foreign vertebrate animals and their habits.—Further lessons on classification and observation.

*Class III.—2 Hours.*

*Summer Half-year.*

Cryptogams, indigenous poisonous plants.—Classification.—Fertilization through grafting, wind and insects.—Gardening and manuring.—Connection between the form, requirements and surroundings of a plant.—School excursions: country life, particularly in the neighbourhood of Berlin.

*Winter Half-year.*

Chief examples of invertebrate animals. Classification according to build, climate and habits.—Classification of the animal kingdom.—Observation of the development of animals, particularly insects.

*Class II.—2 Hours.*

*Summer Half-year.*

The chief plants and vegetable products used in trade and domestic life.

*Winter Half-year.*

Elementary physiology and hygiene.

*Class I.—One Term—( $\frac{1}{2}$  year)—3 Hours.*

Elementary lessons on the internal formation of plants and animals.—Vital functions of plants and animals: circulation of sap, circulation of the blood, digestion and breathing.

In girls' classes the following points must be specially noticed:—

(a) Examples made familiar through domestic work must be chosen whenever possible.

(b) In the work of the summer half-year of Class II. the domestic importance of the plants chosen must be kept in the foreground.

**B.—NATURAL SCIENCE.**

**II. GIRLS' SCHOOLS.**

*Class III.—2 Hours.*

*First Half-year.—Heat.*

*Second Half-year.—Lessons on inorganic chemistry and mineralogy.*

*Class II.—1 Hour.*

*First Half-year.—Lessons in organic chemistry, with special reference to foods, etc.*

*Second Half-year.—Elementary mechanics of solid, liquid and gaseous bodies.*

## Class I.—3 Hours.

Lessons on magnetism, electricity, sound and light.

*Note.*—The lessons on nature-study should train the children in the observation of nature with especial reference to domestic life (girls), and manufacture and commerce (boys), and should lead them to an understanding of natural cause and effect. The idea of natural law underlying all appearances should be firmly and intelligently grasped.

All through these lessons, the chief importance should be laid on accurate observation. Natural laws should be evolved from the observation of certain facts and then re-applied to others. Let the independent work of the children be always encouraged.

## II. NEEDLEWORK PROGRAMME FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

### A. SIX-CLASS SCHOOL.

Universal Plan. (Skeleton.)	Specimen District Enlargement. (Baden, N.O.)
3rd Class (3rd school year.) Crochet and knitting. (3 hours.)	7½ months : Stockings (light coloured wool)—104 stitches. Till end of year, crochet samples.
4th Class : Crochet and knitting. (3 hours.)	7 months : Stockings—112 stitches. Crochet little jacket, cap. Extra work—Stockings, knitted jacket, stars.
5th Class : Knitted repairs. Stocking mending. Netting, winding (net- mending). Marking, sewing. Darning and patching undergarments. (3 hours.)	5th year—4 hours : 3 months—Knitting on new heels, darning, Swiss and English. 4½ " Marking sampler, alphabet, figures, &c. 3 " Edging.  6th year—4 hours : 5½ months—Sewing samples. To end of year—Girl's chemise, simplest pattern with crochet edging. Mending.
6th Class : Pattern drawing. Cutting out of under- garments. Further practice in sewing or mending. White embroidery (i.e. marking). Lessons on the materials used, their kinds, worth and origin, to accompanying the sewing lessons. (4 hours.)  Maximum pupils per Teacher—40.	7th year—4 hours : 5½ months—Woman's chemise, fastening on shoulder. 4 " Girl's drawers (pattern drawn full size). Mending of undergarments. Coloured petticoat.  8th year—4 hours : 2½ months—Pattern drawing. 4½ " Night-jacket. Man's shirt (without collar and cuffs). Mending.

III.—SYLLABUS OF THE INSTRUCTION IN THE MUNICIPAL  
HOUSEWIFERY CLASSES IN CASSEL.

HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

1st Month.

1. Introductory lesson.

*Cooking*: Ground-rice soup.

Short account of the necessary ingredients of this soup: Water, sugar, ground-rice, cinnamon, cooking-salt.

In lighting the fire and cooking (in enamelled pots), we have the practical application of what is described in the School Syllabus under: VIII., Class II., Months 6, 9, and 10.

Arrangement of the exercise books. Place some grains, beans and peas in water and observe the germination. Washing-up.

Short description of the build of the human body, with special reference to the elements of which its parts are composed.

Combination and quantity of necessary food stuffs. Vegetable, meat and mixed diets.

2. Oats (VII., Class II., 3rd Month).

Composition of the grains. Value of the food-stuffs: for the little plant, for human beings. Different preparations of oats and their use in the kitchen.

*Cooking*: Porridge.

(Iron pots, over-cooking, burning) (VIII., Class II., 6).

Laying-out of the garden.

Cleaning the stove.

3. Milk: Full and skim-milk.

Appearances, price, and cooking of milk. Precautions against boiling over (VII., Class I., 5).

Rice: (Food-value, digestibility, price, ground-rice, rice-starch) (VII., Class II., 3).

*Cooking*: Rice-pudding.

*Garden-work*: Planting of salad, cress, radishes and carrots, beans, peas, potatoes (VII., Class II., 2, and Class III., 4).

Clean the floors.

4. Milk: Natural and artificial souring. Food value of milk (VII., Class I., 5).

*Cooking*: Milk-soup (made with wheat flour).

Cleaning of knives and forks.

*Gardening*.

## HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

## NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

## 2nd Month.

1. Butter, curds, cheese (VII., Class I., 5). How to make butter, making use of curds. The organs of digestion and how to keep them healthy.  
Digestion: Blood and its circulation. Blood-poisoning. Treatment of wounds. Nose-bleeding.  
*Cooking:* Gruel with butter (use the butter already made) with fried toast.  
*Gardening.*
2. Wheat-products: Flour, groats, starch (VII., Class I., 5). Appearance, price, use and treatment of flour in the kitchen How to keep it.  
*Cooking:* Browned flour soup. (Roasting without fat.)  
*Gardening.*
3. Flour (VII., Class 1-5). Bread-making, sour dough (fermentation). Digestibility of white and brown bread.  
*Cooking:* Toast-water for invalids Pancakes (iron frying-pans).  
*Gardening:* Planting out flavouring herbs, kohlrabi, cabbage, etc.
4. Pulse-foods.  
 Hard and soft water; action on soap and pulse-foods.  
 Preparations for washing-day.  
*Cooking:* Pea-soup.  
*Gardening.*

## 3rd Month.

1. Washing and cleaning (2 divisions). Alcoholic drinks, with special attention to their preparation and action on health, morals and prosperity.  
 (a) Washing; discussion of the preparations, utensils, materials, etc. (VII., Class II., 6; Class I., 8, 9). Nerve-poisons: Ferments.  
*Practical work:* Washing the kitchen linen.  
 (b) Cleaning and scouring of the kitchen and all the utensils.  
*Cooking:* Barley and plums (VII., Class II., 1-3).
2. The Egg (VII., Class I., 5).  
 Parts, signs of freshness, price, purchase, food-value, digestibility.  
 Making vermicelli (kneading of the paste).  
 Scrambled eggs.  
*Gardening.*

HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

3. The Egg. Preservation by means of chalk-water, isinglass and oil. Different ways of using the egg. Foods made of paste. Effect of boiling fluid upon white of egg.

*Cooking* : Bouillon.

White of egg in water for invalids, especially in cases of quicksilver or verdigris poisoning.

*Gardening.*

4. Vegetables (VII, Class I, 5).  
Kinds: Changes through cultivation. Purchase, food-value, treatment in the kitchen.

*Cooking* : Vegetable soup, or green peas with young carrots and fried toast.

*N.B.*—The vegetables grown in the school garden are to be used if possible.

4th Month.

1. Vegetables : Continuation of Month, III., 4. Preserving for the winter. Salt as a preservative (VII, Class 15, and VIII, Class II., 10). Preserving green beans. *Cooking* : Green beans with potatoes and salted herring (VII, Class III., 10).  
The atmosphere. Breathing: Care of the respiratory organs. Their diseases. Fresh air cures and sanatoria.
2. Vegetables.  
Parsley and fool's parsley (VII, Class II., 4).  
*Cooking* : Early vegetables and potatoes (in their jackets).
3. General lessons on meat.  
Cooking of meat. Beef (for boiling).  
Purchase, value and preparation of good meat-broth.  
Coagulation of white of egg.  
Herbs for soups.  
*Cooking* : Bouillon with barley or rice.  
*Gardening.*
4. Fats—kinds, food-value.  
Unsatisfactory results of diet deficient in fat.  
Purchase, price, treatment in the kitchen.  
Boiling down of suet and lard. (Stone-crockery) (VIII, Class I. 6).

## HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

## NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

## 5th Month.

1. Mutton: Mutton-fat, white cabbage, indigenous spices.  
*Cooking*: White cabbage with mutton and aniseed.
2. Additional fats. *Frying*. Margarine. Palm oil.  
 The potato: Composition, starch. Purchase, Cooking of potato-pancakes, potato soup or fruit.
3. Washing and cleaning as in Month I.  
 Continuation: Summary and arrangement of the household duties on washing-days.  
 Pea-soup. Water (Ia., 4).
4. The Potato (VII., Class III. 4; Class I., 5).  
 Appearance, price, preservation, food-value.  
 Various dishes made from potatoes.  
 Products: Starch, sago, brandy.  
*Cooking*: Potatoes and apples.

The skin: Its care.

Skin-diseases: Burns.

Value of water in health and disease.

## 6th Month.

1. Fruit (VII., Class II., 1).  
 Kinds, food-value, purchase, price, preservation (raw, dried and preserved). Treatment in the kitchen.  
*Cooking*: Stewed pears with semolina dumplings or bread fritters.
2. Pickling cabbages.  
 Fungi as friends and enemies of the housewife. Fermentation.  
*Cooking*: Steamed and dressed cabbage and sausages.
3. Meat: Roasting joints, etc.  
 Slaughter-houses.  
 Prepared stewed meat and potatoes (mashed) with milk.
4. Pork.  
 Winter-vegetables, preservation and price.  
 Short recapitulation of the lessons on the digestive organs, so that the children may understand the coming lessons on trichina and tape-worm (VII., Class I., 4 and 5).  
*Cooking*: Kohlrabi with potatoes and pork.

Clothing: Materials and their

influence on perspiration, warmth.

Bad consequences of tight clothing.

Foot-gear. How to keep clothes and beds clean.

## HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

## NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

## 7th Month.

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|--|--|
| <p>1. Parasites in pork: <i>Trichina</i>.<br/>Entrails of animals: Uses, food-value, price and treatment.<br/>Dried vegetables.<br/><i>Cooking</i>: Kidney soup with dried vegetables.</p> <p>2. Parasites: Measles in pigs, tapeworm.<br/>Cooking of calf's liver and potatoes.</p> <p>3. Washing and cleaning.<br/>Recapitulation: Cook pea-soup and boiled sausages.</p> <p>4. Christmas cakes, etc. (and decorations for the Christmas-tree).<br/>Ovens and baking-tins.</p> | <p>The Dwelling: Influence on the inhabitants of position and surroundings. Building materials. How to keep a house dry (dry-rot). Floor polish. Best use of rooms. Ventilation. Infection and disinfection. What to do in case of infectious illness.</p> |
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## 8th Month.

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|--|---|
| <p>1. Fish as popular food.<br/>Sea-fish: Purchase, price, appearance, food-value.<br/><i>Cooking</i>: Haddock with potatoes and mustard-sauce.</p> <p>2. Herrings (VII., Class III., 10).<br/><i>Cooking</i>: Herring and potatoes.</p> <p>3. Stock for invalid soup. (Anima gelatine as food.)<br/>Invalid soups: Soup made from meat extract.<br/>Use of the double saucepan (VIII. Class II., 6).<br/><i>Cooking</i>: Stock made in a steamer.<br/>Invalid soup.<br/>Show the use of the self-cooker (Selbst kocher) with gravy-soup and apples with rice.</p> <p>4. Recapitulation: Fruit and cereals.<br/><i>Cooking</i>: Baked fruit and dumplings, macaroni or rice-cakes.</p> | <p>Heating: stoves, central heating, heating materials. Influence of temperature on health. Poisoning by gases.</p> |
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## 9th Month.

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|---|--|
| <p>1. Recapitulation: Milk and eggs.<br/>Milk and foods for children: cornflour.<br/><i>Cooking</i>:<br/>(a) Cornflour blanc-mange with fruit sauce.<br/>(b) Cocoa with milk.</p> | <p>Lighting: Natural light. Different kinds of artificial lighting. Petroleum lamps.<br/>Care of the eyes.<br/>Phosphorus poisoning.</p> |
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## HOUSEWIFERY TEACHING.

## NATURAL SCIENCE LESSONS.

2. Recapitulation: The potato; freezing and treatment of frosted potatoes.

*Cooking*: Potato balls with bacon and onions.

3. Recapitulation: Fats and fatty foods; flour.

*Baking*: Yeast cakes.  
Coffee-making (VII., Class I., 8)

4. Recapitulation: Meat.

*Cooking*: Veal fricassée with dumplings or ragout of venison.  
Diagram of food-stuffs.

## 10th Month.

1. *Cooking*: Pickled cabbage or green beans with meat-jelly. Foreign bodies in the eye, nose and throat. First aid in cases of poisoning. Home remedies. Patent medicines and quack treatments.  
Cleaning lamps (petroleum lamps, petroleum, VIII., Class I., 9).

2. Water as a palliative and cure. Fomentations (hot and cold) and their application. Simple bandages. Hot poultices. Easy ways of carrying wounded or unconscious persons.

*Cooking*: Barley soup, warm beer  
Cooling drinks for the sick.  
Teas and healing draughts (black tea, peppermint, camomile and herb teas (VII., Class I., 10).

3. Washing and cleaning.

4. Arrangement and cost of simple dinners for a week, chosen from the recipes already given.

*Cooking*: Independent cooking of a dinner consisting of soup, vegetables and meat (using any of the preserved vegetables that may be left).

*Observations.*

This syllabus must be generally followed, but the order can be altered to suit local conditions.

Abbreviations can be made when the Confirmation Classes are being held. The theoretical part of the lesson shall not as a rule last longer than thirty to forty-five minutes. During the morning there shall be several alternations between practical work and the discussion of a new subject. Great attention must be paid to training the children in habits of cleanliness, order, economy and politeness. The natural science which has been learnt in the earlier classes and is applied in the housewifery classes must not be re-taught; it may only be recapitulated and widened in scope. The garden produce is to be utilised for purposes of instruction.



Since the maximum number of girls in the VIIIth Classes is limited to forty-eight, it may sometimes be necessary to form two divisions (a) and (b) for the cooking and needlework classes. In that case the lessons for the week may be distributed in the following manner (this arrangement is, however, not compulsory) :—

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.		Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	
			(a)	(b)			(a)	(b)
8-9	Religion	Arith- metic	Cook- ing	Needle- work	Religion	Arith- metic	Needle- work	Cook- ing
9-10	German	German	"	"	German	German	"	"
10-11	House- wifery	German	"	"	House- wifery	House- wifery	"	"
11-12			"					"
2-3	Arith- metic	House- wifery			Arith- metic	Drawing		
3-4	Singing	Needle- work (mending)			German	"		
4-5	Gym- nastics				Gym- nastics			

Besides these compulsory subjects, an optional course of four hours instruction is offered either in French or in industrial drawing. But, to prevent the girls from being overworked, these subjects are only alternative; attendance at one set of lessons excludes from the other.

### III.—SYLLABUS.

#### 2.—Household Management and Cookery.

(8 hours.)

Instruction in household management, together with practice in the school kitchen, forms the foundation of all teaching in the VIIIth Classes for girls. It includes in its many branches, arithmetic, languages and needlework, these being so taught as to be in close connection with practical home-life. The intention is to fit girls for the task of managing a household and not to train them for any special branch of industry. This shall be attained by :—

- (i) Imparting the necessary knowledge concerning rational nourishment, clothing and housing, always with reference to the natural laws relating to each particular subject (natural history, physics and chemistry), and with the aid of experiments and demonstrations.
- (ii) Awakening and fostering the love of domestic work and those virtues which ought to grace every housewife—cleanliness and order, economy and industry, simplicity and good taste.
- (iii) Rendering the girls familiar with all kinds of domestic work and giving them, as far as possible, every opportunity for practice.

Instruction in connection with health and education may be arranged under three principal headings, the two first of which will furnish the subjects for instruction in the VIIIth Classes for girls.

1. Nourishment.
2. Housing and clothing.
3. The family.

Accordingly, in the eight weekly hours for housewifery the VIIIth Classes are to deal with the following subjects, taking them as thoroughly as possible,

having regard to the mental development of the pupils and the knowledge of natural science which they have gained in the lower classes of the elementary school and which is indispensable to such studies. Special stress must always be laid on all matters concerning health.

The subjects of nourishment, clothing and housing are to be taught simultaneously, and two hours a week of the time allowed for lessons on housewifery are to be devoted to them.

All theoretical lessons should if possible be introduced by historical comments and illustrated by experiments.

#### 1.—*Nourishment.*

- A.—Construction and functions of the organs of digestion as regards solid and fluid matter; in continuation and expansion of the instruction given in Class VII. of the elementary schools.
- B.—Inorganic food materials. Water and its properties. Ice and its use in the household and in the sick room.
- C.—Animal foods—milk, eggs, meat, fat.
- D.—Vegetable foods—fruit, grain (bread), pulse, potatoes, green and root vegetables, edible fungi.
- E.—Solid condiments—salt, sugar, pepper and other spices.
- F.—Liquid condiments—
  - (i.) containing alkaloids: coffee, tea, chocolate.
  - (ii.) containing alcohol: beer, wine, brandy.
- G.—Dietetic importance of the use and abuse of condiments and stimulating beverages.
- H.—Survey of the necessary elements of nutrition and of the nutritive value of particular articles of food.
- I.—Decomposition (digestion, fermentation, putrefaction) and preservation of food.
- J.—Hygiene of food, rules for diet.
- K.—How to lay the table.
- L.—Invalid cookery.

#### 2.—*Clothing and Housing.*

- A.—Introduction:
  - 1. The atmosphere, breathing, circulation of the blood. (*Continuation and expansion of the lessons given in the VIIIth class.*)
  - 2. Properties of heat: conduction, radiation and evaporation.
  - 3. Preservation and regulation of the heat of the body.
- B.—Clothing:
  - 1. Clothing materials (linen, cotton, silk, wool, furs, leather). Their preparation and alteration by means of tanning, bleaching and dyeing.
  - 2. Physical properties of various dress-materials. Ready-made clothing.
  - 3. Hygienic rules as regards clothing; taste and suitability in dress.
  - 4. Wet and dry cleaning of clothing (washing, starching, mangling, ironing).
  - 5. Cleansing materials.
  - 6. The bed.
- C.—Housing:
  - 1. The properties of the principal building materials from a sanitary point of view.
  - 2. Physiological importance of the position, soil, water supply, drainage, ventilation, and lighting of dwellings.
  - 3. Heating: (a) Various kinds of fuel.  
(b) Different methods of heating.

4. Lighting: (a) Artificial lights.  
(b) Different methods of lighting.
5. Precautions to be observed as regards lighting and heating.
6. Ventilation and disinfection.
7. Hygienic rules regarding the ventilation, heating, lighting, and cleaning of the dwelling.
8. House-furnishing.

*Note.*—In connection with the above, in the third class of the continuation schools for girls, the following subject is to be taught in the lessons on household management and education:—

*The Family.*

- (i.) Home duties:—qualities of the housewife; duties of the children towards their parents; education of the children, its methods and aim. Physical, mental, and moral education. Sick nursing. Duties of the mistress towards the servants, and of servants towards their mistress. Systems of insurance. The cultivation of home pleasures and of hospitality.
- (ii.) Women in social life:—social intercourse, rules of behaviour; choice of a profession, women in commercial life, travelling, the fatherland as a family, judicial authorities, rights and duties of women in the State.

3.—*Needlework.*

(4 hours.)

Instruction in this subject must be so given as to meet the requirements of the girl, the wife, and the household.

The making of men's underclothing, which requires great skill and dexterity cannot be taught in the VIIIth Classes for girls.

An especial point is to be made of the mending of undergarments and table linen, an occupation which stands in the closest relationship to thrifty house-keeping.

A systematic course of instruction, lasting the whole year, is to be devoted to this branch of needlework (*see below*).

Discussions about the quality and value of material come under the heading of housewifery teaching, and it is therefore of great advantage if the class-mistress and the needlework teacher consult each other on that subject. To this end a collection of samples of materials to be used in the course of instruction would be most valuable.

Since all instruction must be given by means of class teaching, sub-divisions being only admissible for certain kinds of work, pupils should not be allowed to bring work begun at home to be finished at school. On the contrary all work should be begun at school, but may be continued at home with the permission of the teacher and following her instructions, if it is compatible with the class teaching. The principle of simplicity should never be lost sight of in any kind of needlework.

Bearing these points of view in mind, the teaching of needlework should comprise the following lessons:—

- (i.) *Making Table Linen.*—Since all that is required in articles of this kind is a hem, the marking, and a hanging loop, it will be sufficient to make a kitchen towel, and to treat table cloths and napkins only theoretically.
- (ii.) *Making Bed Linen.*—Practical work—making a pillow-case, or better still, a loose covering for an eiderdown quilt, the latter to be made of single-width material. Measures for these to be taken according to home requirements, the coverlet to be made either for a large or small bed as desired. Putting in insertion is only to be taught theoretically, but may be done practically also if the pupils like to do some actual work of this kind.

- (iii.) *Making a Simple Nightjacket.*—Two or three average measurements for the ages of thirteen to sixteen years should be used. The style must be chosen according to the capacity and means of the pupils, but very elaborate styles must not be taught.

Explanation of the normal cut, with variations; demonstration of different patterns cut out in muslin, lessons on various materials and their value in use; the drawing, cutting out, and pinning together of patterns. (For these lessons the class should be divided into groups.) Tacking hems and seams, hemming round the bottom, sleeves, how to sew them in, making and putting on the neck-band, button-holes and sewing on of buttons, trimming, stress being laid on the use of remnants of material for frills.

- (iv.) *Mending Linen.*—The girls should be encouraged to bring garments to be mended from their own homes and are to be reminded to do so at the right time (Swiss darning, knitting-in heels and patches, damask darning).

- (v.) *Making a Pair of Girl's Drawers.*—The teaching to be given in the same way as for the nightgown, two or three ordinary patterns to be taught, theoretical explanation of the make, shape and style, methods of cutting; class to be divided into groups for cutting out, some cutting out whilst the others are working at the trimming of the drawers. Sewing together, tacking hem and seams, ornamental tucks, trimming with piping, putting on lace, making and putting on the band, fastening with buttons or drawing tapes.

- (vi.) *Making a Lady's Chemise.*—A simple chemise is to be made with four short gores and either a round or square-cut neck. If time permits, a chemise fastening on the shoulder may also be made.

For making the first chemise the teacher ought to be provided with a chequered blackboard on which to draft the pattern, and with brown paper for cutting out.

The following questions must then be dealt with:—Class teaching, deviation from the normal cut (with theoretical explanation of the cut, suitable materials and their cost), cutting out a chemise, joining of gores, stitching seams (to be done by the pupils at home with the machine) felled seams, hems, sleeves, box pleat to finish the opening in front, neck-band, button-holes, marking, sewing on lace. Crochet-lace and embroidery of scalloped edgings may be taught in connection with this.

#### 4.—*German.*

(6 hours.)

As already said, the instruction in the German language must fulfil two objects:—

1. It must be an aid to the housewifery lessons and teach the principles of ordinary business correspondence.
2. It shall also assist the moral and ethical training by means of carefully chosen readings.

The subjects which must be included in the reading lessons, may be divided into the following four groups:—

1. Subjects connected with the lessons in domestic economy, hygiene and theory of education.
2. Ethical subjects (domestic, national and religious festivals, nature, etc.)
3. Readings which shall cultivate an understanding of German literature (descriptions, stories, fables, proverbs, legends, ballads, songs, dialect-poetry).
4. Geography and history.

(The compositions of the pupils are chosen according to the same rules. They are also taught to write ordinary business letters, etc.)

5.—*Arithmetic.*

(4 hours.)

All the arithmetic lessons must serve the needs of practical life. They fall therefore into two branches :—

1. Management of domestic accounts.
2. The most important elements of commercial arithmetic.

For the first group, exercises must be given in the following subjects, which will naturally have been previously explained in the domestic economy lessons :—

1. Simple examples in domestic book-keeping.
2. Calculations in the prices of different kinds of food, bought in small and large quantities, with the accompanying percentages and discount. The cost of meals.
3. Simple measurements such as are needed in a household.—Derivation of metric measurement ; connection of area, weight, and capacity.
4. Reckoning of the daily, monthly, and yearly needs of the kitchen (keeping the kitchen accounts).
5. Calculation of the food values of the different food-stuffs of a complete meal.
6. Cost of furnishing a kitchen.
7. Calculations of measurements and values in buying ; the renovating and washing of linen and woollen materials.
8. Elementary commercial arithmetic (percentages, discount, etc.).
9. German and foreign coinage, and how to reckon from one to another.
10. Cost of different methods of heating.
11. Cost of different methods of lighting.
12. Maintenance of a house, rent and water rate, taxes, fire insurance, mortgages.

The second branch includes more advanced commercial arithmetic.

6.—*Drawing.*

(2 hours.)

Instruction in drawing is to be given as an aid to that in needlework, but not in the sense of teaching the art of design, which requires a special training and cannot be introduced into the VIIIth Classes. The object shall be rather to cultivate the taste as regards form and colour, and to encourage the pupils to independent work in making use of already prepared designs for purposes of needlework.

It is presumed that the pupils are already able to draw all ordinary geometrical forms (straight lines, circles, ovals, ellipses, curves, and spirals), conventionalised forms of simple leaves and flowers, etc., and have had some practice in drawing simple objects from nature.

Throughout the year practice should be given in drawing simple objects from nature, such as olive and oak leaves, laurel branches, ivy twigs, evergreens, dandelion, hedgeroses, etc.

It is recommended that all designs should be washed-in in colour.

The subject matter is arranged in the following order :—

- (i.) Simple practice in geometrical drawing.
- (ii.) Composition with straight lined figures :—
  - (a) The straight line as a guiding line for rows and straight borders. making use of previous nature studies from ivy, strawberry, strawberry leaf, laburnum leaf and flower, acorn, oakleaf, roseleaf, hedgerose, etc. The use of the straight line in useful and ornamental stitchery. The use of ornamental stitches for filling in different figures.
  - (b) The broken line as a foundation for chainstitch and cord ornament (feather-stitch), cross-stitch and satin-stitch, also in " guipure " and crochet work, where triangles and squares are used ornamentally.

## (iii.) Composition with curved figures :—

- (a) Figures which are based on the circle and half-circle (pomegranite, berries, rosettes, etc.), in connection with white embroidery, satin-stitch, guipure, crochet work, appliqué.
- (b) Figures based on curved lines, as a foundation for the simplest as well as the richest designs for borders, using spirals and all other forms that have already been practised.
- (c) Spirals with or without curved lines in simple combinations for corners and borders.
- (d) Figures based on a variety of lines to be used as designs for Venetian embroidery.

9.—*Syllabus of Practical Cookery.*

(for 37 week-days in the year.)

## Preliminary Remarks.

- (i.) The cookery school is intended for practical instruction only.
- (ii.) All theoretical teaching and experiments, not directly connected with the process of cooking, are excluded from the cookery school and must be dealt with in the class room during the preceding housewifery lessons.
- (iii.) All dishes must be prepared in accordance with the principles of strict economy, and any preparation of food which increases its cost without raising its nutritive value is strictly prohibited.
- (iv.) Together with each new principal dish prepared in the cookery school a supplementary dish shall always be prepared, so that the girls may have an opportunity of practising on their own responsibility what they have learnt previously and of learning betimes the importance of arranging their work properly.
- (v.) The choice of the supplementary dishes is to be guided by sensible rules as to proper nourishment. For example—meat shall be cooked with vegetables; farinaceous food with stewed fruit, etc.
- (vi.) In all schools which have a kitchen garden of their own, the produce shall be used in the cookery lessons during summer and autumn.
- (vii.) The choice of dishes shall, as a rule, be made in accordance with the following system :—
  - (a) Dishes made of milk and milk products.
  - (b) Dishes made of eggs.
  - (c) Dishes made of flour (flour and eggs, flour and fat, bread).
  - (d) Vegetables (pulse, potatoes, roots, green vegetables, etc.)
  - (e) Meat (beef, veal, pork).
  - (f) Fish (fresh and salt-water fish).
  - (g) Potable food adjuncts (tea, coffee, chocolate).
  - (h) Fungi (if possible).
  - (i) Fruit.

But, in order to do justice to the principles laid down in paragraphs (iv.), (v.), and (vi.), the routine must sometimes be altered; care must be taken, however, to avoid interference with important principles of method. Thus, in lessons on dishes made of milk, the necessary information about flour ought to be introduced when infant's food is dealt with; and in October and November certain simple vegetable preparations (such as sauerkraut and blue cabbage) ought to be made; and in the first week of November beef should be cooked, so as not to postpone lessons on meat dishes till Easter. Finally, a fruit dish is also to be prepared in October, partly because fruit is cheap just at that time and partly because a supplementary dish will be required for the various farinaceous foods to be prepared later.

This list would cover all necessary alterations of the syllabus, so that the systematic progress need not further be interfered with.

- (viii.) In cookery lessons it is absolutely necessary that perfect cleanliness and order shall be observed.

In accordance with these principles the following is given as a sample syllabus for a year's work.

This syllabus is to be adhered to, as a general rule, but the lessons may be shortened or extended on particular mornings as circumstances and practical considerations require.

The teacher is, however, bound, whatever alterations she may make, to observe closely the eight principles mentioned above.

Syllabus of thirty-seven Morning Lessons in Cookery, each lesson to last four hours.

1.	Introduction -	Object of cookery lessons—Equipment of the room—Division of duties—Explanation of the stove, cooking utensils, and fuel — A general idea of what a cook and her duties should be.
2.		<p style="text-align: center;">Milk Soup.</p> Constituent parts of milk—Different kinds—Nutritive value—Adulteration—Milk testers—Boiling milk (milk boilers, preventing waste from boiling over)—Aim of the lesson:—Instruction in means of nutrition. Gardening—sowing spinach and "Nissel" salad (Nissel is a lettuce with tiny light green leaves).
3.	Milk and milk products.	<p style="text-align: center;">Baby-food.</p> Preservation of milk—Influence of weather upon milk — Milk for babies — Sochlet's apparatus.
4.		<p><i>Topfennudeln</i> (a kind of "Toad in a Hole") (with or without Sauerkraut).            Butter (artificial butter)—Cheese, different kinds, nutritive value, adulteration, preservation.</p>
5.	Eggs - -	Boiling Eggs, soft and hard; Scrambled Eggs. Constituent parts—Nutritive value—Different kinds—Price—Changes that take place in cooking—Digestibility—Signs of Freshness—Preserving eggs—Marketing—Egg "conserves."
6.	Fruit - -	<p style="text-align: center;">Fresh and Dried Fruit.            Apple Jam. Stewed Prunes.</p> Constituent parts of fruit—Importance—Preparation—Preservation—Packing—Condiments.
7.	Meat - - -	<p style="text-align: center;">Cooking of Beef. Meat Soup with 'Toasted Bread.</p> Constituent parts—Nutritive value—Signs of good meat—Changes resulting from cooking—Meat extracts—Preservation—Price.

8.	Vegetables	<p>Blue Cabbage.                      Repetition: Cooking beef and bread soup.                      Constituent parts of vegetables—Nutritive value of spinach and similar vegetables, for instance, chervil (compare with wild parsley).</p>
9.		<p>Rice Broth with Milk.                      Composition of grains — Nutritive value of cereals: Bran, pearl barley, oatmeal, groats, millet, rice.</p>
10.	Flour	<p>“<i>Einlaufsuppe</i>” (soup into which thin batter has been slowly dropped).                      Supplementary dishes—Boiled beef and celery with vinegar.                      Constituent parts of flour—Adulteration. Tests—Treatment in the kitchen—Proportions of flour and milk—flour and water.</p>
11.	Flour and Fat	<p><i>Brennsuppe</i> and toasted bread.                      (Soup made of fried flour, etc.)                      Supplementary cooking—Melting down fat.                      Different kinds of fat: (a) animal, (b) vegetable—Proportion of fat and flour—Fried flour: (a) white, (b) brown—development of dextrin and “browning” (caramel)—Importance of fat in the human and animal body—Combination—Nutritive value—Animal and vegetable fats (oils).</p>
12.	Repetition on milk, eggs, flour.	<p>Effects of milk, egg, and flour upon each other.                      Dried <i>Nudeln</i> (thick batter rolled out thin and cut into ribbons) with prunes.</p>
13.		<p>Pastry and fibert-cakes (Christmas confections).                      Egg-snow. Spices—their nutritive value.</p>
14.	Washing day. On the following afternoon, mangling and ironing.	<p>Washing kitchen cloths. Cleansing materials.                      Water, soap, soda, washing blue, starch. Injurious effects of chloride of lime. The children are to be given some bread and butter.</p>
15.	Dough made with yeast.	<p><i>Rohrnudeln</i> (a kind of rolls) with dried fruit.                      Yeast (fermentation).</p>
16.	Bread	<p>Dumplings with Eggs. Onion Sauce.                      Preparation. Yeast-dough (fermentation).                      Baking—Nutritive value of bread—Black and white bread.</p>

17.	Veal - - -	Roast Veal. (The trimmings are to be used to make soup). Constituents of veal—Nutritive value—Price— Changes produced by roasting.
18.	Pulse - - -	Pea Soup, served with fried bread cut into dice. Constituent parts—Nutritive value—Digestibility— Cooking of pulse—Different kinds of peas.
19.	Potatoes. Mutton.	Stewed Mutton with Salted Potatoes. Constituent parts of potatoes—Nutritive value— Digestion—Different kinds — Purchasing— Characteristics—Storing—Freezing. Mutton: Constituents—Nutritive value—Price —Different modes of preparation.
20.	Potatoes with flour and fat.	Potato Fritters with Sour Cream Sauce. Various dishes made with potatoes. Their composition and nutritive value.
21.	Internal organs -	Boiled Lights with Dumplings. Contingent work : preparation of lights (scalding etc.) on the previous afternoon. Nutriment contained in the lungs (albumen). Other dishes, e.g., brain or tongue, heart, stomach, liver, kidneys, melt, intestines (tripe, pluck, caule).
22.		Boiled Haddock with Potatoes and Melted Butter. Nutritive Value—Choice—Price—Preparation— Other methods of cooking it.
23.	Fish - - -	Fried Bream and Small Fish ( <i>Eitel, Nerfing, Rotauge</i> ). Potato Salad.
24.		Pectoral Tea ; black tea with rusks. Constituents—Varieties—Price—Substitutes.
25.	Tea and Coffee -	Coffee with Yeast Cakes. Constituents — Nutritive value — Varieties — Adulteration—Roasting—Substitutes.
26.	Sick Nursing -	Beef-tea. Meat Essences. " <i>Schleimsuppe</i> ." Home-nursing. Garden-work :—If the weather permits, at the beginning of April, sowing of radishes, garlic, spring onions, parsley, leeks, carrots, <i>Kohlrabi</i> , Savoy cabbages.

27.	Pork - -	Pork Outlets with Potato and Nissel Salad. Nutritive value—Price—How to make use of all parts of a pig.
28.	Sauerkraut	Smoked Pork with Sauerkraut. Constituents of the Cabbage—Nutritive value—Pickling—Preservation and treatment—Different ways of cooking it.
29.	Sausage - -	Hot Sausage with Lentils. Mixing and preparation—Nutritive value—Price—Poison found in sausages—Adulteration—Various kinds of sausages. Garden-work :—Weeding.
30.	Washing day -	Washing Kitchen Cloths. Cocoa and Chocolate with Milk Rolla.
31.	Repetition -	Potato Soup. Spinach and Poached Eggs.
32.		Vegetable Soup. Omelette and Fruit.
33.	Complete Dinner	Soup of Fried Groats. Beef à la mode and Fried Potatoes.
34.		Liver Dumplings, Beef, <i>Kohlrabi</i> .
35.	Edible Fungi -	Cooking fungi with dumplings, <i>e.g.</i> , coral fungus, bread fungus, mushroom, parasol fungus, moril, &c. Nutritive value — Price — Care required in gathering—Different methods of preparation —Drying. Or, instead of the above :— Bread dumplings ( <i>Nudeln</i> ) and soup of root-vegetables.
36.	Preserving and storing of all kinds of food.	Making Currant Jam.
37.	Cleaning and Washing.	Smoked Sausage and Lettuce Salad.

## II.—Industrial Drawing.

*(Optional, 4 hours.)*

Whereas the object of the two compulsory drawing lessons is chiefly to aid the instruction in needlework, the optional drawing lessons are intended as a preparation for various art industries open to girls, such as jewelry, goldsmithery, designing for wallpapers and carpets, lithography, ornamental embroidery, confectionery, and pottery. Therefore, besides freehand drawing from flat models, geometrical drawing is also to be practised. Drawing from life and the elements of projection, in connection with sectional working-drawings, form the subject of instruction for the following year.

The freehand drawing is to be practised from flat copies with simple conventionalised ornament. These are to be chosen in such a way that their development from natural forms can always be shown and explained to the pupils.

The geometrical drawing is practised first of all from flat copies and aims at making the pupils familiar with the use of mathematical instruments, squares, and triangles. As in the VIIIth classes for boys it leads on to the drawing of simple geometrical ornament.

In both the compulsory freehand lessons encouragement is given to simple, independent compositions of which simple conventionalised natural forms are the basis. But the optional freehand drawing lessons have as their primary object to teach the comprehension of given ornaments and their correct reproduction.

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The above plan of instruction is the result of the provisional draft which was accepted three years ago and which has now been revised in accordance with subsequent experience. The original plan of Dr. Georg Kerschensteiner, the Director of Schools, was adopted, on the motion of the Royal Local School Committee on March 31st, 1896, by resolutions of both the Municipal Assemblies of April 14th and April 23rd, 1896, and, in accordance with a resolution of the Government of Upper Bavaria (Home Office) of August 21st, 1896, Nr. 32,107, it received the Royal Assent on August 18th, 1896, Nr. 13,127, under the following enactments:—

- (i.) The VIIIth classes to be organised for girls shall be, like those for boys, central classes; but, if required, they may, nevertheless, be opened in different parts of the town.
- (ii.) They are to be placed under the Local School Committee and the District School Inspectorate of that school in the premises of which they are held.
- € (iii.) The plan of instruction is adopted in the first instance for the period  
\* of three years in accordance with the motion of the Local School Committee.
- (iv.) Admission to the VIIIth classes for girls can only follow on the completion of their seven years' ordinary school time; therefore girls may only be admitted on leaving the VIth class if at that time they have attended school for the required seven years.
- (v.) Pupils who have attended the classes for the 8th year receive a "leaving certificate" at the end of the time.
- (vi.) Pupils leaving before the expiration of the 8th year have nevertheless to complete their attendance at the Sunday schools; but the time spent in the VIIIth classes will be deducted therefrom.
- (vii.) Girls who are attending the VIIIth classes are released for that year from the holiday school, and, after the expiration of that year, have only to attend Sunday school for one more year.

The revised syllabus as given above received, by a resolution of December 14th, 1899, the approbation of the Royal Local School Committee, and with the consent of the Royal Government of Upper Bavaria, Home Office (February 1st, 1900, Nr. 51,610), its definite introduction was approved.

Munich, February 7th, 1900.

ROYAL LOCAL SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF THE ROYAL CAPITAL AND  
RESIDENCE OF MUNICH.

W. v. BORSCHT.

*I. Mayor—Professor of Law.*

PH. v. BRUNER,

DR. GEORG KERSCHENSTEINER,

*II. Mayor—Professor of Law.*

*Royal Commissioner of Schools.*

APPENDIX D.

SPECIMEN SYLLABUS OF NEEDLEWORK IN A HIGHER GIRLS'  
SCHOOL (SCHWEINFURTH, BAVARIA).

First year (age of pupils: 10 years).—Plain knitting—Knitting sampler with thirteen or fourteen designs—One pair of stockings. (Material: white yarn with red for edgings.)

Second year (age of pupils: 11 years).—Crotchet sampler (about fourteen patterns)—Two fancy-work samplers (canvas, with letters and stitches for darning damask, woven cloth, etc., and worked in two colours).

Third year (age of pupils: 12 years).—Sewing sampler: An apron—Mending sampler (patching, etc.).

Fourth year (age of pupils: 13 years).—Chemise—Pair of drawers.

Fifth year (age of pupils: 14 years).—Nightjacket—Embroidery sampler (stitches used in white embroidery).

Sixth year (age of pupils: 15 years).—Darning sampler—White embroidery (marking handkerchiefs, etc.)—Knitting in a stocking-heel—Coloured embroidery (cushion covers and other ordinary fancy-work).

APPENDIX E.

EXTRACT FROM THE SYLLABUS OF THE MUNICIPAL HIGHER SCHOOL  
FOR GIRLS IN MUNICH (1903–1904).

8.—NATURAL SCIENCE AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY LEADING TO AND COMBINED  
WITH HEALTH LESSONS AND THE THEORY OF EDUCATION.

A.—AIM OF THE LESSONS.

The object of the science lessons is to show the fundamental laws underlying general life and its development from the earliest ages to the present time, with especial reference to the conduct of human life.

B.—SYLLABUS.

*Class I.—2 hours per week.*

Observations on animals and plants, their dwellings, life and external characteristics:—

- (a) Zoology.—Important examples of the different orders of mammals, chosen and classified according to region, movement, and food. Comparison of these types of animals with special reference to their biological and domestic importance.
- (b) Botany, Liliaceae, and Rosaceae.—Biological significance of the roots, stamens, leaves, buds, flowers, fruit, seeds; plant-collecting and observation of plant life (continued in the 2nd and 3rd classes).

*Class II.—2 hours per week.*

As far as possible, the central point of attention shall always be the external requirements of life and their relation to habits and form.

- (a) Zoology.—The external and internal build of a bird (swallow) for flying. Bird forms adapted for walking and swimming (ostrich and duck).

Changes in form consequent on different kinds of nourishment (meat, grain, berries, insects); the actual corn-eaters (*Scharrvögel*). Summary from biological and domestic points of view.

The effect of climate on the habits and forms of animals (reptiles and toads). Complete adaptation to life in the water (fish). The domestic importance of fishes, amphibious animals and reptiles.

- (b) Botany.—Typical flowering plants (*phanerogams*) chosen according to locality and time of flowering. The chief necessities of plant-life: water, air, light and warmth, illustrated by physical and chemical experiments.

*Class III.—2 hours per week.*

It must be demonstrated that the different habits of life develop according to economic laws.

- (a) Zoology.—The organs and life of the lower animals as suited to their needs (only certain examples of the most important classes). The functions and typical structure of the bodies of lower and higher animals.

Herds and tribes; common life among animals of different kinds.

The transition from animal to plant life; the special development of certain organs through use; notes on the natural defences of the individual animals, etc.

The influence of domestication on animals; the most important facts in the value of the domestic animals.

- (b) Botany.—The functions and inner build of plants, illustrated by chosen examples of cryptogams and conifers. Examples of adaptation to outward circumstances of nourishment, propagation and growth. Plant defence against the attacks of animals. Transition forms between plants and animals (compare with (a)). Plants and house-keeping. Summary of the animal and vegetable systems.

*Class IV.—3 hours per week.*

Natural law in the build and life of the human body, with special reference to health and family life.

Purpose, structure, joints, function and care of the bones, muscles and nerves. The skull, the ear and sense of hearing, the larynx and the human voice; connection between hearing and speech, care of the ear and the voice. Light, the eye and the sense of sight; necessity for natural light in living-rooms; sources of light and different kinds of artificial lighting from the point of view of health and of economy. Smell and taste. The outer-skin and the care of it. The digestive organs, the circulation and the heart, the organs and process of breathing; care of the organs of nourishment. The biological principle of human life; the family as the foundation of the same.

*Class V.—4 hours per week.*

Natural law underlying domestic economy and physical education.

- (a) Sketch of the duties of a housewife:—The laws of heat; heat and clothing; heat and dwellings; heating; preparation of fires (phosphorus, sulphur); fuel (coal and its combinations; oxidation with and without the appearance of light, wood, peat, stone, and wood coal). The stove. Animal, plant and mineral substances in their relation to food and housekeeping; the principal elements of our food; oxygen, water, carbon and nitrogen and their most important chemical combinations. The functions of oxygen and carbon in breathing and

the production of bodily heat. The organic combinations of carbon, water and oxygen in starch, sugar, fat and white of egg; the arrangement, preparation and preservation of animal and plant foods; water, spices and beverages as aids to digestion. Diagram of the nourishing values and costs of different foods. The necessities of the family, arranged under nourishment, clothing, dwelling, heat and light.

(b) Principles of physical education.

*Class VI.—3 hours per week.*

Mechanical, magnetic, electric and electro-chemical forces in the service of man, chiefly in their application to domestic implements, utensils and machines. Continuation of the general lessons on education.

(a) Gravitation. The mechanics of solid, liquid and gaseous bodies, and the chief domestic and commercial utensils, implements, and machines. The law of gravitation, Kepler's laws and Newton's explanation. The tides. Magnetic forces. Electric distribution in thunder-storms; the origin of the electric current and its chemical and magnetic effects; the telegraph and telephone.

(b) Principles of intellectual and social education.

## APPENDIX F.

### SPECIMEN LESSON-PLAN AND TIME-TABLE FOR THE EVANGELICAL GIRLS' HOMES (FOUNDED BY DR. F. ZIMMER).

#### LESSON-PLAN.

The full course of instruction lasts two or three terms, according to individual wish and capacity (i.e., about one and a half years), and closes with an examination.

The Committee grants, to those pupils who have attained the requisite proficiency, a diploma which certifies them to be capable of conducting a small household.

#### SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

*Housewifery Instruction*:—Housekeeping, i.e., cookery, baking, preserving, ironing, cleaning, sewing, i.e., mending, darning, hand and machine sewing, cutting out of under-garments; in the third term also care of linen, white embroidery (chiefly marking), dressmaking (at this stage they can usually make overalls, blouses and a better dress).

*Continuation of the General Education*.—Religion (history of Christianity, questions of the day in the light of the Gospels, etc.), history of literature with class reading of the national classics, history of art (classes taken to the public galleries), elements of pedagogy, German, French and English, social laws and customs, hygiene of food and of health, drilling, drawing, class-singing; third term: especially more advanced ethics, history of art, pedagogy, sick nursing and first-aid.

*Optional Extra Subjects* (not included in general fee):—Singing (solo), painting and dancing.

#### SPECIMEN TIME-TABLE.

8.30 a.m. to 12.

In the morning the pupils are divided into two groups which change their work each week.

(a) (First week)—

Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday

Sewing, 2 hours

Drill,  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour

Languages (German, French or English), 1 hour

- Tuesday and Friday - - - - Religion or Ethics, 1 hour  
 Languages, 1 hour  
 Sewing, 2 hours
- Saturday - - - - - Drawing, 2 hours.  
 Drill,  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour  
 Languages, 1 hour
- Each day - - - - - Various light household  
 duties.
- (b) (Second week)—Explanation of recipes and practical cookery, or (one week in each quarter) housework, washing, ironing, cleaning of furniture, silver, brasses, etc.

*Afternoons.*

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
p.m. 4-5	Arith- metic	Pedagogy or Dic- tation of Foreign Words	"Manners and Customs."	Composi- tion or Law	Free for a longer Excur- sion	Hygiene
5-6	Domestic Science	History of Art	Domestic Economy or First- Aid	Litera- ture		Singing
6-7	Walk	Walk	Walk	Walk		Walk

*Evenings.*

8.30- 9.15	General Reading	Recitation	Mending	Domestic and Private Book- keeping	Free for Private Letters
9.15	Evening Prayers				

APPENDIX G.

EXTRACTS FROM THE PROSPECTUS OF THE SCHOOL OF NEEDLE-  
 WORK AT REUTLINGEN.

§ 1. The sewing-school of Reutlingen, which was founded in 1863, is under the protection of Her Majesty Queen Charlotte and the authority of the Royal Department of Religion and Education. It is a combined State and town school and under the direction of the Royal Commission for Technical Schools in Stuttgart, assisted by the town council.

The aim of the school is to train girls to be efficient in all branches of needlework, etc. :—

- (a) For home use.
- (b) For commercial life.
- (c) As teachers of sewing.

The governing body of the school consists of a president, appointed by the Royal Commission for Technical Schools, a councillor, chosen by the members of the town council, and a committee of ladies.

The immediate control of the school is under an inspector and a head-mistress, both experienced in technical and artistic work and business.

At present there are twenty staff teachers, while special lecturers are engaged for the extra subjects.

§ 2. The practical work of the school is grounded on a union of drawing and sewing.

The instructions given in the sewing-classes are entered by the pupils in their note-books, and illustrated by drawings, so that each pupil obtains a book which enables her to adapt what she has already learned to new uses.

The excellent school collection of teaching apparatus and examples of applied art provides a series of valuable object-lessons for the pupils.

§ 3. The chief branches of instruction are :—

- I. Drawing.
- II. Needlework (all branches).
- III. General subjects.

Drawing is begun in the first course with geometrical drawing, which is also a foundation for drafting of patterns. In the second course elementary freehand follows, and this leads on to drawing, design and painting of ornamental patterns with special application to embroidery, etc. The students and advanced pupils learn in addition perspective, drawing from nature, together with the application of nature studies to conventional design, copying embroideries and costumes, ornamental lettering, and in conclusion, method of teaching drawing.

The studio is open to pupils who attend none of the practical classes at a fee of 7s. per term.

The sewing courses and fees per course in the five principal subjects are as follows :—

	£	s.	d.
1. Hand sewing : Various stitches, making of lingerie, mending, scalloping, crewel-stitch and drawn-thread work	1	0	0
2. Machining : Use of the sewing machine, simple machinery, drawn-thread work, making various machine-sewn garments	1	7	6
3. Dressmaking for children and adults, costumes, jackets and mantles	1	13	0

The above-named lessons are combined with lessons in pattern-drafting (4 hours per week) in order that the pupils may learn to cut out independently.

4. Knitting, crochet, netting, macramé and fringe-making in wool, cotton and silk, also pillow-lace making, frame-work (so-called Rentlingen articles), and weaving (Gobelin and Northern weaving)	1	7	0
5. Embroidery : white, coloured, gold and lace embroidery ; special drawing with practice in the choice of materials and colours	1	7	0

Also two extra courses :—

(a) Ironing	0	7	0
(b) Millinery	0	5	0

The practical and art work and the course of training for intending teachers are regulated by the rules of the State Examination for Sewing Teachers.

The general subjects (optional) include :—

	Per Course.
(a) Scientific and other lectures	3s.
(b) History of art and design	free.
(c) General aesthetic principles for the design and execution of artistic embroidery, etc.	free.
(d) Pedagogy	free.
(e) Lectures on raw materials and textile goods	free.
(f) German and arithmetic	5s. to 10s.

	Per Course.
(g) Book-keeping and commercial arithmetic - - -	5s. to 10s.
(h) Choral singing - - - - -	3s.
(i) Dancing and deportment - - - - -	20s.
(k) Gymnastics - - - - -	free.

Subjects (a) to (f) and (k) are obligatory for students in training. Opportunity is given for private lessons in languages and music.

§ 4. The drawing mentioned in § 3, I (at least four hours per week, not including pattern drafting) is obligatory for all pupils. Exemption can only be claimed on production of a medical certificate to the effect that drawing would be detrimental to the health of the pupil in question.

Pupils are earnestly recommended to begin with the course in hand-sewing, which is the most important foundation for all other courses, and is a great aid to the learning of pattern drafting. Pupils may, however, enter any class at the beginning of the course, if they should exhibit sufficient proficiency in the entrance examination.

In subjects, § 3, 1-3, which are combined with obligatory lessons in drawing, pupils must at entrance undertake to remain for a full course at least. In subjects 4 and 5 entrance is permitted monthly.

The course of commercial or trade training in any of these subjects is arranged in each case entirely according to the aims and wishes of the individual pupil. The time required depends on her previous knowledge.

The training course for teachers in elementary, secondary and higher girls' schools consists of seven courses and lasts one year and seven months. Entrance on 10th September.

The higher State examination qualifies—

- (a) To teach all kinds of needlework;
- (b) To teach advanced dressmaking;
- (c) To teach advanced embroidery and draw

§ 5. There are three school terms, viz. :—

1. 8th January to 18th April.
2. 23rd April to 30th July.
3. 10th September to 19th December.

The school is open from 8 a.m. till noon, and from 2 to 5 p.m.; between every two hours of work is a quarter of an hour's pause. Saturday afternoon is free and can be utilized for ironing and millinery. The other secondary subjects are so arranged for the afternoon hours that not too much time is taken from the principal subjects.

For the sake of her principal subject no pupil should take simultaneously more than two secondary subjects.

§ 6. The conditions of entrance are that a pupil has passed through the ordinary school and bears an unblemished character.

Pupils from a distance are recommended to reliable lodgings and are under the care of the inspector, head-teacher and the ladies' committee.

The health of pupils is well provided for by the open situation of the school-house with its healthy, light, spacious and well-ventilated class-rooms, by the regular pauses between lessons, when in warm weather pupils can enjoy the large, shady garden, while for winter there are wide and warm corridors; the town is also particularly healthy; there are many beautiful excursions in the neighbourhood, and there is ample provision of bathing establishments.

In case of illness the best medical help is obtained, and if the illness is infectious the patient is placed in a private room at the town hospital.

The school collections and library are free to all pupils. Occasional excursions are made to the State museums in Stuttgart.

§ 7. Each pupil must provide her own machine, and materials for needlework, drawing, etc.

If desired, these can be obtained at the school, where sewing machines may also be hired.

§ 8. All fees must be paid in advance, with the addition of 10d. to the school fund for teaching materials, etc.

§ 9. Advanced pupils are able to earn something by executing orders which the school takes from manufacturers and private persons.

§ 10. Printed copies of the rules are hung in all the rooms.

Pupils are strictly forbidden to make presents to any member of the staff.

Parents and guardians of pupils from a distance are advised to choose lodgings with people of their own faith.

§ 11. Each course closes with an examination held by the class-teacher, and pupils receive reports as to their progress, achievements, diligence and attendance.

Industrious pupils who have thoroughly studied at least three principal subjects receive a diploma.

Work and drawings of special merit may be retained for the permanent school exhibition. In this case the outlay for materials is refunded.

At least once in two years an exhibition of school work is held; the school also takes part in exhibitions in other places.

## APPENDIX H.

### LIST OF DEPARTMENTS OF THE LETTEHAUS, BERLIN.

1. *Commercial School*.—One to two years. Pupils from sixteen years of age.

2. *Civil Service Courses*.—Six months. Pupils from eighteen years of age.

3. *Technical School* :—

Ten classes for different kinds of needlework, drafting and design.

Laundry work, two courses.

Cookery, etc., five courses.

Housework.

Book-keeping, two courses.

Professional Training :—

1. Training school for needlework teacher (one year).

2. Training school for advanced teachers of needlework (two and a half years).

3. Housewifery course for home use (from eight months).

4. Training for lady's maid (eight months).

5. Six-months' course in housewifery and sewing.

6. Twelve-month's course in housewifery and sewing.

7. Training course for housewifery teachers (eighteen months).

8. Combined course for housewifery and needlework teachers (two years).

Residence of the Cookery School.

School of Photography.

Victoria Boarding House.

Embroidery Trade School.

Book-binding.

Restaurant.

Registry.

Resident Housewifery School.

## APPENDIX J.

### EXTRACTS FROM THE PROSPECTUS OF THE PESTALOZZI-FRÖBEL HAUS II., BERLIN.

The object of this school is to enable women to obtain a thorough training in all branches of housewifery. The school is divided into different sections in order to meet the requirements of different classes of pupils. Each subject is taught by a trained teacher to groups of ten to twelve pupils.

Special care is given to the training of cookery and housewifery teachers, who can be recommended to suitable situations at the conclusion of the course.

The school undertakes to prepare candidates for the State examination for housewifery teachers. This training course occupies one and a half years, but only qualifies candidates to teach in elementary schools. Two years are required to prepare for the school examination which qualifies candidates to teach adults. Although many institutions undertake to prepare students for this profession in a short time, the committee has determined to keep to a training course lasting two years. After long experience, we have found the time too short for thorough mastery of both the practical and theoretical sides of all that has to be learnt, for we consider it imperative for a good technical education that, in addition to the general practical training, a definite time be devoted to housekeeping, and that chemistry, pedagogy and practice in teaching be thoroughly mastered.

#### I.—TEACHER'S TRAINING COURSE.

The course lasts two years, and candidates who are successful in the closing examination receive the diploma of the school. Fee: £4 5s. per quarter, payable in advance. Entrance fee: 3s. Fee for board and residence: £40. Entrance in April and October. A quarter's notice is required before a pupil leaves.

The courses begin on 1st April and 1st October.

Candidates must have passed through a higher girls' school and be at least twenty years of age. They must also produce: (1) an account of their life up to the present and the leaving certificate of a higher girls' school; (2) a certificate of health; (3) the consent of their parents.

The training course includes: middle-class and high-class cookery, preserving, baking, housework, laundry-work, sewing (mending, darning, etc.), housekeeping, domestic economy, chemistry, hygiene of food, health, etc., pedagogy, method, book-keeping, correspondence, gardening, botany.

#### II.—COURSES IN MIDDLE AND HIGH-CLASS COOKERY.

1. Morning courses begin in January, April and October. Length: three months. Hours: three times weekly from 9 a.m. till 1 p.m. Fee: £5 10s. Middle and high-class cookery.
2. Morning or afternoon courses in middle-class cookery. Length: three months. Hours: three times a week from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m., and 3 to 7 p.m. Fee: £2 10s. Good middle-class cookery.
3. Courses in baking, high-class cookery, decoration, etc. Once a week from 3 to 7 p.m. Fee: 3s. per lesson. (In these lessons pupils may prepare special dishes for themselves, after giving notice the previous day.)
4. Four-week courses in middle-class cookery are held in July, August and September. Length: four weeks. Hours: 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. daily. Fee: £2. (These courses are specially suitable for servants whose employers are away from home.)
5. Preserving courses are held in July and August. Attendance: six mornings from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. Fee: 15s.
6. Courses for doctors, twelve lectures from 6 to 8 p.m. Fee: 30s. (Foreigners, £2.)
7. Sick cookery. Nurses, district nurses, matrons, etc., have in these courses opportunity to learn invalid cookery, and also the preparation of simple and wholesome dishes for working-class families and children. One lesson weekly for three months. Fee: 12s.
8. Children's courses. Cookery lessons for girls from the elementary schools. Length: three months, two lessons weekly. Fee: 8d. a month including meal.

*Notes.*—In all the courses the pupils learn to cleanse the various utensils, etc. Pupils must provide aprons, a dish-cloth, note-book and pencil, two kettle-holders, a chain with knife and spoon.

III.—WASHING AND IRONING COURSES.

1. Courses in laundry-work lasting three months ; lessons twice a week from 9 a.m. till 12 p.m. Fee : £1. (Material to be brought by the pupils according to directions.)
  2. Ironing courses lasting three months ; lessons twice a week from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. or from 3 to 6 p.m. Fee : 30s.
- Servants are admitted to the afternoon courses at reduced fees.

IV.—HOUSEWORK COURSES.

1. In these courses all kinds of housework are both practically and theoretically taught, viz. : the cleaning of rooms, furniture, silver, windows, etc. Attendance : twice a week from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. for three months. Fee : 24s., including material.

V.—DRESSMAKING COURSES.

1. Home dressmaking. Length of course ; three months ; lessons three times a week from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. Fee : £2. Pupils must understand the use of the sewing machine. (Pupils must provide work-basket, drawing-paper, ruler, note-book, pencil and measure.)
2. Courses in altering dresses. Attendance : twice a week from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. for one month. Fee : 15s.

VI.—MILLINERY COURSES.

Lessons in home millinery are given twice a week from 3 to 6 p.m. for two months. Fee : 30s. (Pupils must provide all the necessary sewing materials.)

VII.—SEWING COURSES.

1. These courses give thorough teaching in every kind of mending. Attendance : twice a week from 9 a.m. to 12 p.m. for three months. Fee : 30s.
2. Machine sewing and elementary cutting-out. Courses last three months. Attendance : twice weekly from 9 a.m. till 12 p.m. Fee : 30s. (Pupils must provide the necessary sewing materials, also the prescribed articles to repair.)

VIII.—HOUSEWIFERY COURSES FOR GIRLS WHO HAVE LEFT SCHOOL.

1. Laundry and housework. Attendance : three times a week for three months. Fee : 9s.
2. Sewing and cooking. Attendance : three times a week for three months. Fee : 9s.

IX.—GARDENING.

Lessons on the treatment of plants and the ordering of a garden. Attendance : once a week from 5 to 7 p.m. for six months. Fee : 25s.

X.—COMBINED HOUSEWIFERY COURSES.

Courses for young girls in all branches of domestic economy, lasting six months. Fee : £14.

Lessons in middle and high-class cookery, preserving, laundry-work, housework, sewing and domestic economy.

Pupils from a distance can board at the school, as far as space permits. Resident fee : £22 10s. for six months.

Every intending boarder must produce an account of her life, a certificate of health and the leaving certificate of a higher girls' school.

## XI.—PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

1. Young girls who have already a practical knowledge of housewifery are prepared to take situations as mother's-a-helps. The course lasts six months. Fee: £10, or £15 for one year.
2. Servants' courses. Girls who have left the elementary school and can produce a certificate of good character are trained for domestic service. The course lasts six months, with daily attendance from 8 a.m. Fee: including dinner and tea, 3s. a month, payable in advance.
3. It is intended to form classes for waitresses. The training will include the laying of tables, waiting, the cleaning of glass and silver, sewing and ironing. Such a course will last at least six weeks.
4. It is also intended to form an evening continuation class for servants, which will meet from 6 p.m. till 9 p.m. Lessons will be given in housework, sewing and laundry-work. Attendance once a week for three months. Fee: 6s.

## APPENDIX K.

PROSPECTUS OF THE COUNTRY HOUSEWIFERY SCHOOL IN  
OBERNKIRCHEN (ISSUED 1905).

Here, where the mid-German hill-country sinks into the flat-lands of North Germany, the little town of Obernkirchen lies picturesquely on the northern slopes of the beech-crowned Weserberge in the district of Schaumburg. The nearest place of importance is Bückeberg, the capital of the Duchy of Schaumburg-Lippe. Obernkirchen is a station on the Rinteln-Stadthagen line, and can be reached from Hanover in little more than an hour.

Close to the village lies an ancient endowment, founded in the ninth century, many of whose spacious apartments had been unused for decades and were falling into decay.

By a gracious decision of His Majesty the Emperor and of the King, these buildings were placed at the disposal of the Society for Country Housewifery Schools, and after much alteration and rebuilding they were opened in 1901 as a housewifery school, under the patronage of Her Highness the Duchess of Schaumburg-Lippe.

The programmes in the schools at Reifenstein and Obernkirchen are the same for the first school year. The first object is to initiate the pupils into practical domestic work. How this is done can be best understood from the description of a working day.

Pupils get up at 6.30 a.m. They then take turns in preparing the coffee and in performing other small household duties. Prayers, followed by breakfast, are at 7.30 a.m. (in the summer everything is half an hour earlier). Then the pupils clean and tidy their bedrooms. \* At 8.30 a.m. practical work begins in kitchen, house, laundry, dairy and farm-yard.

The pupils work in groups which change duties daily. The kitchen group prepares dinner; the house group lays and serves the table.

Dinner is at 12.30 p.m., and then there is a pause until 2.30 p.m. The afternoon is devoted to sewing and theoretical lessons, the latter being all given in reference to practical life. From six o'clock onwards the pupils arrange their own occupations; they can take walks either before or after the classes.

\* The change noted in the text (p. 72) has been made since this prospectus was issued.

Supper is at 7.30 p.m., and evening prayers are soon after 9 p.m. Then those who are tired can go to bed, and all must have retired by 10.30 p.m.

There is a musical evening once a week and also either a reading or social evening.

The pupils who only wish to take the usual housewifery course usually leave at the end of the first school year, which closes with an examination.

In special cases and if space permits, pupils can be admitted for shorter times up to six months, but the training is in this case necessarily much less complete, for a year is hardly sufficient to give a thorough grounding in all the subjects taught.

After the first year those who wish for professional training enter the seminary courses, which are the chief feature of the second year. An allied but differently organised housewifery school serves as the practising school. An experienced mistress teaches pedagogy and method, and the theoretical knowledge gained is illustrated and confirmed by practical experience among the pupils of this second housewifery school, and also in the school kitchen attached to the elementary school for the use of the older children.

The course closes with an examination under State control, which is held in accordance with the examination regulations for housewifery teachers issued by the Prussian Kultusministerium.

Successful candidates receive diplomas as housewifery teachers. At present the examination does not qualify them to teach in public schools (i.e., under the public education authorities).

In every way this school is arranged not as an educational establishment for growing girls, but as a continuation school for girls who are already grown up.

Thus the pupils have complete freedom as far as is permitted by the school work and rules. The place is filled with a spirit of unconstrained happiness which finds abundant expression in the social evenings, excursions, and little festivals which both vary and improve the serious work.

#### SYLLABUS.

Instruction is given according to the following plan :—

##### 1.—*Practical Subjects.*

**Cookery :** Middle and high-class cookery ; arrangement and embellishment of the dishes ; preservation, dealing with things left over.

Baking white bread and all kinds of cakes.

All kinds of fruit and vegetable preserving.

Slaughtering pigs and geese.

Cleaning of kitchen and utensils.

Washing : Treatment of table, bed and body linen, also of the finer coloured materials and woollen dresses.

Ironing the above-mentioned, with the addition of dresses, collars, cuffs and shirts.

House-cleaning : Cleaning dwelling and bed-rooms ; lamps, silver, knives and windows ; polishing floors and furniture ; taking out stains, etc.

Gardening : All practical work in the vegetable, fruit and flower gardens.

Dairy-work : Milk-skimming by the centrifugal method ; butter and cheese making.

Poultry-rearing : Natural and artificial methods of breeding fowls and ducks ; rearing and feeding.

Needlework : Hand and machine sewing ; making and repairing garments.

Dressmaking : Simple blouses and dresses.

*2.—Theoretical Subjects.*

- Lessons on Food :** Study of different kinds of food, their origin, food-value, price, purchase, preservation and uses ; writing out and calculating recipes ; invalid cookery.
- Gardening :** Soils and manures ; laying out a house garden ; the cultivation of vegetables, fruit and flowers.
- Botany :** The principal facts in the anatomy, physiology and morphology of plants ; classification of plants.
- Dairy-work :** Production, treatment and preservation of milk ; analysis of milk ; impurities in milk ; butter and cheese making.
- Poultry-rearing :** Position and arrangement of the nests, etc. ; natural and artificial methods of breeding ; rearing and care ; different breeds ; diseases of poultry.
- Book-keeping :** Simple domestic book-keeping ; book-keeping for small farms and schools.
- Hygiene (health lessons) :** Build and care of the human body ; necessities for health ; nursing and first-aid.
- Law and Government :** General lessons on government, constitutions and ruling bodies, social law, insurance, taxation, investments, declarations, etc. ; reports and business correspondence.
- Chemistry—Inorganic :** The chief elements, their occurrence, peculiarities, combinations, with special reference to the home (kitchen, garden, laundry, etc.).
- Chemistry—Organic :** Fats, soaps, carbo-hydrates, proteids, alkalies, ferments.
- Physics :** Mechanics of solids, liquids and gases ; lessons on heat, sound, light, magnetism and electricity.
- Additional subjects for students in training :—**
- Method :** The chief principles of teaching ; preparation, discussion and criticism of practice-lessons.
- Pedagogy.—**The chief principles of education, psychology, schooling and method. Short history of pedagogy and the most famous teachers.
- Servants** are kept for the rough daily work of the house.
- Fee for pension and instruction is £15 per quarter for Germans, £17 10s. for foreigners, payable in advance.

APPENDIX L.  
SUMMARY OF THE REGULATIONS OF SIX COUNTRY HOUSEWIFERY SCHOOLS.

Name.	Owned by	Founded.	No. of Pupils.	Minimum Age.	No. of Teachers	Length of Course.	Fee.	Notes.
Neckarbischofsheim	District	1884	22	16	2	5 months	20/- to 40/- + 7/- per week for food.	Lower Middle Class School. No gardening or poultry-rearing.
Budweis (S. Bohemia)	District	—	25	15	4	5 months	About 10 guineas	Non-resident pupils also taken. Gardening and poultry-rearing taught.
Geiselsgasteig (near Munich)	Private Committee	1902	22	16	5	12 months	About £52	Teacher's training course lasts 2 years. Gardening, poultry-rearing and bee- keeping taught. Short holidays at Christmas and Easter.
Reifenstein (Representative of Obernkirchen and Kempen)	Private Committee.	1900 in this place (original school 1897)	36	18	4	12 months	£60 to £65	Classes held by pupils for village children. All country subjects taught, includ- ing dairy work. 4 weeks holiday at Christmas and 1 week in October.
Arwedshof (Bes. Leipzig)	Private	1906	20 (will increase to 30)	17	5	12 months	£60 to £65	Syllabus includes preserving, poultry and dairy work. Optional subjects include fish- rearing, the care of calves, etc. 4 weeks holiday at Christmas.
Baden-Baden	The Dowager Grand Duchess	—	44	16	8	4 months	About £27	2 parallel schools, each taking 22 pupils. Only the lightest garden work taught

## APPENDIX M.

### SUMMARY OF THE REGULATIONS OF SIX TOWN TECHNICAL SCHOOLS (EXCLUDING SEWING SCHOOLS).

Name.	Founded	Number of Pupils.	Minimum Age.	Number of Teachers	Resident Course.	Resident Fees.	Training Courses.	Notes.
Rheydt a/ Rhein	1870	28 in Housewifery Course.		19				Courses in all subjects and all grades. State school since 1903. Representative of schools at Potsdam and Posen.
Hanover - -	1903	About 160. 10 to 16 per Course.		12		Up to £60 per annum.	1½ years for State examination.	Belongs to Women's Society. Restaurant and 4 kitchens. Mostly detached Courses, lasting from 3 months to 1 year. Free continuation school (girls go into service).
Munich - -	1895	30	16	4	5½ months.	£15 per Course.	Intending Teachers sent on to Carlsruhe.	School under large Society and aided by Town.
Strassburg -	1894	18 resident, 22 non-resident.	18	3	3 to 5 months.	£8 per Course.	Training for peripatetic diploma, 12 to 15 months. Full certificate 6 months longer.	Founded by National Women's Society.
Stuttgart - -	1895	70 (45 resident.)	16	8	6 months.	£24 to £25.	Students' Course 18 months. 2 students on duty in each kitchen.	School belongs to Women's Society. 32 in resident Housewifery Course.
Vienna . - -	1868	About 1,200	14		*Started 1905. 2 years.	Housewifery fees average £10 per ann.		Detached Courses in all Technical subjects. Also High School and Commercial School. No residence.

\* Non-resident.

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SPECIAL REPORTS

ON

EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS

VOLUME 20.

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THE TEACHING OF CLASSICS

IN

SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN GERMANY.

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Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.

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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 20

OF

SPECIAL REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

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The following reports are based on information collected during a tour made in Germany, at the instance of the Board of Education, by the authors, Mr. Frank Fletcher, Mr. J. W. Headlam, one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Secondary Schools, and Mr. J. L. Paton, during the months of August and September 1906. Through the courtesy of the Prussian Ministry and the Hamburg Education Authority, they were enabled to attend the lessons at a large number of schools (a list of which is appended), and the Board desire to express their warmest thanks to the Prussian Kultus Ministerium and the Hamburg *Oberschulbehörde* for permission to visit the schools and to the directors and their colleagues for the ready courtesy with which they welcomed them, and the kindness with which they placed at their disposal information for which they asked. The Board also express their obligations to Dr. Reinhardt, Vortragender Rat in the Prussian Ministry of Education, and to Dr. J. Ziehen and Dr. F. Bölte for help given at Frankfurt. The following schools were visited by one or more of the three gentlemen conducting the inquiry, all of whom were present at Frankfurt:—

*Hannover*.—Städt. Leibnizschule. Direktor: Geh. Rat E. Ramdohr. Kgl. Kaiser Wilhelms-Gymnasium. Direktor: Professor Dr. Richard Wachsmuth.

*Linden-Hannover*.—Städt. Humboldtschule. Direktor: Professor Dr. Oehlmann.

*Magdeburg*.—Städt. Oberrealschule u. Realgymnasium (Guericke-Schule). Direktor: Dr. Hummel.

*Hamburg*.—Wilhelm-Gymnasium. Direktor: Professor Wilhelm Wegehaupt. Realgymnasium des Johanneums. Direktor: Professor Dr. Tendering.

*Altona*.—Städt. Realgymnasium und Realschule. Direktor: Professor Dr. Borbein.

*Frankfurt*.—Lessing-Gymnasium. Direktor: Dr. Friedrich Neubauer. Goethe-Gymnasium. Direktor: Dr. Ewald Bruhn. Wöhler-Realgymnasium. Direktor: Dr. Otto Liermann. Musterschule. Direktor: Dr. Max Walter.

*Berlin.*—Askanisches Gymnasium. Direktor : Professor Dr. A. Busse. Kgl. Französisches Gymnasium. Direktor : Dr. Georg Schulze.

*Charlottenburg.*—Städt. Kaiser Friedrich-Schule. Direktor : Dr. phil. Johann Alfred Zernecke.

*Breslau.*—Städt. Gymnasium und Realgymnasium zum heiligen Geist. Direktor : Dr. Wilhelm Richter.

*Dresden.*—Städt. Drei-König-Schule. Rektor : Professor Dr. Hugo Schladebach.

The immediate object of the tour was to enable the inquirers to acquaint themselves with the "actual working of the system of organisation which has recently been introduced into some of the Frankfurt and other schools, and which is known as the 'Frankfurt reform scheme.'" The characteristic of this is that the age at which the study of the ancient languages is begun is postponed later than has been customary. Latin is not begun till the age of twelve, Greek not till fourteen. It is maintained by those who advocate this system that under it boys can, before they leave school, attain the same standard of proficiency in the classical languages as those who have been brought up on the old system. The importance of this, if true, is clear. It would immensely simplify the problems connected with the choice of classical or modern side, and the transference of boys from one type of school to another. It was therefore necessary to inquire how far the claims made for the system were justified, whether the experience of Germany was such as to encourage those who wish to introduce a similar system into England. Above all, the Board desired to find out whether, in those schools in which both Greek and Latin is taught, the result of the change appeared to be to strengthen and raise the position of the classics, and to maintain a high standard of excellence among those who had been educated under it, or whether, as has been suggested, it is only one step in the other direction, and is merely part of a gradual process, the ultimate result of which must be the abolition of what is known as a classical education.

The system has been in force for over ten years in certain selected schools; it has been tried under some of the ablest masters in Germany; a whole generation of schoolboys has passed through the schools and proceeded to the University. We have, then, an experiment conducted with exceptional thoroughness, and the time seems to have come when it should be possible really to judge of success which may be expected from it.

Following up the Reports each of the three investigators has himself a special department. Mr. Fletcher, for his part, takes a comparison between the standard of attainment in the German schools with that of the English. Madam supplies the general historical introduction. Mr. G. deals with methods of teaching. Each of them,

however, has reserved to himself full freedom to put in his Report everything on which it seemed to him desirable to lay stress. There is, in consequence, some inevitable overlapping. It is also probable that there will be found some points on which the opinions of the writers differ from one another. It seemed, however, better to adopt this plan, and so to lay the evidence fully before the public, than to attempt to draw up formal and definite conclusions. In this way alone could a true estimate of the position be made, whether by the Board, who, it need scarcely be said, are in no way responsible for the opinions expressed, or by the general reader, who can balance for himself the arguments put forward by the writers.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.

*December, 1909.*

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## THE ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE REFORM IN CLASSICAL TEACHING IN GERMANY.

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The object of our visit was to make ourselves acquainted with the work of the schools arranged on the Frankfurt system, to inquire into the methods of teaching, and to estimate the results. We were chiefly concerned with them from the point of view of classical instruction; we were to inquire what effect the new arrangement of the work had on the progress of the boys in classics, and especially whether, as is claimed, it enabled them to make greater progress in a shorter time, or whether, as has been suggested is the case, it brought with it a serious lowering of the standard and was only one more step in the gradual change which is slowly but surely diminishing the thoroughness and importance of classical studies.

It was, however, from the first clear that if our report was not to be actually misleading it would be impossible to confine ourselves to a consideration of the "reform schools." It is necessary to include some consideration of their relation to the normal German school. Anyone who goes from England to one of these Frankfurt schools will find much that is novel, strange, and interesting. It does not follow that all of this is to be attributed to the characteristics special to them. Much which is strange to us in England is common to them and to all other schools in Germany. The particular points by which they are differentiated from the others are often of small importance compared with those points which, while different from our system, are universal there. It soon became apparent that it was those characteristics which they had in common with all the other schools that deserved our attention as much as those which were peculiar to themselves, and there is a real danger lest we may attribute the success attained to the peculiar method of organisation when it is to a great extent due to quite other causes.

### THE REFORM MOVEMENT IN PRUSSIA.

The truth is that though we speak of the Frankfurt schools as reformed, as compared with the traditional English system, it is not only they which deserve the name. Now all German schools are reformed. During the last few years there has taken place a great change in the methods of classical teaching. It is a change similar to that which is now being actively promoted in England by many of the most experienced teachers and distinguished scholars. The movements in England and Germany spring from similar causes and have the same aim in view. The Germans have moved more rapidly than we have;

## *Reform in Classical Teaching in Germany.*

with them the whole power of the State has been used to enforce as a complete system what with us is still little more than the ideal of a few of the more enthusiastic among us.

When we speak of the reform of classical teaching many changes quite different from one another and some perhaps inconsistent with one another are included. Some mean a diminution in the amount and an alteration in the methods of grammatical teaching; some mean the disuse of verse composition and a great diminution in the amount of prose composition; some mean the introduction of oral methods of teaching; some what is called the inductive method; some advocate great extension of archæological and historical study; finally, many think that one of the most important reforms is that Latin and Greek should be begun later.

Now many of these changes—the diminution of grammatical work, the abolition of verses, the comparatively small importance given to prose composition, the great stress laid on the study of the matter of the ancient authors—have been adopted by the Prussian Government and of German schools oral work plays a much more important part than in England. To a great extent it is then true that all now as “reform schools,” and the comparison of the general Prussian system is quite as important as that of the Frankfurt school—the age at which languages are

Let us take the last point—very general and just dissatisfaction to be begun. There is a prevailing in our first-grade public and private schools. It is quite common with us for little boys, who still have a very imperfect power in using their own tongue, at the age of 8 or 9 to be learning both French and Latin. They begin Greek at 11, or even earlier, and at 12 are in full swing with a curriculum which includes three foreign languages. How natural is it, in looking for an escape from a system which is, I think, condemned by all, who finds its severest critics among those who are compelled to teach on it, which is as unsatisfactory in its results as it is indefensible in theory—how natural is it to welcome the reasoned and interesting system proposed at Frankfurt. But before doing this we should recollect that it is not the only alternative. In the so-called unreformed schools in Germany no boy even begins Latin until he is nine, and often not till he has reached his tenth birthday. He is not allowed to begin then unless he has attained a reasonable proficiency in the use of German. French is not begun till two years have been given to Latin, and Greek not till he is at least 12. The difference is equally marked in the course of work. In no school in Germany is any attempt made to begin the reading of a classical author till the age of 11. Then we have Nepos for a year; Caesar never comes till at least the age of 12 has been reached. Ovid follows Caesar; and not till Untersecunda, when the age of the class is 14, do we get to the study of Cicero and Vergil. How different is this from our

English schools, where we find boys of 12 reading Vergil and sometimes even Thucydides or Euripides, where Latin verse is already an important part of the work, and Greek composition is added to Latin!

It is, then, necessary not only to compare the Frankfurt schools with our own system, but also with that of the other German schools—in this way only can its real merits be discerned.

This is true also of the methods of instruction, and especially of the treatment of grammar. One often sees references to the Frankfurt schools which would lead one to suppose that in some special way they were identified with reformed methods of grammar teaching. As we shall see later, the founders of the Frankfurt reform have given very special attention to methods of teaching, the whole course is most carefully thought out, the text books in use are of very peculiar excellence, and there is very much to be learnt from them. It would, however, be a very serious error to suppose that they have any monopoly in this. The general object of all these changes is the simplification of the grammatical work, to throw overboard all that is not essential, to reduce the excessive time given to the technical study of grammar, to make the earlier stages more suitable to the immature intellect of the younger pupils, to increase the study of literature, to make grammar the inductive study of the language, to train the observation rather than the memory. All this is now the common property of all German schools. It is strictly enjoined on them by the Ministry of Education, and we can have this without accepting the special points of the Frankfurt reformers.

The Frankfurt system is really only one portion of this great reform. It is one point that has not yet been generally accepted. It is still on its trial, while the other points have for good or evil, been definitely adopted.

The question then presents itself in this way. Is the Frankfurt scheme of work the necessary result of the other changes, and are these schools the pioneers of a system to which the others will finally approximate, or is it, as its opponents contend, an exaggeration of tendencies that have already been brought to a dangerous stage even elsewhere?

We must then begin our report with a short description of the organisation and nature of the ordinary German school and some explanation of the whole reform movement of which the Frankfurt system is a part.

A study of the reform movement is of necessity a study of the history and organisation of the classical *Gymnasium*. The *humanistische Gymnasium* has long held in Germany a position to which there is, I believe, no parallel in any other country. The close connection with the State, the exceptional privileges that it has till recently enjoyed, the great efficiency with which these schools have been conducted, the remarkable position that it has held in the intellectual and social life of Germany, all combine to make it a unique educational institution.

## THE CLASSICAL GYMNASIUM.\*

The Higher Schools of Germany with which we are concerned (the word secondary, which during the last few years has gained so great a vogue in England is not used in Germany) now consist of three classes, the Gymnasium, the Realgymnasium, and the Oberrealschule. The distinction is one of curriculum.

The Gymnasium is a classical school in which Greek and Latin are taught; in the Realgymnasium Latin is taught but not Greek; in the Oberrealschule no ancient language finds a place. The two latter types are comparatively modern. In the system which prevailed throughout the greater part of the nineteenth century the Gymnasium had no rivals or competitors. This was the normal type of school from which the others have developed; in organisation, in public position and privileges they imitate it or have stepped into the place which it occupied. In describing the Gymnasium we are, then, describing the other schools, which are identical with it in all but curriculum.

The essential feature of all is that they give a continuous education extending for 9 years, normally from 9 or 10 to 18 or 19. The work of each year is identical with the work of one class, and these schools are spoken of as "schools with 9 classes"† to distinguish them from the other schools of the second grade which have only a 6 years' course ending at 15. With these latter we are not now concerned.‡

It is not uncommon to have a preparatory department (*Vorschule*) for younger boys attached to the schools, but no boy may enter the Gymnasium itself till he is 9 years of age, and generally he is obliged to spend 1 year in each class. No boy may enter any class either by promotion or on admission to the school unless he is sufficiently advanced to follow the instruction and do the work. A boy who twice fails to win his promotion is liable to be dismissed from the school.

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\* Much of the following paragraphs can be omitted by those who are familiar with the German system of education. The classical work on the subject is Professor Paulsen's *Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts* (2nd edition, 1896). The historical value of this book is not lessened by the fact that the final conclusions to which he comes as to the future of education do not command universal assent. It is much to be wished that a similar work existed on the history of English education. See also *Das höhere Schulwesen in Preussen. Historisch-Statistische Darstellung.* Vols. I., II., and III. by Dr. L. Wiese (Berlin, 1864-74), and Vol. IV. by Dr. B. Irmer (Berlin, 1902); Müller (Hugo), *Das höhere Schulwesen Deutschlands am Anfang des 20 Jahrhunderts* (Stuttgart, 1904), which contains a short but useful survey. For English readers Matthew Arnold's *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany* (Macmillan, 1892) should be read by all, and Russell, *German Higher Schools* (Longmans, 1890). See also the papers by Mr. Sadler and others in Volumes 1 and 2 of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects*.

† Each school consists, then, of 9 classes, numbered as follows, beginning at the bottom:—vi. (Sexta), v. (Quinta), iv. (Quarta), iii. (b) and iii. (a) (Unter- and Ober-Tertia), ii. (b) and ii. (a) (Unter- and Ober-Secunda), i. (b) and i. (a) (Unter- and Ober-Prima).

‡ It is these schools with the 6 years' course that roughly correspond to our "Secondary" schools of the second grade, except that in England stress is laid on the 4 years from 12 to 16, in Germany on the 6 years from 9 to 15.

This gives the average age in each class. That in *Sexta* is at the beginning of the school year always over 9 and often as much as 10. It follows that that of *Oberprima* is not less than 18-19. As a matter of fact it is often considerably more. Many boys enter the Gymnasium late and have to take a place in the school below that of boys who have entered at 9 and gone up regularly year by year. The age is therefore considerably above that of the Sixth form in English public schools. One not infrequently finds boys of 20 still at school. In one school (not actually in Prussia), for which I have complete lists for some years, I find that of 480 who passed their final examination in the last 15 years about one fourth were 20 or over, and a not inconsiderable number were 21, 22 or even 23. This may be an exceptional case, but there seem to be few schools in which there are not some boys who have turned 20.\*

The difference from England in this is very marked. The school course includes really not only the English school life but the first or even the second year of the university career. The age of matriculation is often not much different from that at which Moderations would be taken.

Of course, if we compare this with the newer English Universities, the difference is even more marked. There the age of entry is more frequently 17 or 18 than 19 or 20, and the first half of the degree course really corresponds to the last two years at school.

In some of the schools we visited it seemed that the pupils were perhaps too old for their position on the school benches. Probably the German system is even less suitable than ours for these older boys. They have less freedom in their work, and they do not share the responsibility for the discipline and order of the school as do our sixth-form boys. In comparing the two systems it must not always necessarily be assumed that the greater length of school life is necessarily an advantage. With us boys are admitted to the universities owing to our laxer tests who in Germany would have to remain another year at school. Probably, however, if they are to go to the university at all, it is better that they should go at 19 than wait till they are 20.

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\* Professor Paulsen (*Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts*, ii. p. 701. Leipzig, 1897) gives statistics from which it appears that, during the years from 1859 to 1890, of those who passed the *Abiturientenexamen* at the Gymnasien in Prussia, the proportion of students who were 20 years of age was fairly constant, being about 25 per cent.; for the period 1820-22 the corresponding figure was 19.5 per cent. The figures for *Abiturienten* over 20 varied from 30.9 per cent. in the quadrennial period 1869-73 to 23 per cent. during the years 1876-79; for the last period shown in Paulsen (1886-1890) the figure was 27.6 per cent. From 1884 to 1888 the number of students who actually matriculated at Halle under 20 years of age was only 17 per cent. See also Paulsen, *German Education Past and Present*, p. 204. (London, 1908.)

There seems, however, to be some tendency for the age of matriculation to diminish. In 1903-4, of 4,906 who passed the *Abiturientenexamen* at the Gymnasien, 21.5 per cent. were 20 years of age and 19.9 per cent. were 21 and over; the corresponding figures for the year 1906-7 were 20.4 per cent. and 19.1 per cent. respectively.

There are two other points of internal organisation which must always be kept in mind before any comparison with English schools is attempted.

1. The forms or classes into which the school is divided are identical for all subjects. The re-arrangement into sets for different subjects which is practically universal in the best English schools is unknown in Germany. With very rare exceptions all boys in every form learn all subjects together; the highest class for classics is the same as the highest class for mathematics, for science, for modern languages. This, combined with the system of annual promotions, makes the form a more important unit than it is in English schools. It also affects the character of the teaching. The form progresses as a whole, there is no pressing on of individual boys, a boy cannot be high up in the school in classics while he is in a low mathematical set.\*

2. The system of alternative courses of instruction is also contrary to the German system. There are no modern sides. Still less is it possible, as so often with us, for a boy to omit one or more of the regular school subjects and throw all his energy into one or two selected subjects. A boy cannot continue in a Gymnasium and drop Greek, or cease work at mathematics when he has reached a certain standard or passed a qualifying examination.

If a boy changed his mind as to his future occupation in life, or for some other reason desired a course of work different from that on which he had started, he could not be transferred to another department in the same school. He must leave his school and go to another. Generally, in the old days, there was no other school in the town in which he lived—a parent had therefore no choice at all as to the education he would give his boy, unless he sent him away from home to board with a private family in some other town.

As we shall see, this fundamentally affects the whole attitude of Germans towards educational problems, and one of the great advantages of the Frankfurt scheme is that it makes it comparatively easy to maintain two different departments—a Gymnasium and Realgymnasium, a Realgymnasium and Oberrealschule, or a Gymnasium and Oberrealschule in the same school.

The schools are all public schools. They are maintained in some cases by the State, and in some by the Municipal Authorities. Fees are always charged, and the fee generally varies between £5 and £8 a year—a sum which, taking into consideration the scale of professional income, represents an amount considerably larger than it would in England.†

In the last years some interesting proposals have been made to re-grouping of the boys for different subjects. These proposals, however, been confined to the highest forms in the school. In Germany generally available a limited number of *Stipendia* or, as German parents call them, Bursaries or Scholarships, by which clever boys of poor parents are enabled to pass through the Gymnasium; and the student of the University, especially in the small country towns) have, as in the case of the old in England, opened to poor boys the way to the

The schools are entirely controlled by the State, *i.e.*, by the Prussian Government. The regulations issued by the Ministry lay down precisely not only the time to be given to each subject of the curriculum but also the part of each subject which has to be dealt with in each class, and the method in which the work is to be apportioned, *e.g.*, in Classics they specify how many hours are to be given to grammar, and how many to reading, how many written exercises are to be done, whether at home or in school, and within general limits what authors are to be read in each class. These rules are strictly enforced. They also give general instruction as to the methods of teaching. Each school is free to choose its own text books provided they are in general agreement with the regulations.\*

### THE INFLUENCE OF THE GYMNASIUM.

That which has given the great importance to the Gymnasium was the exclusive privileges that it enjoyed. Generally, in Germany, the door to all learned professions, including medicine, the public services, the Church, and the Law was closed to all who had not passed through a university, and no one was admitted as a matriculated student at a university who had not passed the leaving examination which was conducted each year at the Gymnasia.

The Gymnasium was then not only a classical school but it was a school which practically all educated men were obliged to attend. In a country where, till recently, there has been no great career open through Parliament, in which commerce and business had not yet won for themselves the position that they have long had in England, attendance at the Gymnasium was practically the only opening (excluding the Army) to any position of importance; every educated man who wished his sons to secure a proper position in the country was obliged to send them to a Gymnasium, and by altering the curriculum of the Gymnasia the government could impose what form of education they wished on the whole of the upper middle classes.

It will thus be seen that the inclusion of Greek in the curriculum of the Gymnasium was a very different thing from compulsory Greek as we have ever known it in this country.

With us it has always been possible to enter the professions without studying at either of the older universities, and there was all the difference between the modicum of Greek necessary to pass "Smalls" or "the Little Go" and the requirements of the Prussian *Abiturienten* examination. Generally speaking, a boy who had gone through the Gymnasium had for six years given not less than six hours a week to the study of Greek, and he was required, in order to win his admission to the university, to reach a standard which probably may be defined as equal to that which would be expected from an average boy in the Sixth form of a public school.

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\* Extracts from the Regulations will be found in Appendix B, p. 88.

If we are to understand the problems with which the pioneers of the Frankfurt scheme had to deal we must keep before us a picture of these schools and this system. We have a normal identical course of instruction imposed by the State on the whole of the educated classes. From it no deviation was allowed. A boy must either give up all ambition of winning a great place in the service of the King, of being a scholar, a divine, a doctor, a jurist, or he must, while still a child, begin his journey along the only road which would lead him to his goal. The curriculum might be altered from time to time, but what it was that he must follow. At any time the Minister of Education might alter it. On him rested the responsibility not only of determining in general terms what is the best school course, but of deciding in detail how many minutes should be given to each subject of the curriculum at each stage of the school life.

From this springs the attempt to find out what is the best curriculum—not, let us remember, the best for any particular boy, not in general terms the best, not even the minimum which should be common to all, within which there may be freedom and variety—but that precise apportionment of the time table which is so definitely the best that it may rightly be imposed on all.

The whole discussion is therefore governed by the assumption that there is some best curriculum, and the effort of all reformers is to find it. Needless to say, it has not been found, and never will be. It will not be found, for the conception of an absolutely best is foreign to the nature of higher education, the very essence of which is freedom. None the less the search for it has brought to light much that is of interest and value, and among the suggestions for a solution of the problem the Frankfurt scheme is not only the latest but one of the best—best and wisest above all in this that it claims to be not a new system which is to be imposed on all, not a change of the universal scheme, but an alternative which schools may be allowed to choose.

#### HISTORY OF THE PRUSSIAN SCHOOL SYSTEM.

It is worth while noticing that the whole system by which the schools are now controlled, the imposition of a uniform scheme of work, the leaving examination and the privileges attaching to the schools, is comparatively modern. It is a part of the complete revolution in political life which began with the beginning of the nineteenth century. It originated in Prussia, and has spread over the rest of Germany with very slight modifications, partly by imitation, partly as the political power of Prussia increased.\* It was only fully adopted in Frankfurt when the city was annexed to Prussia in 1866. Throughout the eighteenth century, and in

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\* It has never been completely adopted in Bavaria and Wurtemberg, which in education, as in other matters, have always maintained a certain independence of judgment.

some States nearly till the middle of the nineteenth century, the position of the schools was much like that of the English schools. Some were self-governing corporations, some were under private control, some were under the municipal government, and there was then, as there still is with us, far greater diversity of aim, and also much greater difference in efficiency.

These schools had roughly fallen into two great classes. There were first the "Latin" schools, answering to our grammar schools, in many of which little or no Greek was taught, and side by side with them were a few schools of great reputation in which a very full and advanced classical education was given. What the Prussian Government did was practically to impose the same curriculum and time table on all these schools, so far as they came under its control. It was as if our Public schools and Grammar schools had all been under the same management and all been forced to adopt an identical organisation and curriculum. The result of this was on the one hand to make most of the local grammar schools give a full classical training, on the other it destroyed to some extent the sole supremacy of the classics at the remaining schools. Pressure from the Government practically forced all the Latin schools to become Gymnasias, or else to give up all claim to be places of higher education.

Some German writers criticise the system on this ground. It forced the study of Greek on many schools and many boys for whom it was not suitable, and, on the other hand, by requiring the old classical schools to accept the same curriculum as that imposed on the country grammar schools, it prevented the attainment of the highest standard of classical scholarship in any school.

If we would understand the system we must indeed know something of the circumstances of its origin, and the manner in which it grew up. Let us take the different elements of the organisation by means of which the Government controls the schools. First, we have the leaving examination. The beginning of this goes back to the year 1788. In that year an Ordinance was issued requiring that all boys on leaving a public school should be subject to a public examination at the school conducted by the teachers. Those who did not receive a certificate were not eligible for a scholarship or bursary at the university. It is, however, noticeable that they were not excluded from attendance. It was expressly decreed: "It is not desired to limit civic freedom by preventing a father sending to the university a youth, even though he is immature or without ability." We have travelled far since then.

It was in 1812 that a new Ordinance was drawn up more strictly determining the nature of this examination. It was to include a German, a Latin, a French, and a Mathematical essay, translation from Greek and into Greek. In the *viva voce* examination Latin was to be used. Here, then, we get for the first time "Compulsory Greek." All boys on leaving school have to show proficiency in Greek. Even then, however, those who had not passed this examination were still admitted to the

university, but we are told "the individual Government offices refused to admit to the public services those who had entered the University without passing the examination." It is this admission to the public services which then as now was for many more important than the mere admission to the university.

It was not till 1834 that it was finally ordered that none should matriculate except those who had passed the leaving examination. Those who had not been educated in a *Gymnasium* must attend at the *Gymnasium* for this purpose, and the control over the conditions on which students were to be matriculated was definitely taken away from the university and given to the Ministry of Education. From this time admission to the public services was confined to those who had passed through this regular course.

During these years the immediate control of the State over the school was being strengthened in other ways. The first general instructions were drawn up in 1812. They determined what were to be the subjects of instruction, and contained also a normal plan showing the number of hours to be assigned to each subject in each class. These instructions were, however, never officially published, and served rather as a guide to those responsible for administration. For the next twenty years there was apparently some considerable freedom still left to the schools in the arrangement of their time-table. It was in the years between 1830 and 1837 that the final steps were taken by which an identical scheme of work was imposed on each individual school, and in 1837 there was published the general normal time-table which henceforward governed all the schools.\*

So it was with the internal organisation. In Germany, as in other countries, there were two opposed systems, the *Form* system and the *Set* system. In the one boys are classified alike for all subjects; in the other they are re-arranged. In England we find every possible modification of either system still existing. In Germany this used to be the case, but during these years the *Form* system was definitely imposed by the Government on the whole country, notwithstanding the protests of some of the schoolmasters.

The whole system, then, was elaborated during the years 1800 to 1837. These dates signify much; they mean that it had its beginning during the first enthusiasm of the revived study of the classics. It goes back to the generation which, carrying on the work of Heyne, made Germany the home of learning and the pioneer of scholarship—the Germany of Wolff and Boeckh and Herrmann. It was organised by the great statesman who within ten years raised Prussia from the lowest level of despair to a greatness which it has never since lost. The schools of Prussia were created by the same men who created the Army. They had the imagination to conceive and the energy to create a state which should combine the humanity of Athens with the

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\* Theoretically it appears that schools were not absolutely bound in law to adopt this time-table, but, practically, they were obliged to do so.

severity of Sparta. Compulsory education was the complement of compulsory service. But they had the wisdom to see in the one case, as in the other, that it was not sufficient to train and educate the people. Compulsory education was not sufficient, that might mean an actual lowering of the standard, unless it was accompanied by some care for higher education. A great army must have trained and educated officers. A great and educated nation must have trained and educated rulers. To provide this was the function of the higher schools and universities, and this explains the position they assigned to the classics.

It was their object to train not scholars but public servants, men to serve God in Church and State, and to this end the whole system of higher education was deliberately adapted. They believed that no better means of attaining this could be found than the use of the classics. Through Wilhelm von Humboldt the influence of Weimar had penetrated to the counsels of the King of Prussia, and he believed that in intercourse with the great writers of antiquity might be found a remedy for the evils which at the end of the eighteenth century had undermined the morality of the State and the efficiency of the public service.

So the control of the schools was taken from the clergy and given to the humanists.

But the work which was begun then was not completed for another 20 years. The dark days of reaction had come. A new generation had arisen. Humboldt and Stein and Niebuhr and Boyen and Gneisenau were driven from office. They were succeeded by men who had not the same faith in the free exercise of thought; who were less Greek in spirit; whose minds were turned rather to discipline and repression. The motive of political distrust is not so immediately apparent in the dealings with the schools as it is with the universities, but we see something of the same spirit in the increased regard for Latin as compared with Greek, and especially in the tendency to determine in every detail precisely what was to be done in every school. It was then that the whole power of the bureaucratic state was directed towards the internal organisation of the schools. It is in these years that we find the burden of work on boy and master alike exceeding that which was endurable; that we find the state of things that every boy had 32 hours in school each week, and in addition was expected to do 5 hours' home work each day; that every book read by every boy in school or at home, as work or as recreation, was to be reported.

#### THE POSITION OF CLASSICS.

In judging of the schools we must always recollect that they were not, and were not intended to be, purely classical schools. The Government really made a specialised classical education almost impossible. What was in the minds of those who arranged

this system was something quite different—what we call a well-balanced curriculum. The classics, indeed, still had the larger part of the time. The head masters were still chosen for their classical attainments, but the boys were expected in their final examination to show an advanced knowledge of mathematics, and even in the highest forms not more than half the time was given to the classics. It is in this matter that the contrast with the older classical schools is important. These schools, of which "Schul Pforta" is the most celebrated, were of the greatest importance in the history of classical learning. It is in them that we find what the Prussian system made impossible, the complete absorption in classical studies, and with it the practice of composition, including the writing of verses as we know it.

All the German books speak of the education as given in these schools up to the time of the establishment of the Prussian system as something strange and remarkable, the last survival of the days of the Renaissance. But the education given there differed very little from the public school education as it has survived among us, almost to the present day; and it would probably have survived in Germany as it has in England, had the schools there been governed, as they have been with us, by the schoolmasters. It is the essential of the Prussian system that the final control was taken from the schools and universities and given to the Ministry of Education. This change was made because the State had a definite object in the maintenance of their schools: it was necessary to have a good supply of men who would be capable of doing the work which the State threw on to the public offices. For this purpose they required men whose intellects had been thoroughly drilled and trained, who were capable of doing a great amount of work all of which required clearness and precision of thought, and who at the same time would maintain the width of view which would make them not merely clerks but rulers. It was supposed that in the study of the classics was to be found a mental gymnastic which would satisfy the double object—would join a noble idealism with accuracy and trustworthiness in each detail, and therefore it was the classics were made the more important, though not the sole, subject of instruction.

The nature of the classical training was nearly the same as that to which we are accustomed in England—a study of the text of the best authors, in which the chief aim was a minute analysis of the language, with special attention to grammatical principles and the highest perfection of correctness in the use of the language. The characteristics of German scholarship are so well known, and have had, by the German editions of classical works, so much influence in England, that it is not necessary to recall them. It is worth noting, however, that some of the most distinguished men, such as Classen and Meineke, were themselves successful head masters, though the greater number whose names are known in England occupied chairs at the universities. There were of course great differences between the nature of classical study in England and Germany, some of them well known to English scholars. In Germany knowledge held a

higher place, in England taste. This again was a direct result of the great importance paid to verse composition with us. From the same cause sprang a considerable difference in the books most frequently studied at school. Homer was more read, Greek plays not so much—Aristophanes has always been strangely neglected, the necessities of the Latin essay caused a special attention to be paid to Cicero's writings.

The most important difference, however, was in the position that classics held at the universities. In England till the last few years we have always been able to assume that a boy who read classics at school would continue to do so at the university. It was there that we found the final fruit of the long period of probation. It was the final three years at Oxford or Cambridge which gave the permanence to the influence that classics held on the mind. Now in Germany, this last stage was generally wanting. As a rule no one read or now reads classics at the university except those who are going to be schoolmasters. All others read the subject which they require for the professional training for their future career.\*

There were of course many who by the side of their professional studies continued their more general education, but it will be found that usually they turned to the study of philosophy or of history. It would have occurred to few to attend the lectures, still less the special classes, on ancient philology. These were for schoolmasters.

Now not only was the study of the classics at the universities confined to those who were to be schoolmasters or university teachers, but in Germany the profession of teacher was much more closely defined and much more organised than with us. It was a branch of the Government service; the conditions of entry were strict, there was no place in it for the amateur, for the young man who having finished his university career passes a few years at schoolmastering while he is looking about or waiting for a more congenial opening in life. In particular there was no longer that close connection between schoolmastering and clerical work which in England has been so fruitful. With us the common course was a degree in classics, a post as assistant master, then ordination, to be followed in many cases by a country living and perhaps high office in the Church. In Germany the distinction began at the university. The future pastor read not classics but theology.

In this we must find the explanation for a contrast between the real influence of classics in the two countries. We see that there was a compulsion to learn classics at school such as we have never had, but at the same time I do not think it can be doubted that the interest in classical studies has always been much more widespread in England than in Germany; the difference lies not in the schools but in the universities. It is classics at Oxford and Cambridge, following on the intensive work done

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\* They had however to keep up the writing of Latin, as the final dissertation required for a degree was written in Latin.

at the public schools, which have given to the study of the ancient writers the power over the affections and interests of so many Englishmen. Let us eliminate the country gentleman, the lawyer, the politician, who has taken his first class and never quite forgotten his classics, the clergy, the bishops and deans who have been schoolmasters and have never ceased to take a professional and technical interest in all matters of classical scholarship, the Indian civilian who has won his place in the public service by his proficiency in classics, what then would be left to us of the position that classics have in this country? They would be at once a matter that concerned schoolmasters and schoolboys.

There have in Germany been professors from the universities who have risen to high office in the State, but with the exception of Wilhelm von Humboldt I can recall few German statesmen or politicians who would have made the reading of Greek authors the occupation of their leisure time. I find no Pitt, no Canning, no Wellesley, no Gladstone. The cause of this is that men in this position when they went to the university turned to the study of public law. These were the branches of learning which were required as the necessary entrance to public life, for all public life was approached through the public service. In England, classics almost commanded the whole of the universities; in Germany, *Classische Philologie* was one of the smallest of the schools.

The position of the universities was in truth very different from that of Oxford and Cambridge. With us the university was a continuation of school life, in Germany it was rather the first stage in the professional career. As we shall see later, the effect of this on school studies was and is very far-reaching. In arranging our curriculum it must make all the difference whether the work will be continued after the boy has left school, or whether he will never again open a classical author. In the one case all the reading at school is preparatory, introductory; full knowledge and wider reading will come later. Reading may be more thorough, more minute: boys can spend their time at school in gaining a command of the language, they will have ample time at the university to use the command they have won. In the other case the whole classical work must be completed at school.

Conditions in England have now changed—they are becoming more akin to those in Germany. History, economics, modern languages, have established themselves at the universities, and each year attract more adherents.

#### BEGINNINGS OF REFORM.

It is very remarkable that this system maintained itself practically unaltered till the end of the nineteenth century. This would not have been possible, least of all in a country so full of the passion for modernity as is modern Germany, had it not been that the Gymnasium had secured the full support of

the great majority of those who were specially affected. So far as it is possible for a foreigner to judge, it fully deserved the confidence which it had secured. There has probably never been an educational system which has so nearly fulfilled the hopes and ideals of its founders. We have seen that the direct object was not to train scholars but to educate public servants. The real test of the Gymnasium is the standard of duty and efficiency in the professions and public service of North Germany and especially of Prussia. It is in the Gymnasium that were educated practically all the men (with the exception of some of the military men) who created Modern Germany, through the Gymnasium have passed nearly all the doctors and a very large number of the men of science.

It has succeeded in maintaining a very high standard of inherited intellectual and moral capacity. I say inherited, for it has been one result of the system, by which admission to the learned professions to a great extent depends on the choice of a school while still young, that the great majority of candidates for admission to them are found among families in whom the custom of attendance at a Gymnasium has been established. It has thereby created an intellectual aristocracy as to the capacity and character of which doubt is impossible.

The system was also not unpopular in the professions. One would have expected to find at least the doctors opposed to it. This was not the case. The influence of the medical profession has always been opposed to change.\* It was the same with the lawyers. The chief reason for this was probably the regard for the dignity of their calling. Those occupations that could only be entered through the Gymnasium and the university held a superior position, both socially and intellectually; and it is not surprising that those who had themselves passed through the strict training did not wish to see the door more widely opened in the future.

Some alteration was, however, made necessary by the changes which took place in the social condition of the country after the war with France. A few years passed before the foundation of the Empire had had time to show its effect. It is about 1880 that the great increase in commercial activity, the accumulation of wealth, and the growth of a large, wealthy, and influential mercantile and manufacturing class begins to be effective. In the early and middle part of this century it may with little exaggeration be said that the greater majority of those who wished to attend higher schools looked forward to a professional career. Now, for the first time, there were an increasing number of parents who desired that their sons should attend a school which socially was of the highest rank, but who did not wish them necessarily to go to the universities or to enter one of the professions. It was for these that the institution of the Realgymnasium was above all desirable; but these modern schools,

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\* This is shown by the discussions at the two conferences of 1890 and 1900.

however excellent they might be, did not have quite the same position in the country that the *Gymnasium* had, nor was it possible that they should attain it so long as those who were educated in them were excluded from the universities.

The importance so far as numbers go of this class is shown by the fact that, in 1889, 40 per cent. of the boys who left the *Gymnasium* did so after gaining the exemption from military service, *i.e.*, after completing the course of *Untersecunda*, and 30 per cent. without even reaching this stage. Those who remained to the conclusion of the course were only 20.5 per cent.\*

The recognition of the importance of these numbers has been of decisive influence in determining the policy of the Government during the last two decades.

It is well to keep this in mind, for it shows what is sometimes forgotten, that after all the problem of German schools is not so different from that of English schools as it is often represented to be. Even in Germany it is only a small proportion who are able to profit by the advanced work of the higher forms.

In Germany, as in England, many boys go to school without any great desire for learning. In Germany they must work sufficiently to get their exemption from military service. When they have got that they leave at once or after one more year. Now these are the boys who notoriously get little good from their classical work. The Latin is no doubt of value to them because of its disciplinary qualities, but surely it should be the Latin of the *Real-Gymnasium*, not of the *Gymnasium*. Under our older system these boys were simply neglected, they learnt little, and we were content that they should learn little. They began Greek, but were not able to go far enough to get the real benefit of this study. We comforted ourselves with the belief that even if they did not get much from their school work their life at school was healthy and profitable, they became good sportsmen, they made friends, they did not get into mischief. This is a point of view on which we lay less stress now than we used to do, it is one that one never hears in Germany. There it is assumed that at school it is the object that a boy should work and should learn; they take it more seriously than we do. To them it appears as something shocking that a large number of boys should spend some years of their life at an education that is avowedly unsuited to them.

The Germans were also less inclined than we are to lay stress on the happiness and healthiness of life at school. With us it has perhaps often been an agreeable fiction, in Germany the point seems to have been little considered. The absence of physical exercise, whether voluntary or compulsory, was very marked, and little was attempted that would make the schoolboy's life

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\* In one school from which I have already taken statistics I find that about one quarter of the boys have remained to the end of the course.

a pleasant one. The view of the Government was rather that it should be a discipline to prepare them for the hard work of life.\*

Another important influence was also at work which caused the Government to desire some change in the system. They were influenced by a motive that is strange to us—there was the feeling that the nation was over educated. Too many boys went to the highest schools and the university.† This bred the *gelehrtes Proletariat* of which one hears so much. A boy, if he lived in a country town, had no school to which he could go but the Gymnasium. Many of them left as soon as they had won exemption from military service, *i.e.*, before the course was nearly completed—these had not been able to gain from it that completed and harmonious training which it was wished to give. Others went on though they had no special wish to do so, they had embarked on a course not of their own wish, and continued in it, because there was no alternative; they passed on to the university, spent their years there, and then at the age of 23 or 24 found themselves with no career before them except one of the learned professions, which were already over-stocked. This was the source of serious political danger. The Government therefore desired to open other schools, to make them equally attractive to parents, to divert to them the stream that filled the Gymnasium, and thereby prepare boys for occupation in commerce or manufactures.

Another element in the demand for reform was what we may call the national motive. This is one with which in England we have little acquaintance. The attack on the position of classics has chiefly come from those who desire that equal importance should be given to the study of the natural sciences or to modern languages. In Germany, just as after the war of 1813 there was a great outburst of national enthusiasm which had its expression, for instance, in the desire to exclude foreign words from the German language, to exclude French from the curriculum of German boys, so after 1870 there were many who said that the education of German boys should be in the literature and history of Germany, and they attacked classical learning on the ground that it failed to give to the boys that patriotic feeling which was above all necessary. This is, as I have said, a motive strange to us in England. We recognise no antithesis. We have not found that the patriotism of our schoolboys is injured by learning Greek and Latin. We rather regard classics as the atmosphere in which our statesmen have gained strength and

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\* "The Ministry consider it necessary that the tasks of boys who intend to follow a learned profession should not be made too easy. Rather it is necessary that even while they are at school they should be presented with the difficulties, the labour, the sacrifices which are the inevitable conditions of a life which is to be successfully devoted to the service of learning, the State or the Church, and that they should early be accustomed to the seriousness of their calling."—Rescript of the year 1829 (*see* Paulsen, (ii. p. 319).

† The numbers are very striking. In 1882, out of a population of 46 millions there were 25,000 students at the universities.

inspiration, and again and again the greatest of our orators have been able to appeal to the common classical learning, to memories of Greece and Rome, when they were dealing with the greatest affairs of modern England. Classical learning in Germany has, however, been connected rather with the study than the Senate. There has been a tradition of quietism; it has not in the same way been connected with great affairs.\*

There can be no doubt that the course of the *Gymnasium* was not suitable to many boys who attended it. How was this to be remedied? Our plan has been the invention of the *Modern Side*. This was, according to the traditional German view, an impossibility—it was inconsistent with the *idea* of the *Gymnasium*, it would destroy the unity and harmony of the school.

Some change, however, there must be, and it will be clear that any change might take one of two forms. It might leave the curriculum of the *Gymnasium* undisturbed, so that it would continue to be a classical school, but open the universities and the professions to those who had been educated at other schools, *i.e.*, maintain the *Gymnasium* but take away the exclusive privileges which it enjoyed; or it might so alter the curriculum of the *Gymnasium* as to meet, to some extent, the demands of modern studies and continue the attempt to combine in one type of school the requirements of all.

The history of higher education in Prussia for the last 30 years has been a record of the various attempts to deal with this question. It is most instructive, because it shows that even the Prussian Government, with the best advice at its disposal and moved by the sole desire to maintain a high standard of education in the schools, has not been able to find any easy means of reconciling the claims for a classical and a modern education.

#### THE "MODERN" SCHOOLS.

The first step was the creation of a system of "Modern" schools. There had always continued to exist a large number of schools which had not qualified as *Gymnasias*—schools attendance at which exempted boys from the three years' military service but did not prepare for the universities. These were looked down on by the *Gymnasias* as inferior institutions, and were to a great extent neglected by the Government. They were even considered to be politically dangerous. The contrast was constantly made between the *Gymnasium* with its high idealism and the *Realschule*, which put before its pupils nothing but practical utility. During the years of reaction after 1848 these schools were either prevented or discouraged from preparing their boys even for posts in the subordinate ranks of the Civil Service; by a decree of 1855 no one could attend the courses at the technical schools for architects who had not been at a

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\* The contention that a classical education is "unpatriotic" has, however, been warmly repudiated by the most distinguished schoolmasters—surely with justice.

Gymnasium, and in 1856 all others were excluded even from the higher posts as mining engineers. This policy was in opposition to the wishes of the civic authorities, many of whom desired to develop and strengthen these non-classical schools, but they received no help from the Ministry of Education. A change was at last brought about with the year 1859, the beginning of the "New Era" in Prussian politics. We always find that it is political considerations which ultimately decide the policy of the Government. An Ordinance was issued organising these non-classical schools under the names of "Realschule" of the first or second grade. The Realschule of the first grade was to be looked on as holding a parallel and co-ordinate position to the Gymnasium. It had a course of nine years arranged on exactly the same principles as the Gymnasium. The curriculum included Latin but not Greek—the time given to Latin beginning in the lowest form with 8 hours and diminishing to 3 in the highest form. Attendance at these schools qualified for admission to a large number of secondary posts, e.g., architecture and mining, but did not admit to matriculation at the universities. In the Realschule of the second grade Latin was an optional subject, and it prepared only for commerce and business, i.e., it did not admit to the public service.

From this time the history of German education is that of the struggle of these schools for equality with the Gymnasium. The next step was made in 1882. It is worth noticing that it was due to the initiative of one of the greatest of Aristotelian scholars, Bonitz, the editor of the *Metaphysics* and of the index in Bekker's edition of Aristotle, who was in 1877 appointed to one of the highest posts in the Prussian Ministry. The Prussian Government has always aimed at using the services of the men of greatest knowledge and ability.

His reforms were (1) as to the Gymnasium, the amount of time given to Latin was reduced by 9 hours, that to Greek by 2, more time was given to French, science, and mathematics. Translation into Greek was done away with and translation into German substituted in the final examination. The tendency, though it does not go far, is clearly to relax the burden of classics, to give more time and leisure for other subjects, and this is more clearly shown in the recommendations that accompany the regulations.\*

(2) At the same time the Latin schools received the name of Realgymnasium, and the time given to Latin in them was much increased. The natural accompaniment of this would have been to give to them extended privileges. This, however, was not done. They were then henceforth schools giving an advanced education, but without Greek, equal in name to the old Gymnasium but without any of the privileges of which it might have been expected that the name should be a symbol.

During the next years the educational problems were discussed with ever-increasing vehemence. The Minister of Education

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\* A copy of the *Lehrplan* will be found in Appendix A, p. 82.

was able to say that 344 proposals for school reform had been sent in to him. Numerous associations were formed to advocate reform or to defend the established system. It was of course over the position of the Gymnasium that the keenest strife was waged. For our purpose the most important of these parties were first the advocates of the Realschule who claimed for it the same privileges as the Gymnasium, and secondly those groups who were united in this, that they desired an *Einheitschule*. The various kinds of school were to be joined together, there was henceforth to be a single type in which all should be educated. The extreme reformers desired that this school should be one from which the classics were completely excluded. They should be read in translations in the highest forms. Ultimately this party aimed at a system similar to that established in America, in which the Volksschule should take the place of the lower classes in the Gymnasium and all classes should enjoy a similar education, differing only that some stayed at school longer than others. There was in this way to be brought about a great social and intellectual reform. The schools were to be the homes of "German Culture." The Germans were to be freed from subordination to what is foreign. "He who feels as a real German must feel that it is an unendurable condition that our boys are for many years brought up in a foreign atmosphere, while the history of the civilization of their own people is known to them only in fragments."

Others who adopted the principle of the *Einheitschule* contended that it might be one in which the work of the Gymnasium was joined to that of the Realschule. All subjects were to be taught, Latin was to be included for all, and Greek at least as an optional subject.

This discussion gave special importance to an experiment which had already been made in a school at Altona, where Latin had been postponed to the eleventh year, *i.e.*, Quarta. All boys began French in the lowest form, and in this way those who were going to a Latin school could be taught for the first years with those who were going to the Realgymnasium. This suggestion of a *Lateinlose Unterbau*, a preparatory department where no Latin is taught, was very welcome to the reformers as the first practical step by which the supremacy of the classical school might be overthrown. Things have now much changed but it must be remembered that the postponement of Latin till the age of 12 was first suggested and supported not as a means of improving the teaching of the classics, but as a means of diminishing their preponderance.

Out of all the strife and discussion one thing emerges clearly—some form of some kind was necessary, and it must take one of two forms. Either the privileges of the Gymnasium should be the same and the curriculum altered, or the Gymnasium should

\* The <sup>con-</sup> Classical school and equal privileges given to however, been On the decision which of these courses should masters—surely with the whole future of education.

In order to gain help and advice the Government in 1890 resorted to the exceptional expedient of calling a conference, to which many of the most distinguished writers and teachers were invited.

CONFERENCE OF 1890.

The conference met in 1890, and the next year there were published new regulations for the schools which, to a great extent, were in accordance with the suggestions and resolutions of the conference. It is this conference and these regulations that mark the victory of the Reform movement in classical teaching, and which were the immediate cause of the Frankfurt plan.

We must, then, note the most important points so far as they affect classical teaching.

The conference itself seems to have been valuable rather as an illustration of the difficulties of the problem and the confusion of interests and principles than for any help it gave in reconciling the interests or solving the difficulties. The members were all men of position, ability, and experience, but they were not representative, they were selected by the Ministry, and it is suggested that they were so selected as to give the Government support in the intention of maintaining the position of the Gymnasium against the attacks of the modernists. The personal intervention of the Emperor, while it added to the dignity and interest of the proceedings, brought with it a new element of complication, for it did not seem that his desires were in accordance with the policy of his Ministers, and it is not easy from his speeches clearly to understand what it was he wanted.

For our purpose there are certain points only that need be mentioned.

1. Overwork. On this there was a general agreement. The hours in the Gymnasium were too long and must be reduced. More time must be found for physical exercise.

Where could the time be taken off? Nowhere but from classics. But if the time available for classics was reduced, there must be some change in the object and nature of the instruction.

2. It was, moreover, agreed that new subjects were to be introduced or the time given to them increased. English as a voluntary or compulsory subject was recommended, and also drawing.

3. Most important, however, was the introduction of what we must call the national motive. In the previous controversy the claims of German had been strongly if not violently urged. German history, German literature, should, it was said, become the centre of the whole school course.

This claim received unexpectedly the open advocacy of the Emperor. His words have often been quoted. We must quote them once more, for they owe their importance not only to the position and character of the speaker but to the fact that he is making himself the spokesman of a large and determined section of his subjects.

"Whoever has himself been at a Gymnasium and been behind the scenes knows where the fault lies. The fault lies in the want of a national basis. We must take German as our foundation ;

we have to educate young Germans, not young Greeks and Romans. We must leave the basis which has existed for centuries, we must leave the monastic education of the middle ages, in which Latin was everything, with a little Greek thrown in. It is no longer so, the German essay must form the centre round which everything turns."\*

Voices were heard even at the Congress against the implied censure on the Gymnasium, but, as was to be expected, resolutions to this effect were carried, though perhaps without full conviction on the part of many who voted for them.

"The greatest weight is to be laid on the instruction in German, the time given to it must be increased wherever possible."

"More thorough treatment of the modern history of the Fatherland must be attained by carefully limiting the other historical matter"; † as we shall see this means at the cost of ancient history.

The recommendations of the conference were, then, that part of the time given to Latin and Greek was to be taken away and used for other purposes. It was, however, maintained that this could be done if changes were made in the nature of the classical work. The time could be spared "if the chief aim of the instruction was to be the introduction to classical authors, and the grammatical exercises were chiefly used to this end" and if the Latin essay was discontinued.

This is the key-note of the conference. The example of 1882 is to be followed, more time taken from the classics, more time given to modern subjects, the study of ancient literature is to be continued, but the study of the language to take a secondary place.

We must say a word more on the question of the Latin essay and its disuse.

This is the recognition of the fundamental change that has taken place in the position of Latin. Till quite recently Latin has been used in Germany as a medium for the expression of thought. The practice of writing learned books in Latin continued well down into the nineteenth century; in England it had fallen into disuse by the end of the seventeenth century. Probably Newton's *Principia* was the last important work of general learning written in Latin, and from the time of Bentley the use of Latin even for works bearing on classical philology has been discontinued. In Germany the philosophical works of F. A. Wolff and the earlier works of Kant were in Latin, and it was used by all the great scholars of the second German Renaissance; lectures were delivered in Latin well on into the nineteenth century, and every student had to write his doctor's thesis in that language. So long as this continued, ease and fluency in expression and the quick command of a large vocabulary were necessary and had to be acquired at school. The final test of a school education must be the power of writing Latin; not of translating—that is

\* *Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichts*. Berlin, 4 bis 17 December, 1890, p. 72. (Berlin, 1891.)

† *Op. cit.*, p. 795-796.

a very different thing—but of using Latin to express one's own thoughts and ideas. This is the monastic spirit, against which the Emperor protested—and surely with justice. Of this use of Latin it could never be said, as it is, whether truly or not, of Latin prose composition as practised in England, that it helps in the use of the mother tongue. The whole history of the German prose style shows the effort to emancipate itself from the traditions of the Renaissance, and it was doubtless the frequent use of Latin in the pulpit, in the lecture-room, in books, that kept back for two centuries the free and idiomatic use of the language.

There can, I think, be little doubt that this use of Latin did tend to produce a certain cumbrousness of expression and also of thought. While it diverted the attention of boys at the most impressionable period of their life from the literature and thought of the present time, it took them not to the best elements in ancient literature but especially to Cicero, and in Cicero to that which is most easily appropriated and perhaps of least value—the exuberance of phrasing and fertility of rhetorical common place. It avoided that which may specially be claimed for “composition”—the concentration of thought and subtlety of analysis which is required to produce an accurate and idiomatic translation.

This was now to be given up. No one was henceforth to be required to write Latin except those who took their degrees in classical philology, *i.e.*, the schoolmasters. At school, composition was henceforth to be used, as it has so long been used in England, as a practical essay in the comparison of expression of two languages.

We will return to this later. We must now consider the other resolutions of the congress, especially as they affected the relative positions of the different kinds of higher schools.

As we have seen, these were three in number—the classical, the Latin, and the modern school. It might have been expected that those who wished to diminish the “tyranny of the classics” would have supported the second. On the contrary, on one point all agreed—both the defenders of the old and the extreme reformers—the Realgymnasium must cease to exist. Here again the Emperor gave the lead.

“Classical Gymnasia with classical education. A second kind of school with modern (*Real*) education, but no Realgymnasium. The Realgymnasia are a half-measure, with them one gets only a divided education, and the whole gives want of unity in after life.”\*

This would have been all very well if the Gymnasium was to continue a purely classical school, but that is just what it was not to do. None the less all the friends of the Gymnasium, influenced apparently by their dread of the influence of the Realgymnasium, followed him in this, and, with only four dissentients, a resolution was adopted that there were to be only two forms of higher school—the Gymnasium with two ancient languages and schools without Latin. More than this, they voted against

\* *Op. cit.*, p. 74.

any arrangement by which there should be a common preparatory department for the two types of school.

What would then remain? The classical school and the modern school in absolute contrast to one another. No boy could learn Latin unless he also learnt Greek, and every boy must make up his mind at the age of 10 to which type of school he would go.

What, then, were to be the privileges and position of the modern school? Was it to be recognised as an equal with the Gymnasium? Was it to admit to the learned professions and the university? On this the conference does not seem to have made up its mind. A resolution was passed that boys from these schools should be admitted to the universities for the study of mathematics and natural science. This would, however, not give the right of admission to the public services on which the whole position of the school really depended. In fact, a resolution was actually carried that Latin should be required for admission to the university—a resolution which was clearly inconsistent with what had already been decided. The essential difficulties of the problem were so great that there is no reason for surprise that a satisfactory solution could not at once be found. The matter was in, fact, left undetermined.\* The conference failed to answer the main question. It did not give any clear guidance as to the position which the classics were in the future to occupy. It left the classics in their privileged position, but by following the example of 1882 and still further limiting the time and extent of the classical work, showed that most of the members seriously doubted whether the course was a natural one and could be maintained.

It is scarcely necessary to say that no one was satisfied with the results of the conference. The Gymnasiasts were disheartened, for they saw that the changes foreshadowed would reduce the time and importance given to classics. "*Magna pugna devicti sumus*" was their cry.

The friends of the Realgymnasium were not unnaturally indignant that they were condemned to extinction and that the case for them had scarcely been heard.

The extreme reformers were equally disappointed that the modern school was not to have the privileges of the Gymnasium. They were in scarcely a better position than before. Their schools were still subordinate schools of second rank: they, as before, gave no access to the higher posts in the Civil Service, to medicine and the law.

If the resolutions of the congress were to be carried out the result would be not to free boys from the classics but still to force the great majority through a classical training which would be so weakened and curtailed as to lose much of its value.

There were two possible lines on which the question could be decided. The first was that of the *Einheitsschule*, one type of school through which all should go. The other was to keep

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\* Paulsen, *Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts*, ii. 504.

schools of different kinds and so far as possible give them equal privileges and position. The congress, by expanding the curriculum of the Gymnasium and voting for the destruction of the Realgymnasium, seemed to be inclined to the first. Instead of the two types of school there was to be one which was to be a kind of compromise between them. This led at once to the problem of the curriculum: the school was still to be the Gymnasium with a classical education, but the centre of instruction was to be German. It was to be a classical school, but it was to be a modern school at the same time. The time given to classics was to be much less than before, but just as much benefit was to be got from the smaller time by changes in the method and aims of the teaching. Might it not be feared that as a matter of fact the real result would be that the thoroughness of the classical training would be irretrievably destroyed, but that there would not be time to substitute a thorough modern training? The just claims of the modernists could not be satisfied by this solution, and it was one which every supporter of the old Gymnasium in his heart saw with regret and suspicion.

And what about the overwork? Would that really be avoided by a scheme which was to force upon the classical Gymnasium further subjects in addition to those it already taught?

#### THE REGULATIONS OF 1891.

The changes adumbrated in the conference were embodied in the new regulations that were published the next year. It was in them that the new principles of classical teaching were reduced to practice, and the reform was made effective. It is by these regulations that all German schools have since then been governed, with some small modifications made in 1901. We must therefore inquire what they actually amounted to, and what effect they have had on the teaching of the classics. Always we must keep in mind the object with which they were drawn up. There was to be "a diminution in the number of hours given to the classics." "This would be possible if the chief aim was to be an introduction to the classical authors, and grammatical exercises served chiefly as a means to this." Like all such generalisations this has no definite meaning till we see how it is translated into practice. It might be a truism, it might be the final rejection of all careful and scholarly study. Which was it to be? The question is easy to put, the answer is more difficult. Yet we must try to find it.

First, we must take the alteration in the hours. What did it amount to? In the two lowest forms the hours given to Latin are reduced from 9 each to 8. In the rest of the school they are reduced from 8 to 6. In Greek for the first two years one hour a week is sacrificed, in the higher forms there is no change. The hours are therefore:—

	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Latin	- 8	8	7	7 7	7 6	6 6
Greek	-			6 6	6 6	6 6

We note, then, that the change in the earlier stages is not great. Especially in Latin we still have the long preparatory course. Cæsar is not begun till the fourth year. For three years before this there are 8 and 7 hours a week which are, as we shall see, almost exclusively given to learning the elements of the language, including grammar. There is not the slightest suggestion that the benefits which may come from the study of Latin can be easily acquired. Even in the Real-gymnasium\* or modern school the time given to Latin at this period is the same as in the Gymnasium.

In this there is nothing to alarm us. If a boy begins Latin at the age of nine and works at it for eight hours a week in school (apart from home work), surely by the time he is twelve he will have a good grounding in the Latin grammar.

That which merits attention at this period is not the length of time given to classics but the regulations as to the method of instruction. This only must be remembered, that it is these preliminary three years' work which it is proposed to do away with under the Frankfurt scheme.

Now as to the method of teaching—there are two points as to which special directions are given. The first is that in the earlier stage the accidence learnt is to be strictly limited to that which is regular and normal. The second is that grammar is to be taught "inductively."

The first requires no comment or explanation. The justice of this rule is probably universally recognised. No one now defends the old plan by which the grammar taught at an early age includes all the irregular forms which the industry and ingenuity of grammarians have unearthed in the by-ways of classical literature. We do not require persuading of the justice of this rule: what we do require is to imitate the Germans in consistently carrying out what they see to be right.†

The second point is more difficult.

The regulations lay much stress on inductive teaching of grammar. "Some elementary syntactical rules should be acquired inductively from the reading book."‡ "As the starting point for the earliest instruction there is recommended not the rule, but the Latin sentence, which must first be translated by the master and then repeated by the pupil. Not till a number of sentences chosen from a definite point of view have been connected and the declensions have been explained from them and compared with another, is the rule to be taken and thoroughly learnt."<sup>§</sup>

During (eingeprägt) the second year "some syntactical rules, as, e.g., the accusative and infinitive, participial constructions, the ablative absolute, will as necessity requires be abstracted from the reading."<sup>‡</sup>

\* It was not possible to carry out the recommendation that the Real-gymnasias should be abolished, though there was a great diminution in their number. They are indeed a necessity—perhaps even they are the schools of the future.

† See below, page 74. See below p. 74.

‡ *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen*, p. 25. (Berlin, 1899.)

§ *Op. cit.*, p. 29.

As to Greek: "As in Latin, the grammatical forms and syntactical rules are first to be acquired inductively from the reading book and then thoroughly learnt." \*

So much has been written about the inductive method that it would be most useful to be able to say how it is followed in practice. I regret that I am unable to do so. I will go further, and confess that I am very doubtful whether strictly speaking the word has any real meaning as applied to language teaching. It is, I imagine, very doubtful whether any master could say whether he follows the inductive method or not. Certainly we may be sure that in the case of no master could it be said that he does so always. Probably in every case the method of every master varies from lesson to lesson.

Nor does it seem that the inductive method is necessarily superior to any other.

If, *e.g.*, we take so clear a difficulty as the agreement of the relative, I do not see why it should not be quite legitimate for a master to start by proposing the difficulty, write a relative sentence on the board, and ask the class themselves by their own reasoning power to argue out what the rule will be, and then when the rule has been obtained to pass on to the examples. This will be quite as good an exercise of the intelligence as to take the sentences first, and it will probably impress the rule just as well on the boys' mind. What is, I think, really meant when the inductive method is spoken of is something which is easily confused with it: it is that whether the rule is first learnt by observation from a number of carefully chosen examples, or whether it is first explained and then illustrated by examples, in all cases the learning of the rule and the practice given by the use of numerous examples should go on almost simultaneously. There must be no rule without examples, no examples without reference to the rule. This is what the regulations practically mean, this is what is carried out in the schools. Grammar, translation, the framing of Latin sentences go on side by side. All the books one sees in German schools are now most carefully framed on this principle. What this means, if translated into English usage, is that the use of the Latin primer or books of Greek grammar in which the accidents and syntax are drawn up in a systematic manner suitable for a book of reference should never in the early stages be used by themselves, but always together with books of exercises and translation, carefully written to illustrate the rules, and also that the order in which the rules and forms are learnt should be the order of natural difficulty, not the order in which they are found in a book of reference. This, like most other rules of teaching, would appear to be axiomatic were it not so frequently violated.

Let us, however, beware of thinking that this means neglect of the rule. The regulations require that the rule shall in all cases be thoroughly learnt. In every lesson I attended that which was most noticeable was the strictness with which the rule as a rule was learnt—every mistake was immediately referred back to

\* *Op. cit.*, p. 34.

the rule. Whether the rule is first learnt inductively or not I cannot say: when it has once been learnt it is applied with remorseless rigour as a rule.

I lay stress on this, for one often sees it suggested that the reform of Latin teaching will diminish the logical discipline of language teaching. In Germany there is, so far as my observation goes, no ground for this hope or apprehension. The learning of the rule and the immediate application orally to a large and varied number of examples is an intellectual training of the severest kind and is common to all schools.

Now it must be noted that this reform of the grammar teaching—the omission of the abnormal, the use of the “inductive method,” the parallel use of grammar, exercises, and translation—has nothing to do with the age at which Latin is begun, nor is it necessarily affected by the decision whether Latin or French is begun first. It is in full use in all schools, it is insisted on in the normal schools as much as in the Frankfurt schools. So far as there is any difference, we may say that the inductive method so far as it is used at all is more specially adapted to those in which Latin is begun first. When Latin is the first language learnt, the steps must clearly be easier than when another language has already been carefully studied. When boys begin young they have more time, and they can get accustomed to the practice of a language before they understand the rule. They are less skilled in the use of books and less able to comprehend abstract rules. It is then that the conversational method is, if it is to be used at all, especially desirable. The Frankfurt scheme assumes that boys have a good foundation of French grammar before they learn Latin. The result of this is that they know what a grammatical rule is, they have had much practice in applying rules. Consequently it is quite possible, in a way which is not possible for younger boys, to give the rule at once, and to dispense with the long preliminary exercises which for young boys are necessary. That which made the most impression on me in all the schools I visited, whether at Frankfurt or not, was the extreme rigour, often the severity and uncompromising rigour, of the grammatical instruction.

We see, then, that the new regulations still prescribe a thorough, careful and systematic training in the rudiments of Latin. It is in the higher stages that we find the most important innovations both as to the time given to the classics and as to the methods of teaching.

Now first as to time. To an English critic the most startling thing is that the total amount of time given to classics in the highest forms is twelve hours a week—six for Greek and six for Latin. We must be careful to remember what this means. These schools are the classical schools, the only schools in which Greek may be taught at all—and in them under no circumstances may any boy give more than six hours a week of his time in school to Greek, and six to Latin. From that there is no escape—every other hour is allotted to some other subject.

Within this period has to be put the whole of the classical training—grammar, reading, history.

It was rightly felt that this limitation required explanation and justification, it was expressly defended on the ground that the change in the methods and object of the instruction would enable all that was necessary to be done in the time.

No idea recurs so frequently in all the discussions of this period. The time given to classics must be reduced; but if we recognise that the aim and nature of the instruction has changed we shall still be able to secure all the essential advantages of a classical education. This is expressly adopted and defended in the official regulations, and this is the cardinal point on which the success of the whole reform must turn.

The change in aim and method is the substitution of literary for linguistic work. On no point are the regulations so clear, definite, and categorical, and in this they sum up the demands of all the reformers.

“The great reduction in the hours given to Latin necessitates a change in the aim of the instruction. Understanding of the more important Latin authors, and that intellectual training which experience shows is gained by thorough acquaintance with the ancient writers, is the general aim of this part of the work. This important aim can be attained in the reduced time available provided that the grammatical instruction and the vocabulary are limited to that which is regular and necessary for reading, and the written exercises treated solely in connection with this general aim.”\*

Let us repeat—it cannot be too often said—that this does not mean that the first stages of Latin can be mastered without a long strict preliminary course. What it does mean is the complete repudiation of special work on advanced grammar or minute study of the language—what the Germans call philology. The necessity for some change in this matter had long been recognised. In Germany, as in England, the analysis of linguistic peculiarities had been carried to an extreme point, and, as will always happen, great scholars had imposed on schoolboys a standard of knowledge in their own special subject of study far beyond what might reasonably be expected from them. There is no doubt that the study of the language had become an actual impediment to the study of the literature, and this was most undesirable in schools through which all boys had to pass. A change was wanted, but few were probably prepared for the extreme directness with which the change was imposed on the schools. As we have seen, in the upper forms one hour a week is to be set apart for linguistic study in each of the languages. It is to be strictly confined to this. “It is the duty of head masters and administrative authorities vigorously to oppose all attempts to exceed the limits set down for written exercises, or to disturb the reading by the introduction

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\* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen*, p. 78. (Berlin, 1899.)

of grammatical discussions which are not immediately necessary for the understanding of the author.”\*

An excellent rule, one as much wanted in Germany as in England. And yet we can sympathise with the criticism made by some of the schoolmasters. What would be the fate of classical work under these regulations? It is strictly forbidden ever to give more than six hours a week to the study of either Latin or Greek in the upper forms: the reading of authors takes up five of these, but it is not to be disturbed by grammatical discussions. In these hours is to be put all the work on ancient history, instruction is to be given on the matter of the authors read, large masses are to be got through. Will it be possible under these conditions to attain that finished and accurate knowledge of the languages, that recognition of the finer distinctions of meaning, that appreciation of the more recondite beauties of expression which rightly or wrongly has for so long been one of the essential parts of classical work? In one word all that we mean by scholarship goes. Now I am no enthusiast for the refinements of scholarship, and yet surely it is an essential part of a literary education in the highest schools. It matters not what language is learnt; whether it is Latin, Greek, French, English, or German, there surely must be a time when the ablest boys who get to the top of the best schools do go through this training. We should expect it just as much in modern languages as in classics, it may be given on Milton, or Racine, or Goethe as much as on Sophocles or Vergil, but it cannot with impunity be omitted from the scheme of work. If it is, we lose refinement of observation, we lose that appreciation of the best, that recognition of the highest achievements of the expression of thought and emotion which is the ultimate object of the more advanced literary training. Now when boys study the classics this training must be given in the classics: if it is not, it will not be given at all. A reading in which all the work will be done in masses, in which minute careful finished criticism is wanting—well, this will do for a modern side, but is not this what the regulations impose on the classical side? The work need not be done in all authors—there are even in Greek not many with whom it is necessary, we will not read Juvenal as we read Vergil, nor Xenophon as we read Plato, but in the few it must remain. The observation of the manner in which Sophocles indicates the subtlest changes of mood, the manner in which Thucydides attempts to mould the language to express shades of meaning to which it is not yet accustomed, the influence of Greek models on Horace, the efforts of Tacitus to give vigour and point by violating the usage of language, surely this is essential. Will it be preserved with these six hours a week from which all special grammatical discussions are to be banished? The verdict of the German schoolmasters was adverse. The verdict of facts seemed to support them, for after ten years it was recognised that the work had deteriorated.†

\* *Op cit.*, pp. 72-79.

† Müller (Hugo), *Das höhere Schulwesen Deutschlands am Anfang des 20. Jahrhunderts*, p. 37. (Stuttgart, 1904.)

For carrying out the rule we are thrown back on to the knowledge and discretion of the teacher. What seems to be feared is that the effect of a regulation such as this will be to encourage a neglect of much which the teachers—admirably trained scholars and enthusiastic classicists—would rightly wish to impart to their pupils. The verdict can only be given by an observation of the facts. Now it would indeed be unfair to judge from a few lessons heard in a few schools, but I could not avoid the impression that in the desire to read largely something was at times omitted that was essential to a full understanding and appreciation of the author. Points were passed on which comment and explanation were necessary—necessary not as illustrating a grammatical rule, but because the peculiarity of expression and construction represented a peculiarity or subtlety of thought. This may have been an accident, it may have been an exception, but it is a result which must almost inevitably follow from the attempt to obey an instruction laid down with such emphasis.

And we must look to the future. All the masters still have been trained in schools where the tradition of the older system is alive. As a new generation arises who have been brought up on the newer system, will not hasty, careless, inaccurate work become common? Will not the power of distinguishing between the absolutely right and a rather vague approximation to what is correct disappear?

But even if this is sacrificed—and it is a very serious sacrifice—is the time left sufficient? There are five hours for reading: within this time the text of the author has to be studied, a correct translation has to be made, practice has to be given in translation into idiomatic German—on this the regulations lay great weight—and there has, moreover, to be thorough study of the matter and contents of the author, and there is no other time in which can be gained any knowledge of ancient art, literature, history, or antiquities. The boys will not read classics at the university, they will know nothing of Plato or Homer or Tacitus or Æschylus except what they learn at school. Let us accept the spirit of the new regulations. Let us give up the advanced linguistic training. Let us subordinate composition to the reading of the authors, let us make the knowledge of the writers of classical antiquity the test.

How does it stand with their reading? Let us test it by some instances.

The Germans, as is well known, for natural reasons take a very special interest in the technique of the Greek drama. It is in a peculiar manner the origin of their own national drama, and it is round the stage that much of the literary interest of Germany centres. Here they probably have the advantage of us. We perhaps study too much the words of the tragedians and aim at writing iambs, they study the framework of the play and use this for gaining by comparison a fuller knowledge of the characteristics of the modern drama. Freitag's book on the drama is regularly studied in school. Among the essays

to be done in the sixth form will always be found some on this department of literature. It is excellent that they should read Schiller and Sophocles side by side, and learn by comparison the laws of dramatic composition. But when we inquire more closely we find that in school Æschylus is scarcely read, if at all, and that Aristophanes is entirely omitted. This is no fault of the masters: it is because the limitation of time makes it impossible to include these writers, the knowledge of Greek is not sufficient to read Æschylus. But what is a knowledge of Greek drama from which Æschylus is omitted? What knowledge of Athens can those have who have not drunk deep of the spirit of comedy? Let us give up composition and minute scholarship by all means if that is necessary, but do not let us have to give up this as well.

Homer, it is true, is differently treated. Of him indeed the boys take away a true and abiding knowledge, and many of the masters have spoken to me of the value which this is to their pupils. Brought up as they are in an artificial civilisation, it is from Homer alone that they get knowledge of the natural and primitive life of man.

More than this, this knowledge of Homer, studied as it rightly is in connection with the great German epic, will necessarily alter their whole conception of epic poetry. They leave school having learnt all that school can teach them of this great department of human creative power. They have gone to the fountain-head, they have no second-hand, incomplete, fragmentary knowledge. They have in this got what a study of Greek, and nothing else but Greek, can give.

If the same thorough and complete achievement cannot be attained in other departments, there is one cause and one only—the want of time. We have seen how it is with the drama. It is no better with the historians. Thucydides is read, but only in selections; a study of the speeches is rejected, for they are too hard. Plato fares better. Few boys leave without gaining some general knowledge of the *Republic*, besides one or more of the shorter dialogues, but there is little Demosthenes. In Latin, Juvenal, Lucretius, Catullus are unduly neglected, but most excellent work is done in Tacitus, and Horace is read.

What strikes one about the whole course is that the time available is used admirably, the amount of work got through is very great, the reading is wide and intelligent, the teaching is excellent, the general level of knowledge attained is very high. But throughout the work is hampered by want of time—and this want of time is not the essential difficulty that is caused by the amount which a boy can get through in a day, it is the artificial restriction which is placed on the use of the time by the regulations.

#### CRITICISM OF THE REGULATIONS.

We must face the problem—is the principle of these regulations a wise one? Is it right to give the boys that thorough

elementary training in the language which enables them to read the authors and then, just when the full benefit can be taken of this, to limit and check their ambition in this manner? It would be a different thing if these boys were—as in England so many would be—going to continue their classical work at the universities. We might contentedly leave it to be done in preparation for Classical Moderations or the Tripos, but this is not the case.

In the old days boys learnt to read and translate Thucydides, but knew little of what he narrated. To this school belongs Classen's well-known edition. The subordination of all else to linguistic study is now rightly given up. It is, however, no gain if we are to have a generation of schoolboys who cannot read and translate Thucydides at all.

Let any schoolmaster consider how much time is necessarily required to read, say, the first twenty chapters of Thucydides with a form so as to be sure that they are understood, or read the *Antigone* with no grammatical explanation beyond that which is "necessary for the understanding of the text"; let him also provide time for the revision which is necessary if it is to be remembered, even if it is to be perfectly understood, and then say whether he will be content with six hours Greek in a week.

This question of revision is a not unimportant one. In England there is just now a reaction against what are called set books. It was in the past too common for the reading of boys to be confined to getting up a very limited amount for examination purposes. A boy read one book of Thucydides, one play of Sophocles, and no more. He had, therefore, no width of knowledge, no general acquaintance with any author. The system was overdone; but surely it is based on a fundamental truth. What part of one's training is it from which one learns most? Surely it is the concentrated attention to a limited object, and the complete mastery which is thereby attained. To know a single great work thoroughly, to have followed with critical observation each stage of the argument, to find at the end that there is nothing in it one does not more or less understand, this it is which gives something lasting.

*Æschylus* will not disclose all his secrets to the first reading, a student of modern things may indeed learn much from once reading a translation, as we may learn much of Eastern life by reading the *Arabian Nights*, but a hundred times better accept the inevitable, if it must be accepted, and have a thorough profound searching study of Dante or Shakespeare or Pascal or Goethe, and leave the classics aside altogether, than for the sake of a few hours a week, in which a hasty second-hand knowledge may be gained of the history of modern Germany or mediæval England, be content with a superficial and hasty reading. No one was ever educated except by learning something thoroughly.

Let us turn to another subordinate department of classical work. The traditions of English schools are that Scripture includes Greek Testament, and this is treated, as in fact it can be in no other way treated, as an integral part of the

study of the ancient world. The books of the New Testament are studied as are those of all other ancient writers. It is essential that they should be read in the original, as indeed the whole nature of a classical training depends on this, that boys are trained not to depend on translations or on second-hand works, but to become immediately acquainted with the original works of the great writers. Now in the German regulations it is laid down that:

"In Prima the German text is generally to be used in reading the New Testament. However, here, at least in parts of the work, the original text may be used from time to time in order to accustom the scholar to refer to it. Care, however, must be taken that the instruction does not take a philological character and so lose its chief object."\*

Let us hear what so good a judge as Wilamowitz says on this:

"The first thing we notice is that the New Testament is in the Greek teaching quite neglected. So complete is the breach with tradition. . . . There are no school editions of the books of the Bible. . . . The school generally uses the German translation with the Greek text, which has scarcely more than an ornamental value. The present regulations say that the original text may be used in places.

"The boys in a Gymnasium have neither the ability nor the desire to read the Greek Bible. The students of philology are much surprised if one expects them to know the exact text of the Lord's Prayer. One of the most important Greek books, both for its contents and its language, is completely separated from the instruction in Greek."†

He is, indeed, speaking of the general tendency of German schools for the last hundred years, but the criticism applies with special force to the current regulations. They diminish the time for classics to a minimum, and by so doing necessarily leave out much of that which just gives the study of Greek its abiding value.

Surely this is not the path of advance: it is retrograde. What was the great effect of the revival of Greek learning? It was that educated men might find out for themselves by a close and careful study of the original text the precise meaning of the Bible. The Epistles of St. Paul are probably the most remarkable product of the human mind. In them we find a man of unique power creating a new language in order to express the new ideas by which the world has ever since been moved. Is it not worth while that young men—for our school boys of 18 and 19 are young men—shall read one or more of these letters in the original with the same precise and accurate care for interpretation which would be given to a dialogue of

\* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben*, p. 15.

† Wilamowitz (U. von). *Der Unterricht im Griechischen*, p. 162. (Paper in *Die Reform des höheren Schulwesens in Preussen*, herausgegeben von W. Lexis. Halle a. S., 1902.)

Plato? Is there not in the Acts of the Apostles the opportunity of an introduction to the critical study of history, in a book which gives a more intimate picture of life under the Roman rule than any other record of the Eastern provinces of the Empire?

All this seems deliberately to be excluded by these regulations.

In England the greatest intellectual danger is always ignorance. There is, however, another danger to which those who are most eager for knowledge are specially prone. It is that of accepting as true the interesting, plausible, and often elaborate schemes built up by philosophers, critics, journalists; the idols of the study are often not dissimilar from the idols of the marketplace. It is the one justification for a classical training that it always takes the student back immediately to the original source, and that he is taught not to depend on summaries, compilations, translations, or any other form of intermediate knowledge (the proposal to use translations as a substitute for the original made by many well-meaning scholars is the high treason for which there can be no pardon). It is much better to read Molière in the original than Sophocles in a translation. We must look with grave suspicion on anything which will tend to remove the boy from immediate contact with antiquity and make him dependent on second-hand knowledge.

#### THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

Now let us turn to the regulations for the study of history. They are very remarkable. The first thing we notice is that there is an identical course for all schools, ancient and modern. The boy who learns Greek and Latin, works at history on the same plan as the boy from the Oberrealschule who knows not a word of either. All schools give two years to ancient history. Of these one is the year spent in Quarta. At the age of 11 boys go over the whole of ancient history. They take it once again in Obersecunda when they are 16, and in this year they have to go over the whole of ancient history down to the end of the Western Empire. In all schools the two last years, those in which a boy is just reaching that stage when the study of history may be said to begin, are devoted to the history of modern and mediæval Europe, ending with a special study of the history of Prussia and Brandenburg down to the present day.

No attempt, then, is made to establish any relation between the work in history and in languages. The boy who learns Greek studies Greek history in the same way as the boy who learns none. The boy in the Oberrealschule who is learning English as well as French, and whose whole literary training is given on these languages, gives the same time to modern history as does the classical boy.

But surely, if there are any rules and canons of education, the clearest is that the study of history should not be dissociated from the other literary work being done in school. Ancient history is and must be a completely different thing for those who

learn Latin and Greek and for those who learn only one or neither of these languages. Modern history is or should be quite different for those whose chief and perhaps only humanistic training is based on the study of modern languages. It is clear also that no real study of ancient history, as a classical scholar will wish to learn it, is possible in this one year at the age of 16. This may be what is wanted for "modern" boys: for classical boys it will scarcely serve as a general introduction.

It follows, therefore, that any more special work on the history of those countries, the language of which is being learnt, must be thrown into the time put aside for reading. No one who knows how alert and keen the Germans are to study national life will doubt that this is done. In the French lessons the boys—at least in some schools—read Taine, those who learn English will perhaps read Seeley and Macaulay as well as Shakespeare and Scott, but this means that in classics all the special real work on ancient history which counts at all will have to be taken out of our 12 hours. In them will be included not only grammar, composition, and literature, but also history.

This is, in fact, required by the regulations. The study of the ancient writers is, if anything, almost too historical. One finds this not only in the reading of the historians but even of the poets. At one school I found the boys reading the whole of Horace through in chronological order, as a comment on the history of the time. This might be a most useful exercise, but after all this is not the way in which one's first acquaintance with Horace should be given. In a case such as this it is not the historical side which is neglected but the literary side.

Of course the explanation of this arrangement is the belief that it is in German history, German literature, and in the German essay that the centre of the school work must lie, the belief that the national and patriotic spirit can best be fostered by this special study of the history of the Fatherland, and that this will be the best way of forming the boys' minds. It is not that the value of history is underestimated, rather it is that it occupies so large a part in the scheme of education. It is above all the desire to awaken in the boys a full consciousness of their responsibilities and the greatness of their common heritage.

In Germany the direct ethical side has even stronger weight than it has with us. This is shown by a well known passage in the regulations.

"Special tact and care is required in the handling of economic and social questions in their relation to the present time. All party tendency must be avoided, and the whole instruction must be penetrated by an ethical and historical spirit. In treating of the social demands of the present day reference must be made to the historical development of the relations of classes to one another, and especially of the position of the working classes, in an objective manner; the steady progress and improvement must be pointed out, and the evil of all violent attempts at the overthrow of social arrangements; if this is done it will be possible with the sound sense of our youth to enable them to form

a judgment on the destructive character of certain social endeavours of the present time.

"Since in connection with the history a sketch will be given of the social and political achievements of the civilised States of Europe during the last two centuries, the transition to a presentation of the services of our ruling house in this sphere down to the most recent times, will be a natural one."\*

There is much in this that is alien to our habit of thought. Let us, however, not criticise the details, but look at the just conception that underlies it. The ultimate object of historical learning is to make the boys good citizens. They must be trained to form sound and independent judgments on men and things. They must be prepared to deal with the political and social problems which will come before them whether in England or in Germany. They must take their part in determining the destinies not only of their own country but of mankind—for it is on the conduct of affairs in these two nations that the welfare of a large part of mankind depends. This is certainly a great object for a schoolmaster to have before him—and it is one of which many schoolmasters in either country have always been conscious: it is a responsibility which the great classical schoolmasters have worthily carried out.

What material is to be used? The regulations seem to imply that we shall chiefly depend on the history of Modern Europe—each country especially to study the history of itself. Is it not possible that after all, now as in the old days, the history of Greece and Rome may for the few boys—they can never be more than a small minority, but it is for the small minority that the Gymnasium caters—serve our purpose better?

One fallacy we must first brush aside. We must teach boys to think, but we can never teach them what they must think. The new generation can never think what its predecessor did. That way is mere intellectual stagnation and death. Boys must read history that they may think rightly on political matters. By this we do not mean that their opinions shall be formed. We do not mean that they shall be turned out Liberals or Conservatives, Free Traders or Protectionists, Monarchists or Republicans, but that the opinions which they hold as responsible members of a free community they shall hold nobly and defend worthily. They must obtain insight into the fundamental principles of moral and political life which underlie all.

How are we to attain this? How is this judgment to be formed? How are the boys to approach with free and open mind the fundamental problems of politics and society? Can this be done by a study of modern history, which, if it is to be but two hours a week, can be but the learning of half-truths and inaccurate summaries from some text book or compendium? Surely it is in ancient history that we find in the simplest forms the greatest categories of motive and policy depicted with the deepest insight. We have here boys picked for their intellectual power from a

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\* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben*, I p. 48-49.

nation full beyond all others with a passion for knowledge and a capacity for sustained purpose of thought—we have, too, the struggle of Athens to attain the dominion of Greece, we have the whole picture of the development of a nation from the tribal state to the complete democracy and its final absorption in a great military monarchy—we have this narrated by Thucydides and Polybius, caricatured by Aristophanes, criticised by Plato, and the lessons recorded by Aristotle. Are we to form our judgment on the ethics of the weak State in its struggle against the strong whether of its own or another race? We have the struggle of Greece against Persia, of Athens against Macedon, of Judæa against Rome. We can study the problems of empire as they appeared to Pericles and Augustus, the eternal conflict of liberty and efficiency with Eubulus and Flaminius and Cæsar.

How can we in schools deal fearlessly, ruthlessly, and critically, as we must if we wish really to teach, with the problems of modern history, with Frederick the Great, with Napoleon, with 1848, 1866, 1870? We do not want patriotism taught in schools—it is the constant factor the presence of which is assumed by all—but we do want patriotism ennobled and clarified. Is not there in the history of the ancient world abundance of political wisdom to occupy a boy for his last two years at school? Will not this enable him to form a juster judgment in after years on the problems of the present than a study of the immediate past? In history as in human conduct everything changes except the essential, and the study of the past may help us to see the essential in the present.

There is another point which may be suggested. Any study of history must eventually be the study of the life history not of individuals but of states, and that complex of states and nations which we call a "civilisation." The ultimate end of it must be to induce the habit of mind by which the political problems of the moment are looked on as part of the whole history of the nation.

Surely for this purpose it is an inestimable advantage that we study a nation, a state, a civilisation, the history of which is closed. We can never understand the present unless we know the future as well as the past, and in order to see the importance of each episode we require to know the end of the story. This we can do in ancient history; we cannot do so in modern history. No one can have given any serious attention to the history of modern Europe without feeling this. How little do we really know what is the true position in the development of our political and national life, even of events so long past as the Reformation or the Revolution? Still more is this true when we come to the events of the nineteenth century—Socialism and individualism, democracy and imperialism, the nationalist ideal and the cosmopolitan.

What were the real issues of 1848, 1866, 1870, colonial expansion, the exploitation of tropical lands, the government of dependencies, the republican ideal—all these are the problems

we want to understand, but I do not see how the thought and mind is to be trained by immediately dealing with them in their modern manifestations. Let the boys drink in as they will, the feelings, hopes, ideals, prejudices of their nation, their class, their family, their home. School is not the whole of life; there is much which it cannot do, and should not attempt to do. What the school can do is to brace and strengthen the mind so that by degrees the real issues at stake may become apparent.\*

Why should a Government so quick to recognise all that tells for intellectual efficiency adopt this principle? It seems to me that this arrangement of the history work signifies much. It does so just because the German scheme rightly attaches great importance to the ethical and formative side of history; it is the aim of the school to make boys good citizens and good Germans. It is an aim in which everyone will sympathise, but it is just this which shows how small is the confidence in the merits of a classical training.

One cannot study the regulations and the system of work which they encourage without recognising that the change which they carry out is not merely that the study of the literature is substituted for that of the language. There is something more than this. There is another spirit working in them. One cannot but feel that the time given to the classics is given grudgingly; it is cut down to the smallest possible limit. This is not so clear in them as it is in the controversy which had preceded them: the regulations were themselves (as all such regulations must be) a compromise. There were many who would have wished to diminish the time even further. Behind them, half acknowledged, hinted at but not fully accepted, we can see the working of the belief that, while the classics must be kept, their retention is an unfortunate necessity, and in every way their predominance in the school must be restricted.

This springs from an attitude of mind towards the classics which is now very common in Germany, and has received the support even of some of the greatest of classical scholars. It is what I may call the historical attitude.

It will be useful to transcribe a longer passage from the semi-official history of the reform movement in order to make clear the way in which the two points of view act on each other.

In the article on Latin † Professor Waldeck writes:—

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\* Let me be quite clear. I do not doubt that a most excellent education can be given on the History, Literature and Languages of Modern and Mediæval Europe. The great object of educational reformers must be to plan out a course of work in these subjects equal in excellence to the classical work. In such a course Modern and Mediæval History would be studied in a way quite different from that which is possible in classical schools; we should study side by side the literature and history of Modern and Mediæval Europe just as we do the literature and history of antiquity.

† Waldeck (A.). *Der Unterricht im Lateinischen*, p. 143. (Article in *Die Reform des höheren Schulwesens in Preussen*, herausgegeben von W. Lexis, Halle a. S. 1902.)

"The first thorough and deliberate reform took place in the year 1890—as is well known, through the energetic personal initiative of the Emperor. The centre of gravity of it lay in the changed position of Latin: no more should Greek and Roman boys be educated, but German. Therefore the Latin essay disappeared suddenly as in an abyss. . . . At the same time, in the just consideration that the new limited aim could be attained with a considerably diminished expenditure of time and strength, the number of hours for Latin was diminished by 15. In this way place was found for modern subjects, the previous principle of concentration was abandoned, the Gymnasium was to become the place for all higher general education. . . . A higher education which shall lead a boy to an understanding of the complete life of the present, and enable him to play his part in it, can neither limit itself to classical antiquity nor can it be a purely formal training: it requires a comprehensive knowledge of the things of the present. We possess now, especially since the development of the last century, our own civilisation, which, though it is influenced by antiquity, is essentially rooted in Christian and German ideas and in almost every sphere has outgrown antiquity in breadth and depth. It is the first duty of all instruction to introduce boys to this. The study of its historical development should make clearer and deeper the understanding of the present age, but it can neither be a substitute for it nor can it give it. . . . In every branch of learning that which is and exists is the chief thing, and only after that does the question arise—how did it come to be?"

Classics are then to be studied not for themselves but because of their historical importance in the growth of European civilisation. This conception of the historical value of the classics will be found in nearly all modern German works. It has received the support of some even of the most distinguished German scholars. I venture to suggest that it is fallacious, and is destructive of all right appreciation of the real value of classics as a school subject. It is maintained that we read the classics because of the importance that they have had in building up our civilisation; we study them not for themselves but for their relation to ourselves. Just as a study of the Old Testament is necessary in order to understand the New, so a study of ancient life and civilisation is necessary to understand modern civilisation.

Now with regard to Latin this has a great truth. Latin and the influence of Rome are so inextricably woven into the whole fabric of mediæval and modern life, they are so essential a part of the structure of our civilisation; our religion, law, and politics, our literature and philosophy grow so imperceptibly out of that of Rome, that Latin is indeed to us not a foreign and ancient language, it is really one of the modern European languages. It is impossible to make the most rudimentary steps towards any genuine study of any part of European life without requiring the use of Latin—the language not only of Cicero and Vergil but of Augustine, Spinoza, and Grotius.\* This it is which makes a

partial and incomplete knowledge of Latin an essential part of the course in a Realgymnasium or modern school.

#### AIM OF A CLASSICAL EDUCATION.

But a classical education means not one based on Latin but one based on Latin and Greek, and surely the position of Greek is quite different. Greece has frequently had great influence on modern thought and modern life, but it is the influence of a foreign, strange, and exotic force. It is a medicine; it is not something that belongs to us, it is something to which we go to supplement, correct, and change what is native and indigenous.

For any advanced study of the origin and nature of European thought the influence of Greece is of course incalculable; but surely this is not the reason why the study of Greek is enjoined on every schoolboy who wants to go to the university, and many who do not. Historical study of this kind is a very advanced occupation, it is the work of mature minds and of the most advanced scholars. Of all subjects of study it is the most unsuitable to schoolboys. These great historical generalisations, this analysis of the origins of our present civilisation, this history of the development of ideas, all this which is to adult scholars the most absorbing of occupations is to schoolboys barren and meaningless verbiage. Worse than that, it encourages the most superficial repetition of words and phrases that they do not and cannot understand.

And even if we turn to this study of progress and development, Greece is only one of many factors. The Middle Ages are still more to us than the whole of antiquity. How great is the dynamic force of the Old Testament. Historically Greece must take its place with these other civilisations and literatures, which can be studied not for their own sake but for the sake of their effect and influence—a very different thing.

Surely if Greek is to be studied it is not because of its historical effect in the past, but because it still has the same power as it had then—the virtue is not gone out from it. We read Greek books, not because our fathers read them with pleasure and profit, but because we derive profit and pleasure from them ourselves. If we do not—if we can find other books which are equally good, if our modern civilisation is deeper, wider than that of Greece, if our modern poets express more perfectly the emotions of man, if our modern philosophers see more clearly the fundamental problems of life, if our modern historians have more art in the record of political events and more insight into public life—then it is indeed inexcusable that the best years of a boy's life should be given to so laborious, so expensive an operation as learning an extinct and superseded literature.

It is not necessary to labour the point further. It must be mentioned, because this historical fallacy is one of the chief elements in the modern reform of classical studies. If we are to profit by the example of Germany, we must always keep in mind that this reform is a complicated movement: it embodies

many different and sometimes inconsistent tendencies, and we must distinguish between them. Because we imitate the simplification of grammatical teaching, because we encourage the wider reading, because we may recognise that it is not necessary to give so much time to composition as we have done, it does not follow that we adopt this view of the essential nature of classical work.

Now on this depends the whole position that classics will take in the curriculum at the top of the school. If we take the historical view, we shall always read the classical authors with our eyes on modern times, we shall hurry over them to get to that which is vital and important.

If we take the formative view, then we shall encourage as complete an absorption as possible in the atmosphere of the Greeks. In the one case we shall grudge all the time given to classics, we shall always be wanting to get on to modern times; in the other, we shall grudge all the time that is not given to them. In the one case we shall want to have specimens of classical writers that we may see what kind of people they were, and understand how it was that the reading of Greek books made an epoch in European history, to understand how they affected Milton or Goethe; in the other case we shall try to absorb the spirit of Greece.

Now this is why all German time-tables seem to me to be defective. They do not give that opportunity for complete absorption in the classics which surely is the only way to win their secret if they have one.

The whole matter is inextricably interwoven with the question of time. It is the fundamental fault of the whole system that the schoolmaster must under it always work with the feeling that the hours are inexorably limited. Let us repeat, in no school of the country, when a boy is 16 or over, may he, under any condition, spend more than six hours a week of his school time at Latin or six hours a week at Greek. This, we must repeat, is not only a regulation for the ordinary school, it is not one to which in special schools there may be exceptions—it is the maximum time which is ever allowable.

Now let us contrast with this that which must be the ideal of every classical teacher. He has his boys who have, after a long and painful probation, surmounted the preliminary obstacles; they have a firm knowledge of the simple facts of the language, they have the working use of a good vocabulary. All this is secured by the excellent course for the younger years. Surely now is the time to enter into the heritage. The boys are free of the literature, lords of a civilisation the greatness and variety of which is still unexhausted.

How infinite is the field of knowledge and thought opened to a clever boy who has at last attained some command of the language and can read with ease and speed! It is not only



is the best. For many boys I doubt not that a modern one is must advantageous. For the future of culture and learning the most important thing is that on the history of modern civilisation a wider reading be framed a course of study as easily handled, as to give so variety as that now offered by the classics. This is the not follow the modern school—of the Realgymnasium. What I can say is that if a boy is to have a classical education he should have a thorough one—that it is no use going through the long and painful stages, spending six years mastering the elements of Latin, three years mastering the elements of Greek, unless when this has been done the pupil is allowed to drink deeply of the Pierian spring. This is just what the Prussian system prevents. It was always a fault of it; the fault was intensified by the last changes.

We get, then, to an obvious criticism of the time-table. The work is wrongly apportioned. There is at the early stages a long, perhaps an excessive time given to Latin, and then in the highest forms, where the study of classical literature is likely to be most valuable and productive, when the boy's mind is sufficiently mature to deal with it, the time is unduly curtailed. Could not there be some re-arrangement—might we not sacrifice some of the time at the bottom of the school and in return ask for more at the top?

Here, logically and inevitably, we come to our special subject—the Frankfurt scheme.

#### THE FRANKFURT SCHEME.

This, then, was the situation at the beginning of 1891. The friends of classical studies were profoundly depressed. The Government had adopted principles which seemed fatal to the serious study of the classics. They were confronted with a scheme of work imposed on them by authority which it seemed impossible to carry out, a programme of studies which, while it enforced the study of Greek, did so under conditions which would deprive it of nearly all its value. Unless there was some change they could look forward to nothing but a continuance on these lines of "progress"—this meant the maintenance of the Gymnasium as the only school of the highest rank, as the school through which all who were destined for the professions must pass, but at the same time a gradual decrease in the time and importance given to the classical work.

These were the circumstances in which Dr. Reinhardt proposed the adoption of the "reformed" time-table. He did so not as an enemy of classical learning but as one of the most convinced of its supporters, and one of the most distinguished of humanists. His scheme was suggested not as that which was absolutely the best, but the best under the new conditions. If, he argued, the Gymnasium is to teach so many subjects, if it is to combine the older work of a classical school with the newer subjects of a modern education, and the total number of hours available are to be so few, they must be used to the best advantage.

The time must be used better. This could be done by surrendering some of the time given to Latin in the lowest forms, and return taking more time in the higher forms. Let the whole language course be re-arranged. Begin with the easier language—French. Let that be thoroughly learnt at the bottom of the school, then pass on to Latin, and let the boys when their minds are already developed throw themselves with intensive force into the more difficult language. Let the study of modern things come first; let the boys press on from the familiar to that which is strange to them. The beginning of Greek will have then to be put off later than has been usual, but in compensation it will be possible to give to both it and to Latin more time in the highest forms when it is most wanted. Instead of this long course divided into many subjects we shall have concentration of effort.

The idea of the scheme was taken from the school at Altona; where a Realgymnasium and an Oberrealschule had been joined together in one establishment with a common preparatory department in which French was begun before Latin. This he proposed to apply to the course of the Gymnasium. Instead of beginning Latin in Sexta, French in Quarta, and Greek in Tertia, he proposed to begin French in Sexta, give three whole years to the exclusive teaching of French, not begin Latin before Tertia, and postpone Greek to Secunda.

Reinhardt's scheme differed much in detail from that at Altona, and the application of it to the Gymnasium, which is really the important thing, makes it for practical purposes a new scheme. A reference to pages 86 and 119 will show the actual number of hours in the Frankfurt scheme as now in use at the Goethe Gymnasium and the scheme of work in other schools.

We see that there is an appreciable addition to the time saved for classics in the highest forms, and that for Greek we get four years with eight hours instead of six years with six hours a week. The total loss of four hours may well be compensated for by the increased value of the work as the boys get older. In Latin it is different—there the total number of hours is very sensibly decreased from 68 to 52. This is due to the fact that Latin is not begun at all in the first three years, but then from Untertertia onwards we have the time very much increased.

The advantages of this scheme, as explained by Dr. Reinhardt\* and his colleagues, would be:—

#### ORGANISATION.

By this arrangement the final decision whether a boy was to enter a classical or a modern school would be deferred from the age of 9 to 12. The advantages of this are obvious, especially when, as in Germany, the consequences of this decision are so momentous for the whole future career. Even in a large town where there are several schools it enables a parent better to find out what are the tastes and abilities of his son, and a boy till he

\* See Reinhardt (Karl), *Die Frankfurter Lehrpläne* (Frankfurt a. M. 1892), particularly p. 11; and *Die Umgestaltung des höheren Schulwesens*. (Frankfurt a. M. 1892.)

is 12 can attend the school which is nearest to his own home. The Germans quite rightly do not like or encourage our system by which quite young children make long journeys daily to attend school. Much more important will it be in country places. Here there generally can be only one higher school available. In the old days this was almost always a *Gymnasium*. The classical education was, however, really only required by a small minority of the pupils, and to a great extent the needs of the others were sacrificed for those who wished for a training that would prepare them for the Universities. If, as is probable, many of the smaller *Gymnasien* are converted into schools of another kind, then the hardship will be laid on those who want a classical education. Suppose that all schools had a common course up to the age of 12, that the work of the *Gymnasium* and *Realgymnasium* was identical to the age of 14, then these difficulties would be much diminished.

How greatly would some system of this kind help in the organisation of our country grammar schools! It would then be possible to combine in one course the education of those boys who did not intend to pass on to any more advanced work with those who at the age of about 14 would go on to a public school and thence to a university. How much do many now suffer when the poorer parents of the professional classes cannot find in their own town the opportunity of giving their young boys that early training which is indispensable if they are to be properly equipped to enter into competition with others who are also being prepared for the learned professions. In too many cases this is now being made almost impossible for those who cannot afford the fees of the expensive private schools. If no boys began Latin till they were 12 or Greek till they were 14, then it would be possible for every country town to prepare boys in the ordinary course of study so that at the age of 14 they were able without difficulty to hold their own with boys from the private schools in the competition for entrance and for scholarships at the public schools.

On one point we must, however, here put in a warning. It will be observed that in Germany the discussion turns entirely on the relations to one another of the different classes of the higher schools. We hear little of the relations of these schools to the elementary or *Volksschule*. In England we are much concerned with the transference of boys from the elementary to the secondary school, and this is the educational problem, the solution of which is our most pressing difficulty. On this point the experience of Frankfurt gives us little help. It gives no support to the belief that boys can be transferred from the elementary to the secondary school at the age of 12, and then compete on equal terms with those who have for three years been working hard at an organised course of higher work. To postpone Latin till 12 does not in their scheme mean to postpone all secondary work. Whether rightly or wrongly, the reformers lay the greatest stress on the strict and systematic study in French that has been done before the age of 12. It is only as a result of this, and as a result of the very

thorough and strenuous work done in German, that in their opinion it is possible to postpone Latin so late. It is absolutely and fundamentally contrary to the whole principle on which the work is arranged that all foreign languages should be postponed. I think I may say that it is inconceivable in their minds that boys from the elementary schools should at the age of 12 be transferred to the higher school and then at once begin simultaneously the study of both French and Latin. If we want enlightenment on this problem, it is, I imagine, to Scotland rather than to Germany that we must look. This is a matter we shall have to return to when we consider the educational questions involved.

Attempts were made at the conference of 1900 to show that those points of organisation were not important. I do not think that they were successful, and the voting seems to show that on this side the advocates of the Frankfurt scheme maintained their ground. They received the strong support of the Ministry of Finance, and the general conclusion seems to be that it is at any rate desirable to arrange things so that in each province of Prussia there shall be one or more schools organised on this plan; in this way in each part of the country the opportunity will be open to boys to pass on from a country school to a large Gymnasium at the later age. To this extent the Frankfurt scheme has been definitely adopted as an integral part of the Government provision of schools. At present the reformers do not ask for more than this. They ask that their schools should be recognised as an alternative system to that which is in more general use. "*Wir lieben es nicht revolutionär vorzugehen,*" as one of the chief of the reformers said to us. They probably believe that when this is done the natural educational merits of it will lead to its more universal acceptance.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS.

It is to the educational problems that we must now turn.

While the scheme was started as an expedient to meet the difficulties caused by the new regulations, there can be no doubt that with time and experience the attitude towards it of its own originators has to some extent changed. What at first was put forward as a tentative experiment is now propounded as the absolutely best system. In the earlier years it was the points of organisation on which most stress was laid, it is now the educational advantages. This is, after all, the important matter for us.

Now to a great extent this is a matter of experiment and observation, but we must begin by considering the theoretical argument by which Dr. Reinhardt defends his scheme, and we will remember that he speaks with the authority of an experienced schoolmaster. In his original statement, published in 1892, Reinhardt lays stress on the peculiar character of the Prussian Gymnasium, which aims not merely at giving a classical education but at combining with it a general training in modern subjects. Owing to this dual character it has always

been open to criticism on two grounds. On the one hand, it has been objected that it has not brought its pupils to a sufficiently high standard of attainment in each of the subjects studied; on the other, there has always been the danger of overworking the pupils. The Gymnasium is not the old classical school, it is a classical school into which numerous new subjects have been introduced. As each new study has been introduced an attempt has been made to use to the fullest the freshness of memory and power of assimilation of the younger boys, and in consequence the whole complete list of subjects is introduced as low down as *Tertia*. Besides German, religion, history, geography, mathematics, science, boys have to learn three foreign languages. The consequent distraction of the attention prevents real progress. He proposes, therefore, while accepting the general framework of the curriculum, to enable the boys to work with more concentration of energy by making the chief work in each language successive and not parallel. Instead of the "*neben einander*" we have the "*nach einander*."

This being the general principle, he then contends that of the three languages French, or whichever modern language is taken first, should precede Latin, not follow it, and should have so much time for its sole study that the boys can really make substantial progress in it.

At the same time they should receive a thorough grounding in the mother tongue, and not till after that should they pass on to the more difficult and distant language.

This arrangement he defends by a consideration of the altered position which Latin now holds in the general mental equipment of an educated man compared to that which it held in former centuries. It is no longer desirable, as it used to be, that we should be able to talk in Latin or use it for the interchange of ideas. But the chief object of beginning a language early is that the boys may acquire an acquaintance with the vocabulary and idiom so ingrained that it can be used spontaneously and without conscious effort. If we want to use a language for conversation and for the free expression of thought, we must have this complete mastery of it, and in order to get this we must begin in childhood, for what we learn earliest we remember longest. It is now not Latin but modern languages which we shall want to use in this way.

There was a time, in Germany—it was not so long ago—that Latin was learnt in order that it might be spoken, then the beginning of the teaching was to a great extent empirical. The first vocabulary acquired was largely that of common objects, until quite recently the final test of knowledge was a Latin essay, *i.e.*, the use of Latin for the expression of one's own thoughts was—at least in theory—expected. So long as this was the case it was desirable that the forms of Latin accidence should become as it were part of his flesh and blood, there was some reason in requiring that absolute and unconscious acquaintance with them which can only be completely attained when they have been learnt in childhood. This aim has now been given

up. It is not expected or required that the great majorè first the pupils, even at a Gymnasium, should use Latin, st̄d year, Greek, as a means of expression.

Latin now cannot be learnt empirically; to attempt to do so would be a waste of time. It would mean burdening the mind of the pupils with a number of words and phrases which are useless for the real object of learning the language. These are two: one is grammatical training, the other is the reading of the Latin authors. Both of these objects are unattainable till a boy is about 12 years of age or older. In the earlier years he is capable neither of the scientific learning of grammar nor of reading Latin authors with interest, all work done in these years is merely preparation. Under the older system this period of preparation was too long.

A pupil of 13 or 14 years of age can read and understand Cæsar well. At this age the boy is greatly interested in military history. To begin earlier is impossible. [The impossible is done in many English schools]. If a boy begins Latin in Sexta, then everything up to the beginning of Cæsar is all preparation. In the three years of preparation chiefly grammar is taught. The boys have a reading book put before them which has been made up by modern people for this purpose. This period of preparation seems to be too long. I should like to use an illustration. It does not do to take too long a run before jumping; one must take a run just long enough to make the jump, otherwise the speed is diminished, not increased. In the same way in teaching the preparation should not be longer than is absolutely necessary.

Elsewhere he lays stress on the keenness and pleasure with which boys in Sexta begin Latin, and points out that this is followed by a time of languor and loss of energy, which is often not recovered till the boy reaches the highest form. When he begins Latin in Tertia this period of languor does not occur.

If one fixes the time rightly, quite a different energy comes into the work; vigour and pleasure, which are closely connected, are awakened in the scholar much more strongly.

We may then get a useful formula. A boy is to begin Cæsar at 13 or 14. How long is necessary for him to learn Latin so that he has overcome the worst grammatical difficulties and can set to work at Cæsar with some help so as to make it out? At Frankfurt they find that a little over a year is required. Then they can begin to tackle the easier narrative parts, and by the end of the second year the boy is reading Cæsar with fair rapidity and ease, so that before the end of the third year he has read the greater part of the *Bellum Gallicum*, and takes away the memory not of one or two isolated books but of the work as a whole.

The argument is of real value. We want a boy to begin reading his first Latin author as soon as he is sufficiently mature to do so with some interest and understanding of the contents.

The whole modern German school, including Reinhardt and his most vigorous opponents, would all agree on this, that the

been option of a boy when reading a classical author should be been objected to what he writes about: the boy should feel that he is high standing Cæsar or Homer to learn Latin and Greek, but that the boy wants to learn Latin and Greek in order to read Cæsar and Homer. The point is a fundamental one, it governs the whole spirit and method of the teaching, and unless it is fully carried out in all its consequences I do not believe that classical teaching will ever be successful with the majority of boys. Given this, however—and, as I say in Germany it is now common ground—we may approach the problem in this way. What is, generally speaking, the earliest age at which it is probable that boys will be able to read Cæsar, or whatever other author is used first, with understanding and interest—not merely as a collection of grammatical difficulties, but as the account of a number of battles and campaigns? The great thing to avoid is reading it earlier: to read a book too soon is too often to spoil a boy's pleasure in it for the rest of his life. This is the great fault of the English system—nearly every book is read too soon. The first acquaintance with a book is the one that leaves the permanent impression. If a boy begins reading Cæsar at 11 or 12 as a grammatical exercise, the original distaste he acquires for it will never be eradicated.

We must insist on this point, or we shall confound the Frankfurt scheme with something that looks like it but is quite different. English schoolmasters will at once say that it is quite common for boys to begin Latin at 12, and begin Cæsar in a year or so. They do this though the time given to Latin in many schools is not half what is given at Frankfurt. This is true; but we must not suppose that they are following the Frankfurt plan. It all depends upon what we mean by reading Cæsar. The painful and laborious process which we all know so well, by which a form struggles in each lesson through a few lines—if it happens to be a difficult passage, through part of a sentence—when boys and masters both feel, and feel justly, that the task set them is one quite beyond the powers of the class, so much too hard that it results merely in weariness and discouragement, this process which after the lapse of a year achieves at most one book, too often only part of a book, being ready for an examination in which half the boys will fail—all this has nothing to do with our scheme. The work put down for the second year is Cæsar, Books 1 to 6. The whole is not always read, portions may be omitted, but by much the larger part is done, and there is in addition to be about 600 lines of Ovid. I heard the boys both at Frankfurt and at other schools. There are differences of detail in each school,\* at the Goethe

\* "When in the Goethe Gymnasium I began reading Cæsar with the Obertertia, who had only learnt Latin a year. I had no definite amount of work to get through; I had to try how many books I could read without incurring the reproach of superficiality. Now (with six hours a week in the first half and five hours in the second half) I read six books of Cæsar. Direktor Reinhardt did the same in the parallel class, and my other colleagues in the following years." None will suspect Dr. Wulff of superficiality.—Wulff, *Der Lateinische Anfangs-Unterricht*, p. 13.

Gymnasium they now begin Cæsar before the end of the first year; at Charlottenburg three books are read in the second year, but that which is common to all is that the boys after learning Latin about two and a half years know their Cæsar. Of course they find it hard at first, but they go on at it with concentrated energy till they have, as we may say, read Cæsar. They have not only read Cæsar: they know the Gallic war, which is also a very different thing.

But I am anticipating. These suggestions were, as may be assumed, met by vigorous opposition from the majority of the classical teachers.\* It not unnaturally seemed to be the first step towards the *Einheitsschule*, the end of which would be the absorption of the Gymnasium in the modern schools. They refused to believe that the standard of classical learning could be maintained.

#### THE EXPERIMENT AT FRANKFURT.

This was clearly a matter for experiment, and the Prussian Government with characteristic wisdom not only allowed the experiment to be made, but to be made in that way which alone could be of real value. An educational experiment requires time, money, ability, and pupils. An experiment that lasted two or three years would be of no use. There must be a whole generation of schoolboys who had passed through the complete course of nine years, till they were ready for the university. At the request of the civic authorities, who have secured the services of some of the most distinguished educationalists in Germany—and indeed the post of educational adviser to a great city such as Frankfurt is one that a great scholar and distinguished administrator may well be proud to hold—the first schools chosen for the experiment were the Goethe Gymnasium and the Muster Schule—a Realgymnasium in that city.

Both these schools are under the immediate control and management of the city authorities.

Since then, encouraged by the success which attended the work at Frankfurt, several other schools have been added to the number. It is, however, to the Frankfurt schools that we naturally go to become acquainted with the system, and especially to the Goethe Gymnasium, of which Dr. Reinhardt was himself head master. The work of the Muster Schule is in many ways equally important, and this school is especially known throughout Europe for the remarkable work done in modern languages. It is, however, on the work of the Gymnasium rather than that of the Realgymnasium that the success of the experiment depends. The whole point at issue was whether good classical work could be done under these conditions, and it is therefore to the Goethe Gymnasium and the other classical schools which

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\* The most vigorous statement of the case against Reinhardt with which I am acquainted is that by Dr. Paul Cauer, *Siebzehn Jahre im Kampf um die Schulreform*. (Berlin, 1906.)

have adopted this method that our attention was specially directed.\*

Let us say at once that the experiment was most successful. When after nine years the boys from the Goethe Gymnasium were brought up for their final examination, it was found that they could hold their own with boys from other schools. As to this we have the testimony of the chief opponent of the reformed schools. Writing in 1893, Dr. Cauer says:—

“On the Frankfurt system the accidence of both languages, the regular as well as the irregular forms are each to be taken in a single year, Latin in Untertia and Greek in Untersecunda. Now it may be possible to race through the paragraphs and paradigms. It is, however, completely unthinkable that the boys will in any way become thoroughly habituated to the forms, or that they will acquire a firm nucleus of knowledge which will in the higher classes make independent reading possible.” †

In a note added ten years later he acknowledged that his prognostication was wrong. “In the Goethe Gymnasium an unusually eager set of boys, with great desire for knowledge, under a specially selected staff, have as a matter of fact succeeded in a short time in getting much from classical study, but only by giving such intensive study as is possible only under specially favourable circumstances and as could scarcely be permanently maintained.” ‡

Cauer, it will be seen, at once hits upon what every experienced schoolmaster will see is the weakest point in the scheme. It throws an undue amount of work on to the two years 12–13 and 13–14. In these the boys have to master the Latin grammar. They begin Greek the next year, and it is obvious that any failure or defect in the work done during the two years in Tertia will not easily be made up afterwards. It is, I think, by the work done in these two years that the scheme must stand or fall.§

The following papers contain a fuller description of the actual teaching. There are, however, certain points to which I should like to call attention.

We attended many lessons in these forms both at Frankfurt and elsewhere. The impression which in all cases was made upon me was that the work was being done at very high pressure. Not only at Frankfurt, though it was most noticeable there, but at other schools visited, masters and boys were doing all they could. The work was going with a swing, a verve, an impetus which one seldom sees even in the best schools. To attend the lessons was for this reason an unusual pleasure. One felt that one saw a difficult thing being done with great success. One felt also that boys and masters knew this, and they took pleasure

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\* I had hoped to discuss also the problem of the Realgymnasium, but I found that this could not be done from the point of view of the course in Latin—we must approach this from the Modern Language side. See p. 74.

† *Op. cit.* pp. 81–82.

‡ *Op. cit.* p. 82, note.

§ *Cf. infra* p. 74.

in doing it well just because they were on their mettle. I have in my mind a lesson done with the Obertertia partly in grammar, partly on Cæsar. The lesson began with *viva voce* drill on the accusative and infinitive, used to test their memory and understanding of the passage of Cæsar they had read in the last lesson. In this they were quite at home, and in translation—though, of course, they required occasional help—they could do it with understanding and interest, and were full of suggestion when the problem of turning it into good German arose. The difficulty was there, but all along one had the feeling that the difficulty was just that which the boys at this stage were able to cope with. They were working hard—they knew they were working hard, but the work was not beyond them.

We must, then, inquire whether this is due to any exceptional advantages which are peculiar to these schools or whether it is merely the result of good teaching and good organisation of such a kind that it could be introduced elsewhere—whether it could be adopted in our English schools.

Now on one point I think Cauer is right, though Reinhardt protests against the idea. The teaching is unusually good even for good German schools, and the boys are unusually quick. The masters are men of real ability, working with that enthusiasm which is natural to those who are pioneers. The school has also quite clearly an unusual number of boys of real ability, even though, as Dr. Reinhardt protests, all the boys are not little Goethes. There are elements in the population of Frankfurt which will explain this. There were plenty of boys who could help the class along, make the pace for the others, and take them over the most difficult points.

It does not at all follow that all these boys would eventually do better than others who developed more slowly. I do not think that anyone can doubt that in a great trading and financial city there are a very large proportion of pupils who belong to a race that develops early, and between the ages of eleven and fifteen, shows a quickness and intellectual enterprise which will not be found among those who may perhaps do better in later years, but do not develop so rapidly. The whole system of the Frankfurt school seems to suit these boys.

With an inferior set of boys, with masters less enthusiastic, less vigorous, the pace could hardly be kept up, or if it were it would only be by driving. I do not know that all the schools I visited were free from this danger. I find in my notebook that at one I wrote down after leaving the room, "excellent work, but will it not make the boys hate Latin?" The building was not very good, the ventilation was wrong, the response was not so ready, one doubted whether they would arrive at the goal, and even if they did one felt that they would be exhausted and overdone.

Of course English boys are just as clever as German boys, and probably will work as hard. One can see work quite as vigorous and ambitious as this in some English schools. It is the sort of work that one gets in what we should call a scholarship class,

when we get a picked set of boys of great ambition working at full speed, especially in large schools in London, where one gets picked boys often not dissimilar in parentage to those at Frankfurt. It is, however, as it seems to me, work quite beyond what we could ever hope to get in ordinary forms in ordinary schools. We may take an illustration from English life. As every one knows, under the new regulations for the Navy the picked boys at Osborne, under a very highly organised system, with a very large and expensive staff, get through an amount of work quite beyond what is usually expected of boys of this age. Now this may be successful for these boys under these conditions. No one would think of arranging the work of other schools on the assumption that what is done there can be done elsewhere. This is, I think, true about Frankfurt, and it seems to me that if the general work is to be arranged on the assumption that in all schools the boys in two years learn as much Latin as they do there, the assumption will turn out not to be fulfilled. The result of this would be that when the time came to begin Greek they would not be ready for it. They would be overworked, they would not have got free of the difficulties of the Latin grammar, and they would have no freshness to begin Greek.\* It might be answered that the Gymnasium is only intended for clever boys—that if a boy cannot keep up then it is evidence that he is not clever enough for a classical education, he had better go to a Realgymnasium—as we should say, to a modern side. I suspect that this will eventually be a result of the whole movement—the postponement of Greek to the age of 14 will mean that comparatively few begin it at all, and it is perhaps a result we ought not to regret. Greek is a study for the intellectual aristocracy of a nation, and the Frankfurt scheme will help to weed out those who do not belong to it.

#### ORGANISATION AND METHOD.

We must now consider the other conditions which make this rapid progress possible, those of school organisation and methods of teaching. Now, as compared with our English schools, much the most important thing is what I may call the constitution of the form. We must not think that these boys who are put into *Untertertia* to begin their Latin grammar are the miscellaneous, heterogeneous collection of boys that one finds in most English schools, brought together under new masters, ignorant of one another, strange to the routine and customs of the school.

All these boys have already been for three years in the school. They have worked their way up together. They have been thoroughly trained and drilled, and their previous course of work has been specially thought out so that it may be the best possible preparation for their Latin. That in which these schools are far

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\* I do not think that this would matter in the case of boys going to read classics at the University; for them it might be quite enough if they put off Greek even till 15; I am thinking of those whose whole work at Greek will be confined to the four last years at school.

superior to all but a very few of our schools is the excellent class management which makes possible the most vigorous oral teaching. I will say more on this later. Here we must insist that the quick response, the easy working of the machine without hitch or friction, cannot be attained at once—it is the three years in the lower forms by which this is secured.

In comparing the German with the English system this must always be kept in mind. It is the essence of the German plan that the whole of school life will be spent at one school, or if there is a change it will be from one school to another which is precisely similar in every respect. From 9 to 18 there is no break in school life. Each step is carefully prepared. The boys from the first get accustomed to the system of the school and its methods, they move up from form to form with companions whom they know, and at each stage, though the subject of instruction may change, the machinery is identical. In some schools the master moves up with his boys, and takes the same set year after year. There is no time lost, and each stage succeeds the last almost imperceptibly.

How different is it in England! To a certain extent something of the same kind is attainable in the great schools of the large towns—the schools which in their character and constitution most nearly answer to the German schools. Even in them it is as a matter of fact only attained to a very limited extent. A very large proportion of the boys enter not at 9 or 10 but at 12 or 13, and of these an increasing proportion come from public elementary schools ignorant of nearly everything which boys of their age in Germany will have learnt.

In the great boarding schools the difference is more marked. Here they enter at 13 or 14. The first stage of their school life has been passed at private schools, where they are taught in small classes. We cannot ignore this break. We cannot let a boy begin Latin at 12 when probably the next year he will leave for a school of quite a different character. With this change of school comes the disturbance of a boy's mind caused by the new surroundings and conditions. Often he is away from home for the first time. There are new methods of teaching inseparable from these different conditions. This change comes just at the critical period when, on the Frankfurt plan, the most important work is being done. It is quite conceivable that the Public schools might take boys by preference who had never learnt Greek, and begin the new subject with the new school. It is surely essential that the elementary stages of Latin should have been finished. Nothing is so striking at Frankfurt as the rapidity and facility of the work. This is the result of the complete mastery which boys and masters alike have of the class system. All the work of the first three years in Gorman and French has, so to speak, broken them in to this. The class of 30 or more (and there are very large classes in some German schools: I have seen classes of 40) works together. This is quite impossible for the first year at a Public school. Boys have to find their place, masters have to get to know the

boys. There is probably no year of a boy's life when he learns so little—on the Frankfurt plan there is no year when it is essential that he should learn so much.

We must now go on to the nature of this preliminary work. For any inquiry into the methods and character of the Latin teaching some discussion of this is essential. On this all are agreed, and no one who has attended the actual work done in the schools can doubt the truth of this. The quickness and effectiveness of their class work can only be explained as the result of the previous discipline and training.

This training is, on the language side, given in German and French. For both languages special grammars have been written which are now generally but not universally used in these reform schools. The grammars are written on a definite plan, and those in French and German are definitely arranged so as to lead up to and prepare for the Latin grammar.

#### TEACHING OF GERMAN.

Now, first as to the German. I have listened to several lessons in German in the lower forms, and I cannot avoid the conclusion that it would be very difficult to do with English what is done with German. We have, indeed, much to learn. Great improvements are possible. No doubt the careful and systematic study of the first elements of English ought to precede that of Latin. The elementary grammatical conceptions, the analysis of the simple sentence and of the easier forms of the complex sentence, the parts of the verb—in all of this a very useful intellectual discipline may be found and a training which, if rightly given, will be a great, indeed a necessary, help to the study of Latin.

But if we accept this we are still met by the difficulty that English grammar is not German grammar. The absence of grammatical gender, the absence of cases alone, makes an enormous difference. If one hears German boys learning their Latin declensions one is at once reminded that the idea of a declension is nothing new to them. They have already systematically learnt the declensions in their own language. We are told, *e.g.*, that when they begin Latin the ablative case is the one which interests them most, as it is the one they did not know before. There is nothing strange to them in the agreement of the adjective, or the rules governing the agreement of the relative. All these matters, so unfamiliar, so full of difficulty to an English boy, come naturally to them.

To take, *e.g.*, the difference between a predicate and an attribute—as soon as a German begins learning his own grammar the distinction is forced upon him, owing to the rules for the declension of the adjective. The use of these terms must become as obvious as, *e.g.*, singular and plural. I do not see how, in teaching English Grammar, we can make the word

"attribute" appear anything but a useless and artificial encumbrance.\*

Moreover, even in those matters in which English is an equal or superior instrument from the point of view of grammatical structure, the rules of expression are in German more precisely formulated. The sentence itself is more complex and the rules for its structure are more easily taught. The relations of its parts are more systematised. I have heard most illuminating dictation lessons in which the whole question of punctuation was systematically expounded as an essay in the application of the analysis of the sentence. It is just because of this elaborate structure of the sentence that punctuation in German is according to precise laws which everyone knows. We cannot teach it in English in the same way, because it is much more a matter of individual preference. Again, we have in English a subjunctive mood, which we all use sometimes. One might in vain ask for a precise exposition of the rules which govern the use of the subjunctive. In German they have it. Every boy is taught it, and thereby he is quite prepared when the time comes to deal with the rules governing the use of the subjunctive in Latin.

All these points are fully worked out in the teaching. The course of work for these first three years includes, *e.g.*, the whole theory of the analysis of the compound sentence, the different kinds of subordinate sentence, subject and object clauses, a full analysis of the different kinds of adverbial sentence, the distinction between indirect statements, questions, and wishes. They are taught to observe the difference between an indirect statement in which the subordinate sentence has the form of a principal sentence, and one in which the oblique subjunctive is used, as, *e.g.*, in *Du denkst, es geht so weiter*, and *Du denkst, es gehe so weiter*. In this way they become acquainted with the whole of the difficult abstract grammatical terminology, and recognise the meaning of this terminology in connection with the language which they are themselves always using. We may say that they find out that they are always speaking grammar, and that these expressions so strange and menacing are really the names of things which they themselves are always using. I need not point out how much this will reduce the difficulty of learning Latin grammar. Half of this in the old days came from the fact that boys had to learn the phenomena of a strange language at the same time that they learnt this even more strange process of linguistic analysis.

All the older Latin grammars are indeed written on the assumption that when the boys begin learning Latin they know no grammar at all. They explain not only how the Latin expresses the subject and the object, but what a subject and an

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\* On the other hand, there are some points on which English is a better help to Latin than German. This is especially the case with the tenses. German boys are much troubled by the absence of an imperfect. While the German past tense, *ich sang*, is used for the aorist and imperfect, the Latin has one form for the imperfect and another for the aorist and perfect.

object are. They seem to assume that the boy has never heard even of a noun and a verb. It is I think generally agreed now in theory that at least the elementary grammatical conceptions—the parts of speech and the analysis of the simple sentence—should be known before Latin is begun, though even this is often not attained in practice; the Frankfurt books, as will be seen, go much further than this, and expect a knowledge of the whole of the analysis of the compound sentence.\*

How much of this we can adopt must still be a matter of experiment. We can hardly continue to content ourselves with the attitude of mind still adopted by most classical masters: "We do not know any English grammar, we never learnt it ourselves, and why should the boys do so?"

I do not wish now to discuss how far this kind of grammatical training assists in the correct and idiomatic writing of one's own language. There is much English now written which makes one desire some more formal treatment of it. Of one thing there can be no doubt—the boy who has gone through this before he is 12 is prepared at once to plunge into his Latin grammar in a way which an English boy who has not had this training cannot hope to imitate.

The first thing that those must do who wish to introduce the Frankfurt scheme into England is to make a very careful study of the early teaching of English and the necessary limitations of English grammar. This, if it is to be successful, must be undertaken by those who have both a high standard of accurate scholarship and a wide knowledge of English usage. The first thing to be done would be to write English grammar. What can be done with it we do not know, for there has been little organised attempt to use it in schools of the highest type. The real difficulty is that, as soon as one passes beyond the most elementary stage, English grammar becomes exceedingly difficult, and also apparently quite unimportant. It does not in itself contain an explanation of its own phenomena, they can only be explained by comparison with a more highly inflected language (as *e.g.* Latin) or by a knowledge of the history of the language which is quite impossible for young boys.

The difference between the two languages is however not limited to grammar, it extends to the vocabulary. German is not only very rich in abstract words, but these words are self-explained even to those who know no language but German. For the expression of the most complex and abstract ideas it is possible to depend on words built up from simple roots by known and regular laws. We have only to call to mind such words as *Eigenschaft* — *unvergleichbar* — *Staatswissenschaft* — *Entwicklung* and to compare them with their English equiva-

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\* They are trained to distinguish the subtle difference between an indirect question and a relative attributive sentence, *e.g.* *Wer das gethan hat (das) ist mir unbekannt*, and *wer das gethan hat (der) ist mir unbekannt*. (*Quis id fecerit mihi ignotum est*, and *qui hoc fecit mihi ignotus est*.) See Prigge, *Deutsche Satz- und Formen Lehre*, compared with Keinhardt, *Lateinische Satzlehre*.

lents to see how a German boy in acquiring his own language will inevitably acquire a more systematic, orderly, formal habit of mind than will an English boy. The English language may be much superior as an organ of expression—the German is certainly superior as an instrument of school training.

A German boy who has learnt no Latin will by the age of twelve have made much more progress than will an English boy just in those points in which Latin is of most service. That is to say the absence of Latin will not make so much difference to him as it will to an English boy.

I may exaggerate this, but at any rate this is what I wrote down before leaving the room after listening to a German lesson in Quarta and to a Latin lesson in Untertertia.

The teaching of German includes not only grammar but literature. In this the chief method which I noticed was that much practice is given to the boys in repeating the substance of the passages read in school. If a poem is read it is then required that one or more boys should in their own words give a clear and correct statement of the contents of it. Like all work of this kind, it is done *viva voce*. It has very great advantages. It accustoms a boy from the earliest times to look at each poem or prose passage that they read as a whole. They are trained in oral expression. It is certainly superior to the rather purposeless paraphrasing that was till recently so common in English schools. The practice thus gained is of special value when they come to read long and difficult works in foreign languages. It is, when the time comes, at once applied to their classical work, and finds its highest use when a boy is reading a dialogue of Plato or a speech of Cicero. He has always been trained to ask himself what it is that his author is wanting to say, what is the essential point of the narrative or argument. It is especially valuable as a corrective to the very fragmentary and imperfect knowledge which comes, in England, from the misuse of repetition. With us a boy will learn by heart a few stanzas of a poem of which too often he will not have read the whole. In Germany he will perhaps not learn so much by heart but he will be able to tell us what the whole is about. It is a practice which may of course easily be overdone and misapplied. It easily leads to a rather pedantic and academic form of criticism, in which the purpose and structure of a poem receive more attention than the execution; and indeed in Germany, as in England, too many of the poems read in school can only be called poetry by courtesy. One wonders why, when there is so much good poetry to be learnt, school anthologies (till quite recently) included so much bad poetry. It is, however, especially valuable as a preparation for classical work. It is never so easy to forget the whole and remember only the part as in reading slowly and painfully a difficult work in a foreign language. If the habit has once been formed, when reading one's own language, of always keeping in mind the connection of the whole, it is easy to keep it up in reading other languages. In England this habit is never learnt

at all. Too often the boy never grasps at all the general purport of the book he reads, it scarcely occurs to him that it has one. In Germany the boy, when he passes on to Cæsar and Vergil, constantly applies the method he learnt in his first school years, and this is one reason for the superiority of the translation lessons in most German schools to those one hears in England.

The German boy does then from these three years learn much which helps him to set to work at Latin with more facility than our English boys can.

#### TEACHING OF FRENCH.

In addition to German he has, however, learnt French. It is on this three years' course in French that Dr. Reinhardt lays the greatest stress. I am afraid that I cannot say anything about the details of this French course. I was not able to see many lessons in it. This, however, may be said. French is taught with the same seriousness and thoroughness which is given to Latin. It receives six hours a week for three years. By the time they are 13 the boys have learnt a large part of their French syntax, and are reading authors such as Molière. They have got on so far that they can use it for comparison with Latin, and are able to observe and use the rules of French syntax.

I saw sufficient to convince me that the work varies much in different schools. I saw some lessons which were what we should call very old-fashioned, purely grammatical work based on rules, reading, and translation. It is, however, the avowed desire of these reform schools that in teaching French the grammatical side should be strongly developed, and translation into German from French (contrary to the precepts of the more advanced school of modern language teaching) plays an important part from the beginning. So does formal grammar. Of course there is careful teaching in the oral use of the language, but as I understand it in the reformed Gymnasium the direct method, the conversational part, plays a less important part than it does in some of the other schools.\*

This is clearly brought out by Ziehen:—"I must clearly separate Reinhardt and his colleagues from a circle of reformers for whom the Alpha and Omega of instruction in modern languages is the greatest possible absorption of the individuality of the German boy in an English or French spirit. This reform movement, the ideal of which seems to be that a German should be able to converse with a foreigner, *e.g.* an Englishman, on English customs, entirely from the point of view of an Englishman, in an English which has, if possible, been filtered through a phonetic machine, not only finds no favour in Director Reinhardt's scheme, but it is positively excluded

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\* This would not apply to the Muster-Schule at Frankfurt.

from it. Much as this scheme lays stress on speaking the foreign language, it always requires that the foreign language should by translation be compared with the mother tongue."\*

We have then this three years' course in German and French, and there is no doubt that boys who have passed through it are very well equipped to plunge at once with exceptional energy into an intensive study of Latin.

It may be well to point out that any attempt to introduce the whole scheme into England would not necessarily be based on French. There would be much to be said for beginning with German rather than with French. In this way we should at least get over the difficulty of not using an inflected language till so late. For Germans the learning of French is a most useful step towards the vocabulary of Latin. We do not require that so much, as English is itself so rich in words of Latin origin.

All writers lay stress on the importance of this previous work in French and German. "The scholar has by the instruction in Sexta and Quinta got an inductive knowledge of a number of syntactical rules and conceptions which in Quarta are systematically joined so as to give a general knowledge of the simple and compound sentence. On this basis of linguistic knowledge, the pupil, when he gets to Untertertia, is soon able to work out independently a rational translation of the Latin period. . . . It is above all necessary that the Latin master should have an accurate knowledge of the rules of German and French grammar as the boys have learnt them in the three previous years."† It was therefore necessary to find a form for the three years' work in French which would make this suitable for giving a sure foundation for learning the ancient language.

#### TEACHING OF LATIN.

This account of the work done in the lower forms will prepare us for a consideration of the nature of the Latin teaching itself, and especially as to the grammar teaching. Now, on the objects and character of this, there is no room for doubt. The object is quite definitely to give the boy a logical coherent understanding of the structure of language. Let those who wish to understand the spirit of the teaching read a short sketch by Dr. Wulff, who took the chief part in working out the scheme of Latin teaching and has written the text books now in use.

"Of quite special importance is the advantage which comes from the more advanced intellectual maturity of the pupil, for the introduction into the systematic syntactical structure of the Latin language. As the learning of Latin has lost its former practical importance for life, it must if it is not to lose its value as a principal factor in education, preserve more than it formerly did the aim of formal training. Latin grammar is not used

\* Ziehen (Julius). *Der Frankfurter Lehrplan und seine Stellung innerhalb der Schulreformbewegung*, p. 6. (Leipzig, 1900.)

† Wulff (J.). *Der Lateinische Anfangs-Unterricht im Frankfurter Lehrplan*, pp. 14-15. (Leipzig, 1902.)

merely to assist reading, it is an end in itself. Both in the Gymnasium and also in the Realgymnasium Latin has above all other languages the task of providing a formal foundation for general linguistic and scientific education. The more logically and theoretically complete (*rationeller*) the grammatical instruction is, the better will this task be fulfilled. For one of the chief reasons for introducing the Frankfurt scheme was that Latin teaching should not begin till a logical and theoretical instruction was possible.\*

Now it is a recognised and deliberate result of this that the teaching at Frankfurt is directly and deliberately opposed to those methods which we in England regard as reformed methods.

If we look at any of the more modern books of Latin now used in English schools we shall find that they all have this in common, that they try to bring about a large practice and acquaintance with the use of the forms and rules before any attempt is made at systematic and theoretical work. In many of them we can trace the influence of new methods used in the teaching of modern languages. The reformed method of modern language teaching in its most complete form is based on what is called the direct method, *i.e.*, an attempt is made to associate the names of things and actions in the foreign language not with the English equivalents but with the actual things and actions. The first study of the new language is therefore based not on the written but on the spoken language. Conversation comes before reading, vocabulary before grammar, reading before translation. The first acquaintance with the language is empirical, systematisation comes later—if it comes at all.

This reform has had great influence on classical work. All our new books show the influence of it. In some cases one sees the attempt to apply it in its extreme form; the first lessons in Latin are given with pictures and conversations based on pictures. Nearly all offer as their first material prolonged and frequent practice in the use of very simple Latin, in which the words and ideas are not those taken from the classical authors of Rome, but those which are familiar to and within the daily use of the pupils.

Now it must be clearly understood that, whether rightly or not, the whole effort of the Frankfurt school is deliberately opposed to this.

So far is it from being the fact that the reform schools are identical with the reformed methods of teaching that the two movements are to a certain extent in opposition to one another, and this is none the less the case that the most brilliant exponent of reformed modern language teaching is also director of the reform Realgymnasium at Frankfurt.

This is clearly explained by Dr. Ziehen himself, who is, with Dr. Reinhardt, the chief organiser of the reform schools.

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\* Wulff (J.), *op. cit.*, p. 9.

"From the beginning it has been a great disadvantage to the Frankfurt scheme, and still is a disadvantage to it, that it is connected and even confused with the endeavours of the modern language reformers. . . .

"We Frankfurters find from inquiries addressed to us and also occasionally from foreign visitors that people come to us to see in actual practice the most extreme reforms of language teaching which have been so much discussed and praised. Praised indeed, and let us honestly acknowledge it, much praise has been publicly given to the Frankfurt scheme which really belongs to a movement which has nothing to do with that scheme and is indeed rather opposed to and injurious to it."\*

It is opposed to and injurious to the Frankfurt method because this is based on the belief that the boys having learnt French and German grammar will now be able at once to master as a science the rules of Latin syntax. Not only this, but they require from the earliest stages a conscious comparison of the structure of the different languages.

This opposition of the two methods is not accidental, it is essential. It meets us in every part of the work, it is insisted on in all the text books and in all the explanatory works. It is an essential part of the arrangement by which Latin is begun later.

There can be no doubt that much of the failure of Latin teaching has in the past arisen from the fact that young boys of 8 or 9 from the very first lessons in Latin were expected to learn technical terms of grammar which it was quite impossible they could understand. It is not necessary to dwell on this. We all suffered from it when we were boys, innumerable boys are still suffering from it. Probably it was even worse in Germany just because German teaching has always tended to be more thorough, and one may say more pitiless, than English. It is because this is now recognised that the new regulations lay so much stress on inductive teaching. I have, however, heard lessons in un-reformed schools which show that the fault has not yet been eradicated—lessons in which the amount of new grammatical forms and rules to be mastered in the first year was much beyond what a boy of 9 could really in any way assimilate. It is most difficult to overcome the belief that when something is learnt it must from the first be learnt thoroughly and completely, and must be learnt with a full understanding of the theory.

In one excellent school Sexta consisted of a class of 40 boys. The book used was Perthes, the theory of which is that the work is to be taken inductively. In the first year they were expected to learn practically the whole of the regular accidence. Forms such as the imperfect subjunctive passive were being learnt long before the boys could in any natural way have come to see the use of them. The use of the different tenses was being explained in what seemed for this stage an unnecessarily abstract manner. The sentences used were quite isolated; there was no real attempt to allow the boys to read simple stories written in a manner suitable for their age.

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\* Zischen (Julius), *op. cit.*, p. 5.



for reading an easy author, we have in the two lowest classes to use in a very extended manner artificial material for applying and using what has been learnt. Yes, and what is still worse, the syntactical instruction in preparation for the connected reading must, if it is not to go beyond the intellectual horizon of the pupil, assume a character which more or less contradicts the results of scientific investigation (*einen höchst elementaren, den wissenschaftlichen Ergebnissen mehr oder weniger widersprechenden Character annehmen*)."

It is clearly very difficult for a German schoolmaster to acquiesce in this, and to allow the boy to use the language without understanding the scientific theory of it. We are not distressed if the knowledge in the younger years is not scientific. On the other hand the carelessness and indifference to a complete scientific explanation is in England so ingrained that however late we put off Latin we shall probably always teach it empirically and not scientifically.

#### LATIN READING BOOKS.

We might trace this contrast in many directions. Let us take the question of reading. We see that the whole principle on which Reinhardt works is that Cæsar is the starting-point for reading. All before this is mere preparation. Now, in England, all the latest development is to fill up this preparatory period with specially prepared books suitable for the age and abilities of the pupils. In all of them we find the same effort—to use simple Latin to express ideas familiar to and within the ordinary horizon of the pupil. We find elaborate stories and conversations based on the school life of boys of the present day. Generally the ideas and matter are entirely modern. If they are taken from ancient authors or ancient life the treatment is modernized and brought down to what seems to adults to be the level of a child's mind. Sometimes we move in a sphere similar to that of the child's column in one of our halfpenny papers. When this stage is passed we have a number of excellent reading books in which there are consecutive narratives from ancient authors (generally from Livy), just so much altered that while the spirit and character of the original is maintained the difficulties are very carefully graded. Other readers introduce at a very early stage some of the most attractive of shorter Latin poems. There are very charming and interesting selections possible from writers such as Pliny. More use is now being made of later Latin authors. Why should not boys begin their acquaintance with Latin by reading passages from the Vulgate? There is much of Erasmus that can be used. For English boys stories from Bede and, perhaps, from such other of the chronicles as are not too bad Latin, can be used. In this direction there is opportunity for a wide field of reading before the serious study of Cæsar begins. Now the Frankfurt scheme leaves no place for this. We find, indeed, in the reading book used, a few of the inevitable stories

and fables which belong to no time or place—the husbandman and his three sons, the lion and the fox. There are the ordinary stories of Themistocles and Mithridates and Aristides, but the whole is avowedly merely a series of exercises in grammar.

I should like here to enter a protest against what seems to me a most serious misuse of this method. I mean the simplified Cæsar which is so commonly used. To take the stories from the early books of Livy, to alter and simplify them, keeping the general drift and vocabulary, seems to me to be quite suitable and useful. There is no special importance in the special language in which these stories are told. Livy's own words have no importance or significance. So far as they have any special characteristics, it is merely rhetorical embroidery. It is quite different with Cæsar. Every word of Cæsar has the incomparable value that it is historical truth. This is above all the case with his description of the invasion of Britain. Here we have an historical narrative of the greatest interest and importance told with the utmost precision. This is, moreover, the first piece of history from original sources which most school boys will read. It is very simple, and the problems are just those which can interest them. It is surely an unpardonable crime to use this as it is now generally used in English schools, to cut it up into short sentences, prune, alter, and simplify it so as to take away from it the stamp of serious narration of an interesting story and make of it a mere grammatical exercise. It is similar to the principle by which children now read *Ivanhoe* in epitome, and *Robinson Crusoe* is made interesting. They read Cæsar's narrative distorted, neglecting the story, and afterwards learn an account of his invasion of Britain from a school text book, and then we are surprised that they show no interest in or understanding of history.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING.

This leads us on to two points of method, viz., the conversational method and the inductive method.

##### *The Conversational Method.*

Now with regard to the first we must make a distinction between conversational method and oral teaching. Much harm is, I think, done by a confusion between the two. By the conversational method I mean the attempt to use Latin to talk about common things. Generally this amounts to nothing more than a few phrases the use of which does little good or harm, as, e.g., that class orders should be given in Latin, as *surgite, aperite libros*; it may take the form of conducting the class in Latin; we may have the whole paraphernalia of the direct method, and the initial stages be based on questions arising out of a picture. This is becoming not uncommon in girls' schools in England. These methods may in clever hands be of great value, more often

they merely result in the waste of a great deal of valuable time.\* What is now to the point is to remember that they are not the Frankfurt methods.

What we do find there, however, is something often confused with this, but in reality very different, *i.e.*, a great deal of oral teaching. Oral, I say, but not conversational. The fact that sentences to be translated from or into Latin are done *viva voce*, the fact that a boy will be asked to give in his own words in Latin the substance of a chapter of Livy that he has read, must not obscure the difference. In this case the vocabulary acquired, the form of the sentence, the ideas expressed, are entirely literary—if we may use a paradox, it is written work done *viva voce*.

There can be no doubt that the most serious fault in most English schools is that there is not nearly enough oral teaching.† The exercises illustrating the grammar are usually taken, if not exclusively, at least chiefly in writing. Most masters use *viva voce* work for translation into English from Latin, but in almost all cases what translation or practice in the grammatical rules is done is simply the translation of the examples found in the book done with the book open. A German master in hearing a lesson, whether it be the learning of a declension or a conjugation, will not confine himself to hearing the boy say the paradigm; he will, with books closed, take a large number of examples, the majority of which he invents himself, but all of which will be based on the reading book in use. The answer has to be given at once *viva voce*. A quarter of an hour or twenty minutes will be spent in this, so that at the end not only the learning by heart of the rule will have been tested, but the ability rapidly and promptly to use the forms or to apply the rule learnt. No written work is ever given until this has been done, and written work is subsidiary to, and subsequent to, this. I do not think that there can be any doubt that by this is ensured a better command of the language and a quicker power of applying what is learnt. The work done in class is not merely a test whether the boy has learnt a set amount of work, but is the most valuable means of ensuring that he understands and will permanently remember what he has learnt.

In England the chief object of the work in school has been disciplinary, the master finds out whether the boy has learnt his lesson. In Germany it is educational.

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\* "A boy may be told twenty times that the verb in a subordinate question is in the subjunctive mood, and yet continue to make mistakes. But if he be answered by the words *nescio quid dicas* every time he expresses himself inaudibly, he will soon begin to obey the rule."—*The Teaching of Latin*, by W. H. S. Jones. In this sort of way conversational methods may be used to supplement, help, and illustrate the other part of the work—in modern languages they form the basis of it, which is a very different thing.

† The use of oral teaching is found in German schools in all subjects. It is specially noticeable, *e.g.*, in the early stages of Arithmetic teaching, in which oral work occupies most of the time.

*The Inductive Method.*

Now in regard to the inductive method also we must distinguish different things that are often confused.\*

If it means that we should gradually get accustomed to the use of the language—it may be by reading, it may be by talking—and that then the boys should collect from what they have read the grammatical rules, then it is certainly not the Frankfurt method. For the accidence this is distinctly laid down by Dr. Wulff: "An inductive treatment of the case forms and personal endings is not suitable for Tertia and wastes time. Here the paradigm is given to the boys from the beginning and they are taught to build up the forms from the stem and the termination."†

In matters of syntax it is indeed the general canon that examples should come before the rule.‡ The work in translation should always be rather more advanced than that in grammar and composition, and the difficulty which a rule explains should always be presented to the boy before the rule.

A boy comes across the ablative absolute in his translation several times before the systematic explanation of the rule is given. When the time for the rule comes, then, for an illustration, he is referred back to the different examples that he has already had. So also with such a matter as the accusative and infinitive. A boy will come across this for the first time in his translation. It will then be noted as something new; he will see also that this is an objective sentence stating a fact. After this will come the lesson in which the rule for expressing this kind of sentence will be dealt with. The Frankfurt reading and translation books are most carefully arranged so as to secure this. This would appear to be self-evident, were it not a principle that is constantly violated. With us it is too often the case that a boy never hears of the ablative absolute until he is introduced to it in a lesson on it which comes to him completely without motive or cause. It is not a lesson explaining difficulties with which he is already acquainted, and the solution of which is becoming a necessity if he is to translate the Latin narrative he has had before him. The other principle is that the statement of each rule should be accompanied by numerous examples done at once orally in class—again an obvious principle, but one which is still too often neglected when a book like the primer is used, and the boy learns the rule, with one or two illustrative examples, by heart.

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\* It may seem that I am attaching too much importance to nomenclature. I am sure, however, that much harm is done, especially among inexperienced and conscientious teachers, by the careless use of words such as this. This is particularly the case in England, where so many masters have to begin their work without any opportunity of observing what is done by others; and we have also to consider the influence on language teaching of what is called the heuristic method. This method may be possible in science—of this I am no judge; what I contend is that the application to language work requires most careful handling.

† Wulff (J.), *Der lateinische Anfangs-Unterricht*, p. 8, note. (Leipzig, 1902.)

‡ See *The Teaching of Latin*, by W. H. S. Jones, p. 38. "Examples first, rule afterwards, then more examples. The mind must have material before it can appreciate a generalisation."

Now just as oral teaching is often confused with conversational work, so I think that when the expression "the inductive method" is used what is often meant is the combination of these two principles—(1) that a grammatical difficulty should not be taught until the boy has come across it in his reading, *i.e.*, the rule should be given as the explanation of a difficulty of which the boy is conscious; and (2) that the learning of the rule should be accompanied by numerous examples. To most, these principles will appear so obvious that they will exclaim in surprise that it is not necessary to go to Germany to learn this. I wish I could feel that this was a just interjection. My own experience is that, whatever the theory may be, the practice in England still requires much alteration.

Now what one finds at Frankfurt is that the whole course is most carefully worked out so as to get the full and thorough application of these principles combined with the most excellent oral teaching. It is this rather than the precise details of the course which seems to me most important. Of course, as every schoolmaster will see, this is to a great extent a question of text books, and one of the most important works has been to bring out a series of books specially adapted for the pupils of these schools. Many of our difficulties come from the fact that text books written for one kind of school are used in another, text books written by an experienced teacher who uses one method are used by others who teach on another method. Now at Frankfurt the whole is worked out consistently. The books have been put together by men who have taught in the schools; they are in each detail adapted as nearly as possible to the precise needs of the particular class of boys learning this particular system. It is this deliberate purpose, this thinking out the best means to bring about the end, which explains the success of the scheme. It is this which enables the boys to get through so much Latin in the time.\*

The whole method will be best explained by an extract from Wulff's book.†

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\* Whether all this is in the highest sense good for the boys is a very different thing. We can easily have too much good class teaching. One of the masters at one of the schools at Frankfurt said to me that he thought the boys were taught too much. Boys should not always be taught. They should be let alone a good deal and allowed to learn. I am not asking that every lesson should be one of these vigorous lessons in which the whole class works together. They have plenty of other devices in these German schools. What we do want is that this element of work should be represented, and that when done it should be well done.

† I need not apologise for giving an illustration published by the teacher himself rather than one from my own observation. It is very difficult when one spends only one or two days, and in that time tries to get an idea of the working of a large school from top to bottom, to take away a complete record of just that lesson which is of most value. It is in fact not until after one's visit to the school is over that one sees exactly what it is of which one wants the complete record. I should say, however, that I heard lessons identical in method to this, and that I select this after much searching through the books because it illustrates that which made most impression on my mind.

The lesson is taken from the seventy-second paragraph of the reading book. It would, *i.e.*, be taken towards the end of the first year's work. There are 103 passages, and the book is finished well within the year. An exercise of Latin into German has been done in one lesson; the next lesson will begin with a revision.

"As an example of the method I will take a sentence: *Id responsum (Apollinis) quo valeret, cum intellegeret nemo, Themistocles persuasit civibus consilium esse Apollinis, ut urbe relicta navibus se defenderent hostibus.* In going over this (with books shut) the master asks a boy to translate the following sentence: "It was the advice of Apollo that they should leave the city and defend themselves against the enemy by sea." The boy first points out that the subordinate sentence is a subject sentence expressing a wish,\* and then translates: *Consilium erat Apollinis, ut urbem relinquerent et navibus se defenderent ab hostibus.* Then after previous examples have been recalled—*ut urbe relicta, etc.* Then the sentence is enlarged "Themistocles persuaded the Athenians that it was the advice of Apollo," etc. The boy knows quite well from numerous previous exercises that subject and object sentences dependent on verbs of saying, if they contain a statement, are rendered in Latin by the accusative and infinitive. Next the master gives a sentence: "No one knew what was the meaning of the answer of Apollo" (dependent object sentence containing a question: therefore *nemo intellexit quo responsum Apollinis valeret*).

"Question.—What is the logical relation of this sentence to the previous one? Answer.—It gives the reason. Question.—How then can we connect the previous sentence to it so as to make it a co-ordinate sentence? Answer.—By "therefore"; *itaque Themistocles, etc.* Question.—In the reader we do not have this, but the sentence is made a subordinate one. How is this done? Answer.—An adverbial sentence giving the reason, introduced by *cum*, is placed first. Finally the master asks, Who can repeat the whole sentence from memory? and he will certainly get plenty of offers to do so."†

It is work of this kind, continued steadily throughout the whole of the first year, which assures not only that the boys know their work but have their knowledge constantly ready for use. The answers have to be prompt and quick.

It will also be clear that boys who have gone through this drill based chiefly on isolated sentences, will be able to tackle Cæsar with a quickness and intelligence which enables them to get over the ground quickly. They have got so far before they begin Cæsar that all but the worst of the Cæsarean periods have little terror for them.

The practice they have had in work of this kind also enables them when they are reading Cæsar or other authors easily to give

\* This is easy to him because of the thorough drill in the analysis of the German sentence which he has gone through.

† Wulff (J.), *Der lateinische Anfangs-Unterricht*, pp. 16-17.

in their own words a short statement of the contents of any chapter that has been read. Each lesson is begun by a short recapitulation in Latin of the previous work which serves to test their remembrance of the vocabulary and their understanding of the general purport of the passage.

Then perhaps once a week the boys have to write a composition. This will, however, also be based immediately on what they have read. Sometimes this will be what is called an extemporale, *i.e.*, the master reads out the German, they write down the Latin. This is a very difficult exercise, for which there is generally special preparation. At other times a passage will have to be translated at home.

This is, at least for the early stages, a much better introduction to the use of the language than our "composition." At quite an early stage our boys are put on to proses, generally done from a book which has no connection at all with the prose author that is being read. Latin for the words has to be found, not by appealing to the memory of the passage just read, but from a vocabulary at the end of the book. This is, indeed, the great fault of much of our work—the boys do not learn to write Latin by observing and remembering what they read.\* One great advantage which comes from this constant oral work is that it enables the translation lessons to be taken with much more ease than they can be in other schools. The translation lesson should surely be the most attractive and interesting of all classical work. How often do we, however, find that this is not the case! The reason often is that the boys have not been drilled and accustomed to doing work quickly in class. The lesson is not one in which the class as a whole is trying with the help of the master to get the best translation of the author, it is one in which the master is trying to find out whether each boy has learnt his lesson.

The work done during these two years, 12–14, is in so many ways, if not the most important, at least the most difficult part of the course, that I have left myself very little space to speak of the rest of the curriculum. It is in the last four years, and especially in the last two, that we are to get our compensation for what is given up earlier. Just as in *Tertia* we get the concentration on the beginnings of Latin, so in *Secunda* and *Prima* we have the concentration on classics as a whole.

Now as to this, first of all there is one point which has naturally attracted attention. Greek is begun in *Untersecunda*. In most schools, however, a large number of boys leave as

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\* It would be foolish to dispute the very great value of Latin prose composition in view of the remarkable consensus of opinion to be found among experienced school masters. I am, however, quite sure that when, as often happens, boys are put down to do Latin prose of some difficulty before they have any real knowledge of Latin, they get much positive injury from it. Latin prose should be regarded as an extremely difficult task, requiring much help and preparation and suitable only for clever boys.

soon as they have passed out of this form, for then they have won their exemption from two years' military service. It seems clearly to follow from this that these boys should not learn Greek at all. To begin it for one year and then drop it is indefensible. This has been foreseen, and has by some been regarded as one of the great blots on the scheme. It is a part that would fit in well with our system. In at least one school that we visited it was recognised as a great advantage. The institution contained two divisions, a classical and a modern, and only those went on to the classical side who wished to complete the full course.

The next point we must discuss is the amount of this compensation that we get—is it sufficient, and what is the standard of work reached in the highest forms.

#### TEACHING OF OTHER SUBJECTS.

This has two aspects, a comparison with the normal German school and a comparison with our own schools. The last point is dealt with by Mr. Fletcher. I will content myself by saying that in the best of the Frankfurt schools it was not possible during our visit to notice any essential differences between the work done there and that of the ordinary *Gymnasium*. Perhaps there is a greater tendency to read in masses, to think more of the amount of ground covered than the perfection of the work at each stage—that tendency to which I have already referred. If we look at the general character and bulk of the work done there is no doubt that the boys get up to what we may call a thoroughly good sixth form standard, different from ours in many ways, better in some—less advanced in others. On the other hand, we cannot feel that the principle of compensation is quite thoroughly or fairly carried out. There are three special points on which this may be suggested. The course in history, that in French, and that in Mathematics and Science.

The treatment of history is just the same in the Frankfurt schools as in the others. In them also we get the one year's course on Ancient history in *Obersecunda* followed in *Prima* by two years given to modern history. In some of the schools in fact the time given to history is three years—the extra hour being used as a general survey of history recapitulatory of what has been done before. In this the course does not represent Reinhardt's original proposals, he had sent in a suggested course by which the arrangement of the history would fit in with the rest of the work of the school. Several of the masters in conversation said that there was some need for alteration in this.

“The great opportunity of getting some marked result was offered by the teaching in history. It is well known that by the reform of 1891, the time given to ancient history in *Obersecunda* was reduced to one half, and at the congress of German historians in 1893 most of the speakers said that in consequence

the historical sense of the boys was seriously injured. Be that as it may be, so much is clear: a school which puts on its programme that it will concentrate the educational elements of classical antiquity in the four upper classes and compensate for the losses in the lower classes by a more complete absorption in the ideas of the ancient world, must give a very prominent place to the instruction in ancient history. Just in this point the principle is violated, though for this Reinhardt is not to blame.\*

The full application of the principle requires then more time for ancient history in the upper forms—this would, of course, imply more time for modern in the middle of the school.

In French also it might be carried out with more courage. If French is begun three years before Latin, if it has six hours a week for three years, does it not follow that it might be dropped altogether at the end of the course. Surely a boy by the time he is 16 should have a knowledge of French sufficient to read with facility any book and a knowledge of the spoken language sufficient to enable him to learn to speak with ease if he wishes to do so. By the hypothesis the advanced literary training is to be given not in French but in Latin and Greek—does it not follow that it should cease to be a school subject. It does not follow that the boys should cease to read French. The knowledge they had would enable them to use French books in connection with any other work on literature or history which they are doing.

The relation of the work in science and mathematics to the literature course also requires consideration. It will now generally be conceded that boys who study Classics must have some elementary grounding in science as well as in Mathematics. This is provided in the Frankfort scheme; in both subjects the course runs on throughout the whole school life. Mathematics begins with five lessons in the lower forms, drops to four in Tertia and three in the higher forms. Science is represented by two hours in all forms up to Obertertia, and by two hours physics in all higher forms. Mathematics but not science is a compulsory subject in the final examination. We come here to a fundamental difference between our system and the German. We are more and more adopting a plan by which at about the age of 16 boys shall take a first examination, and then after that shall be able to drop the study of those subjects on which they do not wish to do advanced work, so as to be free for more specialised work on the others. Now in 1891 the Prussian Government made the beginning of this. They introduced an examination to be taken after Untersecunda, which should form the conclusion of the first part of the school course. No part of the new regulations was so universally condemned, and it had to be abandoned after ten years. May we suggest that some examination of this kind, success in which would free a boy from his bye subjects, is of the essence of the Frankfurt scheme.

\* Cauer (Paul), *Siebzehn Jahre im Kampf um die Schulreform*, pp. 79-80.

One other matter about science. If we are at any stage to have more concentrated work at it, where can this come save in *Tertia*. When Greek has been begun, we can get no time for it. Below the age of 12 systematic study of science is probably not of much use. If, however, the whole of this very exhausting work on Latin is to be taken in *Tertia*, we cannot have the serious work in science confined to these years. All experience shows that really useful work in Latin can be done before the age of 12. Reinhardt confesses that the earliest stages of Latin are generally not unsuccessful. Is it not a general experience that the first year's work in Latin is with good teaching, supposing that the technical difficulties of grammar are not obtruded on the boys, work to which many of them take with real pleasure. The danger of multiplication of subjects and over-pressure afterwards is so great that we cannot afford to miss that which can be learnt with ease and success before 12. After all we know that boys can learn their Latin *accidence* then, and if we do not try to teach them too much syntax are we not losing something by deferring this comparatively easy work which, if it is done sensibly with constant reading and easy exercises well arranged, is not distasteful to boys.

There are many such considerations which seem to show that if we are to adopt the spirit of the Reformed Time Table we shall do so best by altering some of the details and allowing the boys to have a three years' course in Latin before they begin Greek, whether the course is to be 11-14 or 12-15.

#### THE REALGYMNASIUM.

A complete discussion of the Reform movement would have included some notice of the Latin work done in the Modern School or Realgymnasium. This would present many points of particular interest to us, for the arrangement of the language course in non-classical schools is at present one of our most pressing difficulties. Especially urgent is the question what part Latin should play in it, and it is just on such a point that we might study with advantage the German system.

The example of Germany would be none the less valuable because in dealing with this the policy of the Prussian Government has so frequently changed. As we have seen in 1882 Latin was given a very prominent place in the Realgymnasium. In 1890 there was a complete change of policy. It was then determined that there was no place for a school of this type in which Latin, French and English were taught side by side. In consequence there was during the next decade a great diminution in the number of Realgymnasien. In 1890 there were 173 with 35,000 pupils; in 1900 there were only 97 with 23,000 pupils. During these years the number of non-Latin schools increased from 29 to 175.

This uncertainty in the policy of the State is a reflection of the wide differences of opinion which exist on this matter in

Germany as is England. These differences were seen in the Conferences of 1890 and 1900. We find great classical scholars such as Mommsen maintaining that it is harmful to teach any Latin in a Modern School; we have a far-sighted philosophical historian such as Paulsen maintaining the essential necessity of of the Realgymnasium. And even among those who would keep Latin in the Modern school there is no agreement as to the length of the course or the period of school life when it is best taken.

We have here what seems to be the most difficult, as it is the most debated, point of Educational Theory, and it is one on which we have much to learn from the experiments and difficulties of our neighbours.

I do not propose to attempt to examine their difficulties and experiments, for a reason which seems to me to be sufficient. Any discussion on this matter should, I suggest, be made by someone who has been able to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the whole course of work in modern languages, modern literature and modern history done in these schools. I have not this knowledge, and without it, it would be misleading and impertinent to attempt the discussion.

Let me explain this more fully. Much confusion arises from forgetting it. The position of Latin on a modern side is too often discussed by those whose first interest is the classics. They inevitably approach the question from the point of view of classical studies. They have in their mind the standard and ideals of the Gymnasium. Hence they either say that the Latin of a Realgymnasium is not worth doing at all, as it cannot approach that to which they are accustomed, or they demand as much time for it as is given in the Gymnasium in order that a similar standard may be attained. It seems too often to be thought that a school of Realgymnasium type is merely a classical school without Greek, it is one that gives an inferior, warped, and maimed classical education. Until we completely get rid of this idea we shall never get further with the problem. This view springs from a wrong notion of what a modern education is. If it is worth having it must be something homogeneous, independent, self sufficient.

In dealing with this matter I make two assumptions: the first is that Latin must be included in a complete modern education. The second is that it must hold a purely subordinate place.

The first of these assumptions is one which is much combated. This is not the place to defend it. I will only point out that in Germany the proposal to abolish the Realgymnasium meant the passing of a law that no one would at school be allowed to learn Latin unless he also learnt Greek. Is it possible to justify this? Is it not to ignore the fundamental differences in the relation of Latin and Greek to modern life? To see this we need only take the test of the lawyer. Greek may or may not be a useful accomplishment to a lawyer, but surely a knowledge of Latin is

a necessity, especially in a country where, as is the case in Germany, the common law is immediately based on the Roman law.

But I should go further than this. I do not think that the proposal to exclude Latin from the Realgymnasium would have found so much support were there not a tacit belief, influencing even those who struggle against it, that a modern education is something of the second rank, imperfect, inferior, not suitable as the preparation for a university course. There was always present the idea that the object of the Modern School was practical utility, not training and culture. Those who maintain that this is not the case, that our modern civilisation can form the basis of a training as wide, as deep, as that of Greece and Rome, that it is as good a preparation for university studies, must work out a course of modern and mediæval language, literature, art, history, philosophy, which shall be not inferior to a classical education in the intellectual ideal by which it is inspired. The aim must be not merely to acquire facility in talking, reading and writing the contemporary languages and literature of the European nations. It must, in the demands that it makes on the intelligence, attention and industry of the boys, not fear comparison with that made by a classical education. It must include writers as difficult in style and manner as Plato, Thucydides, Æschylus and Demosthenes. It must deal with modern civilization as a whole from the days of Charles the Great and the *Nibelungen Lied* just as a classical education takes into account the whole growth of Greek and Roman life and thought from the days of Homer.

Now if we pursue this line of thought, which I can only indicate here, it will, I think, be apparent that Latin cannot be excluded from a Modern School (let me rather say from the humanistic side of a Modern School—all this has nothing to do with the *Realschule*, in which an advanced study of Mathematics and Natural Science takes the first place) but that it must hold a strictly subordinate place. Latin will only be included if and so far as some knowledge of Latin is useful for getting the best results from a study of modern languages.

If this is so we get a principle on which we can criticise our curriculum, but it is a principle which cannot properly be applied by anyone whose knowledge and interest are chiefly in the classics. The first thing to be done is completely to get out of our heads any comparison with the Latin of the *Gymnasium*. A classical man will ask how much Latin do the boys learn, and will approve or disapprove the curriculum according to the proficiency which the boys attain in classics. The real question, however, is not how much Latin have the boys learnt, but is their knowledge of French, German, and English language, thought, and history better because they have learnt some Latin. The answer to this requires a thorough knowledge of the modern work done in the *Realgymnasium* and the *Oberrealschule*, respectively, and a comparison of them. I have not this

knowledge, and cannot therefore attempt to deal with the question.

We may, however, apply the principle to show the kind of criticism that is wanted. Let us look at the time table of the Realgymnasium under the reformed scheme. The boys begin with a thorough grounding in French, then as in the Gymnasium they take up Latin at the age of 12 and for two years work at it with concentrated energy, so that they get a real command of the elements and get on to read Cæsar with facility. At the age of 14 the third language, English, is begun, just as Greek is begun in the Gymnasium, and from this stage the time given to Latin in the modern school is less than that in the classical school. None the less, Latin still has a substantial part of the time and in consequence of this we find that a knowledge of Latin is got considerably greater than that to which we are accustomed in our modern sides. Boys are able to read Tacitus and Horace with some facility and understanding. This is of course excellent. To read Tacitus and Horace is never easy and it must always be a most valuable training. Before we acquiesce in this as a satisfactory solution of the difficulty we must, however, turn to what is the important thing, the modern languages, and inquire how they fare. What we want to know is whether the time taken up by Latin is so great that that available for English and French is too much curtailed. Here we want the help of a modernist. I will confess that when I find that in the highest forms of the *Muster Schule* five hours are given to Latin and only three and four respectively to English and French I feel some apprehension lest Latin may be passing out of the subordinate position we should assign to it and be aspiring to a predominant place in the curriculum. I miss here the spirit of concentration which Dr. Reinhardt has taught us to apply. I seem to find the same fault that we found in the Gymnasium. The words of the Emperor get a new force—the time table seems to be neither one thing nor the other, it is neither classical nor modern. It gives a divided course. Is there not enough Latin to interfere seriously with the modern work but not enough to give it an independent value of its own?

We must then ask how does it stand with the work in English and French. Do these languages get as much time as we should want if we aim at giving not only a thorough colloquial knowledge but also an advanced literary training. Do the boys learn not only to talk and write English but also to understand the spirit of England. Have they a grasp of English literature and thought comparable to that grasp of Greek literature, history and thought which we try to give in a Gymnasium. I should ask do they read not only Shakespeare and Macaulay, but also Milton and Burke, the two authors who are indispensable to those who wish to understand the peculiar characteristics of the English genius. Boys in a Gymnasium will read Plato and Thucydides, will they have read any Clarendon or Berkeley or

Mill? In one most interesting school which I visited, work of this standard was being attempted, but that was an Oberrealschule, and the head master said that it was not possible in a Realgymnasium owing to the pressure on the time table. It is, I believe, now generally recognised that the course of the Realgymnasium is more exacting than that of other types of school. There is then I think some ground for fearing that Latin is passing out of its proper position as a subordinate subject.

I will not pursue the matter further. We want the help of someone who has fully worked out the possibilities of a modern education and can also tell us how nearly these German schools attain to this.

I ought to say that we heard an English lesson in the highest form of the Muster Schule of great interest. It was a lesson on Macbeth, conducted entirely in English, in which the boys showed a remarkable power of expressing themselves in English and also were able to point out with substantial correctness how far the words and expressions used by Shakespeare were still current. The work could not have been better. What is in my mind is that in the case of English and French, just as much as in the case of Latin and Greek, this excellent knowledge of the language should be used, while the boys are still at a fresh and impressionable age, to absorb all that they can of the spirit of the nation in its finest manifestations.

I hope it will not be thought that I have discussed the schools in too critical a spirit. There is, however, a very great danger that must always accompany the observation of that which is done in other countries. It is easy in our admiration for a strange and interesting foreign system to overlook both that which is not quite successful in it, and also that which would not so well suit us. As to the essential merits of Reinhardt's work there can be no doubt. His scheme is, if not the first, certainly the most careful and thorough in which a serious attempt is made to overcome the great difficulties of all modern school work, the difficulties which come from the overcrowding of the time-table. Many of the details of his course are, I think, not suitable for us, because they depend on peculiarities of the German schools which we cannot imitate and which, perhaps, we do not wish to imitate. In others, I venture to suggest that further modifications may be necessary. I am, however, quite clear as to this, that Reinhardt's work must be the starting point from which all further advance must be made, and that all students of education, whether in England or in Germany, are under the highest obligations to one whose work will prove to have been an epoch in the history of higher education.

We have seen that the whole question of the curriculum was inevitably bound up with that of the privileges of the Gymnasium. On this point it became apparent that the settlement of 1891 could not be maintained. Before ten years had passed the Ministry called another conference. Another general discussion took place. This time the mistakes of 1891 were rectified

In the new regulations which were issued it was determined that admission to the University should henceforth be open to those educated at any school of the first grade. The importance of this cannot be over-estimated. For the first time it was possible for each type of school to work out its own problems. It was to lead for a time to the rejection of the theory of the *Einheitsschule*.\*

J. W. HEADLAM.

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\* At the same time some smaller changes were made in the time table and instructions as to the teaching of Classics, and it is significant that several passages in which the inductive method was enjoined were modified. See *Appendix B*, where the two sets of instructions are printed.

## APPENDIX A,

THE PRUSSIAN LEHRPLÄNE OF 1812, 1837, 1882, 1892,  
AND 1901.

## I.—DER LEHRPLAN VON 1812 (SÜVERN).

	VI. (1 Jahr)	V. (1 Jahr)	IV. (1 Jahr)	III. (2 Jahre)	II. (2 Jahre)	I. (3 Jahre)	Summa.
Latein - - - -	6	6	8	8	8	8	76
Griechisch - - - -	-	-	5	5	7	7	50
Deutsch - - - -	6	6	4	4	4	4	44
Mathematik - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	60
Naturwissenschaften - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Geschichte und Geographie -	3	3	3	3	3	3	20
Religion - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	20
Hebräisch - - - -	-	-	-	-	(2)	(2)	(10)
Zeichnen - - - -	3	3	2	2	-	-	10
Kalligraphie - - - -	4	4	-	-	-	-	8
	32	32	32	32	32	32	318

II.—DER LEHRPLAN VON 1837.

Lehrgegenstände.	VI. (1 Jahr)	V. (1 Jahr)	IV. (1 Jahr)	III. (2 Jahre)	II. (2 Jahre)	I. (2 Jahre)	Summa.
Lateinisch . . . . .	10	10	10	10	10	8	86
Griechisch . . . . .	-	-	6	6	6	6	42
Deutsch . . . . .	4	4	2	2	2	2	22
Französisch . . . . .	-	-	-	2	2	2	12
Religionslehre . . . . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Mathematik . . . . .	-	-	3	3	4	4	} 33
Rechnen . . . . .	4	4	-	-	-	-	
Physik . . . . .	-	-	-	-	1	2	6
Philosoph. Propädeutik . . . . .	-	-	-	-	-	2	4
Geschichte und Geographie . . . . .	3	3	2	3	3	2	24
Naturbeschreibung . . . . .	2	2	2	2	-	-	10
Zeichnen . . . . .	2	2	2	-	-	-	6
Schönschreiben . . . . .	3	3	1	-	-	-	7
Gesang . . . . .	2	2	2	2	-	-	10
(Hebräisch) . . . . .	-	-	-	-	(2)	(2)	(8)
	32	32	32	32	30 (32)	30 (32)	280 (288)



(b) *Lehrplan des Realgymnasiums.*

	VI.	V.	IV.	U. III.	O. III.	U. II.	O. II.	U. I.	O. I.	Sa.	Aenderung.
Religion . . . .	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19	-1
Deutsch . . . .	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	27	-2
Latein . . . .	8	7	7	6	6	5	5	5	5	54	+10
Französisch . . .	-	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	34	
Englisch . . . .	-	-	-	4	4	3	3	3	3	20	
Geschichte und Geographie . . .	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	30	
Rechnen und Mathematik . . .	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	44	-3
Naturbeschreibung .	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	12	
Physik . . . .	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	12	-4
Chemie . . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	6	
Schreiben . . . .	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-3
Zeichnen . . . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18	-2
	28	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	280	

## IV.—DIE LEHRPLÄNE VON 1892.

## (a) Lehrplan des Gymnasiums.

	VI.	V.	IV.	U. II.	O. III.	U. II.	O. II.	U. I.	O. I.	Zu- sammen.	Gegen- bis-her.
Religion - - -	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19	±0
Deutsch und Geschichtserzählungen 1	3	4	2	3	2	2	3	3	3	26	+5
Lateinisch - - -	8	8	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	62	-15
Griechisch - - -	-	-	-	6	6	6	6	6	6	36	-4
Französisch - - -	-	-	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	19	-2
Geschichte und Erkunde - - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	26	-2 a. Deutsch.
Rechnen und Mathematik - -	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	34	±0
Naturbeschreibung -	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	8	-2
Physik, Elemente der Chemie und Minera- logie - - -	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	10	+2
Schreiben - - -	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	±0
Zeichnen - - -	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	8	+2
Zusammen -	25	25	28	30	30	30	28	28	28	252	-16

(b) Lehrplan des Realgymnasiums.

	VI.	V.	IV.	U. III.	O. III.	U. II.	O. II.	U. I.	O. I.	Zu- sammen.	Gegen bisher.
Religion . . . .	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19	±0
Deutsch . . . . . 3 und Geschichtserzählungen 1	4	2 1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	28	+1
Lateinisch . . . .											
Französisch . . . .	-	-	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	31	-3
Englisch . . . . .	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	3	3	18	-2
Geschichte . . . . und Erdkunde . . . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	28	-2 s. Deutsch.
Rechnen und Mathe- matik . . . . .	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	42	-2
Naturbeschreibung .	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	12	±0
Physik . . . . .	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	12	±0
Chemie und Minera- logie . . . . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	6	±0
Schreiben . . . . .	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	±0
Zeichnen . . . . .	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16	-2
Zusammen . . . . .	25	25	29	30	30	30	30	30	30	259	-21

## V.—DIE LEHRPLÄNE VON 1901.

## (a) Lehrplan des Gymnasiums.

	VI.	V.	IV.	U. III.	O. III.	U. II.	O. II.	U. I.	O. I.	Zu- sammen.
Religion - - - -	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Deutsch - - - - und Geschichtserzählungen - -	3 4 1	2 3 1	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	26
Lateinisch - - - -	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	68
Griechisch - - - -	-	-	-	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Französisch - - - -	-	-	4	2	2	3	3	3	3	20
Geschichte - - - -	-	-	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	17
Erdkunde - - - -	2	2	2	1	1	1				9
Rechnen und Mathematik -	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	34
Naturwissenschaften - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	18
Schreiben - - - -	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Zeichnen - - - -	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	8
Zusammen - -	25	25	29	30	30	30	30	30	30	259

(b) Lehrplan des Realgymnasiums.

	VI.	V.	IV.	U. III.	O. III.	U. II.	O. II.	U. I.	O. I.	Zu- sammen.
Religion - - - -	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
Deutsch - - - -	3 4 1	2 3 1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	28
und Geschichtserzählungen -										
Lateinisch - - - -	8	8	7	5	5	4	4	4	4	40
Französisch - - - -	-	-	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	20
Englisch - - - -	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	3	3	
Geschichte - - - -	-	-	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	17
Erdkunde - - - -	2	2	2	2	2	1				11
Rechnen und Mathematik -	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	42
Naturwissenschaften - -	2	2	2	2	2	4	5	5	5	29
Schreiben - - - -	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Zeichnen - - - -	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
<b>Zusammen - - -</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>262</b>

## APPENDIX B.

TRANSLATION OF PROGRAMMES OF WORK IN LATIN AND  
GREEK IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE REGULATIONS  
OF 1891 AND 1901.

## PROGRAMME OF 1891.

## LATIN.

## A.—GYMNASIUM.

## (a) GENERAL AIM.

To enable boys to understand the more important Latin classical writers and to give them a linguistic training.

## (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

## VI.—Eight Hours a Week.

Accidence, strictly limited to a study of regular forms excluding deponent verbs. The acquisition, in connection with the reading book, of an adequate vocabulary as a preparation for future reading.

The subject-matter for the reading and exercise book is to be taken mainly from the old legends and history, so that both the contents and language may serve as a first step towards reading Latin authors. It is to contain, as far as possible, connected pieces, first and principally in Latin, then in German, using a similar vocabulary. All the pieces are to be translated in class, at first under the guidance and with the help of the master, but gradually more and more independently; they are then set for repetition at home. Practice in construing and retranslation. Regular exercises for oral and written practice in class are taken from the Latin and German pieces.

Elementary rules of syntax are to be taught indirectly from the text, *e.g.*, constructions of time and place, the ablative of the instrument, and the most usual conjunctions (*cum, quamquam, ut, ne*) and a few rules as to the position of words. Once a week an exercise of half an hour's duration in connection with the reading matter to be done in class. A fair copy of this exercise is to be made. Towards the end of the school-year, instead of this exercise special pieces of translation prepared beforehand in class, to be set as home work.

## V.—Eight Hours a Week.

Revision of the accidence of regular forms, deponent verbs, and a study of the irregular forms, confined to what is strictly necessary. Acquisition of a suitable vocabulary, as in VI., excluding special words not connected with what has been read.

Use of the reading and exercise book, as in VI.

Rules of syntax drawn from the text as required, *e.g.*, accusative and infinitive, agreement of participles, ablative absolute, construction with

## APPENDIX B.

TRANSLATION OF PROGRAMMES OF WORK IN LATIN AND  
GREEK IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE REGULATIONS  
OF 1891 AND 1901.

## PROGRAMME OF 1901.

## LATIN.

## A.—GYMNASIUM.

## (a) GENERAL AIM.

On the firm basis of grammatical training to achieve such understanding of the more important Latin classical writers as shall serve as an introduction to the intellectual life and culture of antiquity.

## (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

## VI.—Eight Hours a Week.

Accidence, confined to a study of regular forms excluding deponent verbs. The acquisition, in connection with the reading and exercise book, of a vocabulary carefully limited and selected as a preparation for future reading.

The vocabulary of the reading and exercise book is to be drawn from those prose writers which will be read in the intermediate stage, and its subject-matter to be taken mainly from the old legends and history, so that a connection may be established both as regards language and contents with the subsequent reading of Latin authors. It is to contain side by side with single sentences, connected pieces, first in Latin then in German, using a similar vocabulary. These pieces are to be translated in class under the guidance of and where necessary with the help of the master, and then set for repetition at home; gradually more and more independent work will be required of the pupil. Constant practice in construing.

As occasion offers, out of the reading matter there are to be evolved and practised, orally and in writing, some elementary rules of syntax (*e.g.*, constructions of time and place, ablative of the instrument, certain prepositions and the most usual conjunctions, *postquam, cum, ut, ne*), and a few rules as to the position of words.

Once a week for correction by the master a written exercise of half an hour's duration, to be done in class, in connection with the reading matter, and as far as may be necessary a fair copy of the same: in the second half-year, instead of this exercise in class, special pieces of translation into Latin, prepared beforehand in class, to be set as home work.

## V.—Eight Hours a Week.

Revision of the accidence of regular forms; deponent verbs; a study of irregular forms, confined to what is strictly necessary. Acquisition of a suitable vocabulary, as in VI.

Use of the reading and exercise book, as in VI. At this stage it contains a considerable number of continuous pieces. Constant practice in construing.

Practice with the accusative and infinitive, the agreement of participles, the ablative absolute. As occasion offers, further syntactical rules will be

names of towns, and a few necessary remarks on style. Oral and written exercises and fair copies as in VI. Alternately with these, special translations, prepared beforehand in class, are set as home work.

#### IV.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading in the first half-year, three hours; in the second, four hours: Cornelius Nepos, or a suitable reading book. In the first half-year the reading is prepared in class. Diligent practice in construing, unseen translation and retranslation.

Peculiarities of style, more important idioms and the distinction in meaning between synonymous words to be learnt incidentally as they occur in reading.

Grammar in the first half-year, four hours; in the second, three hours. Revision of the *accidence*. The most important rules on the use of the *cases*, illustrated by typical examples, taken, as far as possible, from the book that is being read. Syntax of the verb as far as necessary.

Oral and written translations into Latin from an exercise book containing pieces akin to what is being read.

Once a week a short translation into Latin in connection with the reading, either in class or as home work. In addition, three written translations into German in the course of the half-year.

#### U. III.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours): *Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum*.

Guidance in preparation. Careful and frequent practice in construing, unseen translation, and retranslation. Peculiarities of style, etc., etc., as in IV.

Grammar (three hours): Revision of the rules as to *cases*. The chief rules as to moods and tenses. Method of instruction as in IV.

Oral and written translations into Latin from an exercise book based on the *Cæsar*.

Once a week a translation into Latin in connection with what has been read, either in class or as home work. Every six weeks, in place of this work in school, a written translation into German.

#### O. III.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours): *Cæsar, Bellum Gallicum*; *Ovid, Metamorphoses*, from an authorised selection. Guidance in translating in class. Explanation of and practice in dactylic hexameters. Method of reading and exercises as in U. III.

Grammar (three hours): Revision and simplification of the syntax of tense and mood. The remaining chief rules of the syntax of the verb.

Method of instruction, use of the exercise book, and written exercises, as in U. III.

#### U. II.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours): Easier speeches of *Cicero*, selections from *Livy* and *Vergil*—the latter from an authorised selection, giving complete scenes and a general survey of the whole—or from *Ovid*.

derived from the reading matter (*e.g.*, as to the names of towns, the double accusative, the historic perfect).

Every week a written exercise of half an hour's duration to be done in class, or in its place written home work, both as in VI.

#### IV.—Eight Hours a Week.

##### Reading and Grammar, Four Hours Each.

The reading includes the lives of prominent Greek and Roman heroes according to Cornelius Nepos, or from a suitable reading book. As long as is necessary the preparation is done in class; more and more independent work is required of the pupil; occasional exercises in unseen translation.

Constant practice in construing (particularly in the treatment of the accusative and the infinitive and of participial constructions), and in the correct understanding of the relation of principal and dependent sentences.

Incidentally the pupils are to learn from the reading the more important idioms and the distinction in meaning between synonymous words.

Repetition of the accidents, especially of the so-called irregular verbs. As far as they are necessary for the translation of the Latin text, the chief rules on the use of the cases, as well as the more important rules as to the sequence of tense and mood, to be learnt in connection with typical examples taken from the grammar or exercise book.

Translation into Latin from an exercise book in which the pieces in matter and vocabulary are based on the Latin reading material and offer practice in the special grammar work assigned to this class.

Once a week a short written translation into Latin in connection with the reading alternately as a class exercise and as home work. Once in three months a translation into German instead, to be done in school.

#### U. III.—Eight Hours a Week.

##### Reading and Grammar, Four Hours Each.

Reading: *Cæsar's Bellum Gallicum* (I.—IV.).

Guidance in preparation and practice in construing. Occasionally unseen translation. Phrases and synonyms (with their distinctions), as in IV. Under certain circumstances Ovid may be begun in the second half-year. (*See* O. III.)

Grammar: Revision and amplification of the rules as to cases; the chief rules as to moods and tenses.

Translation into Latin from an exercise book, in which subject-matter and vocabulary are based principally on *Cæsar's Bellum Gallicum* and offer opportunity for applying the special grammar work assigned to this form.

Once a week a written translation into Latin alternately as a class exercise and as home work. Once in three months a translation into German instead, to be done in school.

#### O. III.—Eight Hours a Week.

##### Reading and Grammar, Four Hours Each.

Reading: *Cæsar's Bellum Gallicum* (V.—VII.). Instead of this in the second half-year, selected passages from the *Bellum Civile* (*e.g.*, I. 37 ff., II. 23 ff., III. 41 ff.) may be taken; and Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, in carefully chosen selections. Otherwise, as in U. III.

Introduction to Latin poetry; Guidance in preparation as long as necessary. Explanation of and practice in dactylic hexameters; instruction in prosody; certain passages of Ovid to be learnt by heart.

Grammar: Revision and amplification of the syntax of tense and mood. Exercise book and written exercises as in U. III.

#### U. II.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours): *Cicero's* easier speeches (*e.g.*, *pro Sex. Roscio*, in *Catilinam*, *de Imperio Cn. Pompei*). Selections from the first decade of *Livy* (especially I. and II.); *Ovid*, for which may be substituted in the second

Guidance in preparation. Practice in unseen translation and retranslation. Learning by heart of some passages of poetry. Rules of style and the distinction in meaning between synonymous words as they occur in reading.

Grammar (three hours): Revision and amplification. Every week a short translation into Latin in connection with what has been read, either in class, or as home work. Every six weeks, in place of this work in school, a written translation into German.

#### O. II.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading (five hours): Livy and Sallust, with special regard to historical instruction; selected speeches of Cicero; Vergil, from an authorised selection. Regular practice in unseen translation. Some passages from Vergil to be learnt by heart. Rules of style, etc., as occasion demands, as in U. II.

Comprehensive review of the peculiarities of style, and revision of grammar in connection with what is read. Every fortnight a written translation into Latin, alternately in class and as home work. In addition, every six weeks, a translation into German in school. As occasion arises, a Latin summary, solely as a digest of what has been read. (One hour.)

#### U. I.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading (five hours): Tacitus; selections from Cicero's letters and from Horace. Supplementary private reading, particularly from Livy. Regular practice in unseen translation. Learning by heart of some passages from Horace. Study of the necessary rules of style and synonyms.

Every fortnight a translation into Latin in connection with what has been read, alternately in class and as home work. At the same time, every six weeks, a translation into German in class. Revision of rules of grammar and style as they arise out of this written work. Summaries as in O. II. (One hour.)

#### O. I.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading (five hours): As in U. I., only, instead of Cicero's letters, one of the longer speeches. Supplementary private reading, particularly Livy. Practice in unseen translation, etc., as in U. I.

Written work as in U. I. Summaries as in O. II. (One hour.)

### B.—REALGYMNASIUM.

#### (a) GENERAL AIM.

To enable boys to understand the easier passages of the authors read in the highest class, and to give a linguistic training.

#### (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

#### VI.—Eight Hours a Week.

As in the Gymnasium.

#### V.—Eight Hours a Week.

As in the Gymnasium.

half-year Vergil's *Æneid* (see O. II.) Occasionally unseen translation, also from Cæsar.

Guidance in preparation as in III. Passages from Ovid or Vergil to be learnt by heart. Incidentally important phrases are to be learnt and rules of style and the distinction in meaning between synonymous words to be derived from the reading matter.

Grammar (three hours): Revision of the syntax of case, mood and tense. Completion of the syntax of the verb in its chief rules.

Every week a written translation into Latin alternately as class work and home work. In every three months a written translation into German instead, to be done in school.

#### O. II.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (five hours): Selections from Livy's third decade; Cicero's speeches (e.g., pro Archia, pro Ligario, pro Rege Deiotaro, in Cæciliam), also de Senectute; Selections from Sallust; and from Vergil's *Æneid* in self-contained episodes in such a way as to supply a general view of the whole work. Occasionally unprepared translation. Some passages from Vergil to be learnt by heart.

Grammar (two hours): General revision with detailed consideration of the more important and more difficult rules of syntax; methodical instruction in the most striking stylistic peculiarities.

Translation into Latin from an exercise book confined in matters of style to what is most important. Phrases and synonyms already learnt are to be brought together and supplemented.

At least once a fortnight a written translation into Latin as class work or as home work. In every three months a written translation into German, to be done in school.

#### U. and O. I.—Seven Hours a Week in Each Class.

Reading (five hours): Cicero's speeches (e.g., in Verrem IV. or V., pro Plancio, pro Sestio, all with omissions, pro Murena), selections from Cicero's philosophical and rhetorical writings, also from his letters: Tacitus, *Germania* (at least to Chap. 27), also the *Agricola* and parts of the *Dialogus*; selections from the *Annals* (especially those portions dealing with the relations of the Empire with the German peoples) and from the *Histories*; selections from Horace, certain odes to be learnt by heart. Occasionally unprepared translation. Private reading is to be encouraged and directed, especially in the authors read in the lower classes; but it is not to be regarded as compulsory.

Grammar (two hours): As in O. II.

Translation into Latin, written exercises at home and in class as in O. II.

### B.—REALGYMNASIUM.

#### (a) GENERAL AIM.

On the firm basis of grammatical training to obtain an understanding of the easier works of Roman literature.

#### (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

#### VI.—Eight Hours a Week.

As in the Gymnasium.

#### V.—Eight Hours a Week.

As in the Gymnasium.

## IV.—Seven Hours a Week.

As in the Gymnasium.

## U. III.—Four Hours a Week.

Reading (two hours): Cæsar, *Bellum Gallicum*, or from a suitable reader.

Grammar (two hours): Revision of the *accidence* and amplification of the *case syntax*. *Syntax of mood*, so far as is requisite for reading. Practice in written and oral translations from German.

## O. III.—Four Hours a Week.

Reading (two hours): Cæsar, *Bellum Gallicum* (selections).

Grammar (two hours): The most necessary part of the *syntax of tense and mood*. The rest as in U. III. In addition, written and oral translations from German and Latin.

## U. II.—Three Hours a Week.

Reading (two hours): Cæsar, *Bellum Gallicum* (selections); Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, from an authorised selection. Explanation and practice of *dactylic hexameters*.

Grammar (one hour): Revision of *accidence* and *syntax* as occasion arises in the written work to be done every fortnight. No exercise book is used. Written translations from Latin.

## O. II.—Three Hours a Week.

Reading: Cæsar; Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, from an authorised selection.

Written Work: Every fortnight a translation from Latin. In connection therewith revision of grammar as occasion arises.

## U. I. and O. I.—Three Hours a Week Each.

Reading: Simpler portions of *Livy*; *Cicero*, in *Catilinam* I, II, or III.; easier passages from *Vergil's Æneid*, from an authorised selection, as in the Gymnasium.

Written Work: Every fortnight a translation from *Livy*. In connection therewith revision of grammar as occasion arises.

## IV.—Seven Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours); Grammar (three hours).  
As in the Gymnasium with less translation into Latin.

## U. III.—Five Hours a Week.

Reading (three hours): A suitable reading book or Cæsar's *Bellum Gallicum*. Guidance in preparation. Repetition of translation. Constant practice in construing.

Grammar (two hours): Repetition of *accidence*. Revision and amplification of the case syntax. Certain rules regarding the syntax of tense and mood are to be evolved in the course of the reading.

Practice in oral and written translation from an exercise book which is based, in its vocabulary, on the reading matter.

Once a fortnight a short written translation into Latin either as a class exercise or as home work. Every three months a written translation into German instead to be done in class.

## O. III.—Five Hours a Week.

Reading (three hours): Cæsar's *Bellum Gallicum*. Guidance, etc., as in U. III.

Grammar (two hours): Revision of the *accidence*. The chief rules governing the use of tenses and moods. Otherwise as in U. III.

## U. II.—Four Hours a Week.

Reading (two hours): Cæsar's *Bellum Gallicum* or selected portions from the *Bellum Civile* (*cf.* Gymnasium O. III.); Ovid's *Metamorphoses* in carefully chosen selections. Guidance, etc., as in U. III. Introduction to poetry; explanation and practice of dactylic hexameters; instruction in prosody; certain passages of Ovid to be learnt by heart.

Grammar (two hours): Revision of the syntax of case. Revision and amplification of the syntax of tense and mood.

Exercise book and written exercises as in U. III.

## O. II.—Four Hours a Week.

Reading (three hours): As in U. II., also under certain circumstances selected portions from Quintus Curtius or from Livy or an easier speech of Cicero's.

Grammar (one hour): As in U. II.; an exercise book is not used.

Once a fortnight a written translation into German done in class.

## U. I. and O. I.—Four Hours a Week in Each Class.

Reading: Easier speeches of Cicero (*e.g.*, *pro Sex. Roscio*, in *Catilinam*, *de Imperio Cn. Pompei*); selected portions of Livy; selected passages from Vergil's *Æneid* in self-contained episodes in such a way as to supply a general view of the whole work. In O. I. the easier Odes of Horace and selections from Tacitus' *Germania*.

Grammar: As is necessary for an understanding of the reading.

Every three or four weeks a written translation into German.

## C.—NOTES ON METHOD.

## (a) GYMNASIUM.

1. *Grammar, Vocabulary, and Written Exercises.*—In accordance with the general aim, preparation for a thorough comprehension of the authors and a linguistic training are to be kept clearly in view in the directions denoted. From VI. upwards the selection of what is to be learnt and of the exercises is to be determined accordingly, and it must throughout be limited to what is normal. Grammar and the exercises in connection with it are, moreover, only to be treated as a means to the attainment of the end denoted.

In the choice of a grammar, care must be taken not to let it differ too much in its general arrangement from the Greek grammar used in the same school.

*Lower Stage.*—It is, in general, not recommended that the earliest instruction in VI. should begin with the *rules*, but with Latin sentences which are to be translated first by the teacher, and afterwards by the pupils. After a number of sentences, chosen with a definite end in view, have been practised, and the declensions explained from them and afterwards collected and compared, then only are the rules which are to be committed to memory in each instance to be applied to them. The vocabulary to be acquired is taken from what has been read. Side by side with this preliminary preparation go oral and written exercises on what has been read and learnt, in the form of constantly repeated translations into German and from German into Latin.

It is not advisable to add to the difficulties of the instruction by insisting too much on the niceties of pronunciation.

*Intermediate Stage.*—When once a good knowledge has been attained in VI. and V. of the commonest grammatical forms, and of the rules of syntax most essential for translation, there follows in the intermediate stage systematic practice in the further necessary rules of syntax. Here, too, the method always to be adopted is to start with a number of model sentences illustrating the rules in point and drawn as far as possible from what has been read, and then, after they have been explained, to have them committed to memory. Special weight is to be attached to a summarising of similar and related forms as they occur, and to bringing special cases under the head of the general rule.

Vocabulary and oral or written exercises are to be amplified, always in connection with what is being read. The exercises in translation into Latin must, as a rule, be taken from an exercise book founded upon the prose author being read.

By an intimate connection of this kind between the individual parts of the instruction, and by the intellectual discipline arising from it, a thorough comprehension of the writers is advanced.

*Higher Stage.*—In the single hour that is assigned to grammar in the higher stage no more can be attempted than to secure the complete mastery of what has already been acquired, and occasionally to summarise and amplify what has already been learnt as an aid to the reading. Special peculiarities in the use of parts of speech, points of style, and synonyms are to be treated only as they arise in reading, and must be limited in moderation to what is essential and incontrovertible.

The pieces for translation into Latin to be done at home or in school are, as a rule, to be composed by the teacher in connection with what has been

## NOTES ON METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF LATIN.

As regards the method of instruction in Latin, the same remarks apply on the whole to the Gymnasium and the Realgymnasium; due regard, of course, being had to the more restricted aim and scope of the instruction in the Realgymnasium.

*I. Grammar, Vocabulary, and Written Exercises.*—In accordance with the general aim, a thorough grammatical training and sure understanding of the authors read must always be kept in view. From VI. upwards the selection of what is to be learnt and practised is to be determined accordingly. The grammatical material must throughout be restricted to what is most important, i.e., to what is characteristic and of frequent occurrence, so that a careful distinction will be necessary between that which the pupil is to acquire as a permanent possession and that which is incidentally explained to him either before or during the reading. This refers both to vocabulary and to rules of grammar, in which it is still customary to introduce too many details.

*Lower Stage.*—The chief thing here is systematic linguistic instruction, which shall secure the permanent acquisition and ready use of the words and grammatical forms, and a clear understanding of the parts of a sentence. The inductive method may be applied here as well as in the upper stages, so far as it is calculated to further the understanding and to stimulate the pupils to self-activity. The point of departure is the sentence. The vocabulary which the pupil has to acquire is derived from the reading matter. If, for the acquisition of this vocabulary, lists of words are considered necessary, care must be taken that they are connected with the reader and are arranged according to meaning and derivation.

All the matter read and learnt is to be worked up again and again by reshaped translations partly into German, partly from German into Latin, either orally or in writing, as far as the time necessary for this is available. It is unnecessary to add to the difficulties of the instruction by insisting too much on the niceties of pronunciation, especially of syllables long by position; but from the very beginning care is to be taken to prevent and correct faulty pronunciation by accurate enunciation and the quantity of final syllables is to be carefully observed.

*Intermediate Stage.*—When once a sure knowledge has been attained in VI. and V. of the commonest grammatical forms and of the rules of syntax indispensable for translation, there follows in the intermediate stage systematic practice in the further necessary rules of syntax. Special weight is to be attached to a summarising of similar and related forms as they occur, and to bringing special cases under the head of the general rule.

Vocabulary and oral or written exercises are to be amplified, always in connection with the reading matter; the exercises in translation into Latin are to be taken from an exercise book, in which the vocabulary of the prose authors read in the intermediate stage has been worked up.

By an intimate connection of this kind between the individual parts of the instruction and the resultant intellectual discipline the comprehension of the authors is advanced.

In II. and U. III. of the Realgymnasium it is permissible to devote for a time the greater part of the time assigned to Latin to the reading of authors, or to grammar and oral and written exercises.

*Higher Stage.*—The aim in the higher stage is to retain, secure, and increase in moderation the grammatical knowledge already acquired. The treatment of stylistic peculiarities in the use of parts of speech must be limited to that which is especially characteristic and of established usage; phrases and the distinctions between synonymous words which have been learnt in previous stages are to be brought together and amplified.

The pieces for translation into Latin to be done in school are, as a rule, to be prepared by the teacher himself. They are to be simple, but must make such demands on the pupil's powers of thought that their translation can

read. They must be simple, and treated almost as mere retranslations into Latin.

2. *Reading.*—The more thorough the grounding in grammar and vocabulary the fewer will be the interruptions in the reading arising from formal difficulties, and the greater will be the attention paid in every case to the explanation of the matter itself. Any attempts to employ the methods of explaining grammar which have already been distinctly objected to in the "Explanations to the Curricula of 1882," are to be strictly discountenanced. The comprehension of the subject-matter and the introduction to the intellectual life and civilisation of the Romans is the chief thing.

The importance—which is emphasised in the programmes of work—of preparation in class for the reading of new or more difficult authors must always be observed.

The best explanation is, and always will be, a good German translation of the author. This is to be worked out in class by the teacher and pupils together, and to be repeated by the pupils. In this way the mischief that arises from the use of printed translations will be most effectually prevented. The systematically graduated translations from Latin, written in class, are the best criterion of the degree of skill attained.

When certain portions of a work or a complete work have been translated, a general survey of the subject-matter and of its systematic arrangement is to be made with the pupil. At the same time, in the higher stage, not only the main ideas but also the artistic form of the work are to be made clear to the pupil by the teacher. In the case of authors or writings which cannot be read in full, care should be taken to make the selection from a definite point of view of subject-matter, and, as far as possible, to give a complete picture. Unseen translations, which are to be regularly practised, must be made to contribute to the completeness of this picture.

The reading of prose and verse side by side, is, on the whole, not to be recommended.

A point of view which has hitherto been too little appreciated, and which, nevertheless, is of very great importance as regards the concentration of the instruction, is the close association of prose reading with history. While this holds good for German and all foreign languages, it does so especially for Latin. It becomes possible by this means, without overburdening the historical instruction, to acquire a background enlivened by individual traits for important portions of history and conspicuous characters. Appropriate illustrations, such as are so plentifully afforded by imitations of ancient works of art and other representations of ancient life, cannot be too highly recommended.

The deposition of Cicero from its hitherto prominent position in school reading is rendered necessary by the alteration in the aim of instruction. The orations and letters to be read are to be treated first and foremost for their subject-matter.

count as an independent piece of work. If they are connected with the reading matter, great care must be taken to prevent this exercise from becoming mere memory work. For the written home work it is generally advisable to substitute a carefully directed oral translation from an exercise book, which, as regards matters of grammar and style, is limited to what is of chief importance, and as regards content is calculated to advance the general aim of the instruction (regard being had also to Greek History and culture).

2. *Reading.*—The more thorough the grounding in grammar and vocabulary the fewer will be the interruptions in the reading occasioned by formal difficulties, and so much the more attention can be given to the explanation of the matter itself. Grammatical explanations are only to be given when they are necessary for the correct and clear understanding of the passage under consideration. The chief points to be kept in view in connection with the reading are a good German translation based on a clear insight into the construction, the comprehension of the subject matter and the introduction to the intellectual life and culture of classical antiquity.

Guidance in the preparation of new and more difficult authors in the class must never be lost sight of and whenever necessary must be prolonged. In the higher stage, independent work will be sooner demanded than in the preceding stages.

Great weight is to be laid upon a good, but as literal as possible, German translation. It is to be worked out in class by the teacher and pupils together, and after each longer section to be read out by the master as a whole. In this way the use of printed translations will be most effectually prevented. As a rule, the translation is to be repeated by the pupils at the beginning of the next lesson. In the middle stage, and still more in the higher, this second translation may be restricted and replaced by questions bearing on the content and form of what has been read. The written translations from Latin into German to be done in class form the test of the degree of skill attained.

When certain portions of a work or a complete work have been translated, a survey of the subject-matter and its structural arrangement is to be made by the master in co-operation with the class. In the higher stage the master will make clear to the pupils not only the main ideas but also the artistic form of the work. In the case of authors or works which cannot be read in full, great care must be taken to make the selection from some definite point of view so as to provide as complete a picture as possible, and to show the connection of the various parts. Throughout the course unseen translation is to be practised.

As a general rule it is not advisable in the intermediate stage of the Gymnasium to read prose and verse side by side. In the Realgymnasium simultaneous reading of any two authors is absolutely inadmissible.

It is not desirable in the Realgymnasium to confine the reading in more than three successive classes to Cæsar. In the two top classes (Ober- and Unterprima) in this type of school nearly the whole of the time is devoted to reading. Most special care is to be taken that the text is fully understood. Tentative guessing will most effectively be prevented by the thoroughness of the training in slowly progressive instruction.

A point of view which has hitherto been too little appreciated, though it is important for the mutual support of the various branches of the instruction, is the establishment of closer relations between the prose reading (in Latin) and the work of the class in history. While this holds good in the case of the mother tongue, and of all foreign languages, it especially does so in the case of Latin. By this means it is possible to give the pupils a more real and living picture of certain important periods of Ancient History, and of the most prominent personages of those days. The subject-matter of the exercise books ought to help to advance this idea.

The use of illustrations of artistic worth, which are so plentifully provided in reproductions of ancient works of art and other representations of ancient

## (b) REALGYMNASIUM.

As to the method of instruction in Latin in the Realgymnasium, the same remarks hold good as for the Gymnasium, the more limited aim and programme and the shorter time allowed for it being, of course, taken into consideration.

In III. and U. II., in the Realgymnasium, the teacher is at liberty now and then to devote the whole time either to reading or to grammar and oral or written exercise. In I. the whole time, apart from the written translations from Latin, is given to the author, and only occasionally are individual lessons to be applied to grammatical revision and summaries.

In the Realgymnasium, as well as in the Gymnasium, care must be taken to see that everything is thoroughly understood, and mere tentative guessing must be absolutely tabooed.

## GREEK.

## (a) GENERAL AIM.

To enable boys to understand the more important classical Greek writers.

## (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

## U. III.—Six Hours a Week.

The regular accidence of the Attic dialect up to and including liquid verbs. The main rules of phonology and accentuation in connection with the study of inflections. Learning by heart of words as far as they are necessary for the reading, special vocabularies which are not founded on the reading being excluded. Individual rules of syntax are to be drawn inductively from the reading.

Regularly once a fortnight, partly as home work and partly in school, oral and written translations into Greek in connection from the very first with the reading matter, to serve as practice in the application of the accidence.

Reading from a suitable reader. The pupils begin reading at once, and pass on as soon as possible to connected pieces. The materials are to be taken from Greek mythology and history. Care is to be taken that only such words occur as are found regularly in the authors read in school, and that all irregular forms are omitted.

## O. III.—Six Hours a Week.

Verbs in  $\mu$ , and the most important irregular verbs of the Attic dialect. Prepositions to be committed to memory. Revision and amplification of the programme of U. III. Selected main rules of syntax in connection with the reading, as in U. III.

Oral and written exercises in translation into Greek of the same range and on the same principle as in U. III.; so, also, the learning of words. (In the first half-year three hours, in the second two hours.)

Reading: At first from the reading book, afterwards Xenophon's *Anabasis*. Guidance in preparation. (In the first half-year three hours, in the second four hours.)

## U. II.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading: Xenophon, selections from the *Anabasis* and *Hellenica*; also Homer's *Odyssey*.

life, is recommended. The observation and discussion of these materials is not to be an end in itself.

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## GREEK.

### (a) GENERAL AIM.

Based on sufficient linguistic knowledge, acquaintance with some of the more important works of literature, important both from the point of view of content and of literary form, and by this means introduction into the intellectual life and culture of Greek antiquity.

### (b) PROGRAMME OF WORK.

#### U. III.—Six Hours a Week.

The regular accidence of the Attic dialect up to and including liquid verbs. The main rules of phonology and accentuation to be learnt in connection with the study of inflections. Some rules of syntax to be learnt in connection with the reading matter.

Oral and once a week, written translations into Greek serving as practice in the application of the accidence, partly as home work and partly as class work, as far as possible in connection with the reading matter.

Reading from a reading book of which the subject-matter is taken mainly from Greek mythology and history, and in which only such words and forms are used as are to be found in ordinary Greek. The reading is to begin at once and is soon to proceed to connected pieces. Acquisition of a suitable vocabulary.

#### O. III.—Six Hours a Week.

The verbs in  $\mu$ , and the more important irregular verbs of the Attic dialect. Prepositions to be learnt by heart. Revision and amplification of the work of U. III. Selected main rules of syntax as in U. III.

Oral and short written translations into Greek as in U. III.

Reading at first from the reading book, then from Xenophon's *Anabasis*. Guidance in preparation. Practice in unseen translation shall, wherever possible, begin at this stage. Learning of words by heart as in U. III.

#### U. II.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading (four hours): Selections from Xenophon's *Anabasis* or *Hellenica* and Homer's *Odyssey*. There may be used in this and the following stages

Homer is prepared during the first half-year in class. The Epic dialect is not systematically studied, but familiarity with it is acquired by means of explanation and incidental grouping of forms in reading. Suitable passages are learnt by heart. (Four hours.)

Grammar: The syntax of the noun (article, pronoun, case syntax), as well as the most important general rules for the syntax of tense and mood. The syntax is gone systematically through as far as is necessary, while at the same time the rules that have already occurred are recapitulated and applied to examples. The accidence is revised and amplified as far as the prose reading requires it.

Written translations are set, as heretofore. Occasionally translations from Greek into German take the place of translations from German into Greek. (Two hours.)

#### O. II.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading: Selections from Herodotus, Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, and Homer's *Odyssey*.

The special study of the Ionic dialect and the rendering of Herodotus into Attic Greek are to be omitted. Learning by heart, as in U. II. (Five hours.)

Practice in written translation from Greek, in conjunction with the reading of the prose author, once in four weeks, and, as a rule, in class.

In this stage the grammar is to be summarised and concluded. Further study of the syntax of tense and mood, syntax of the infinitive and participle, chief importance being attached to the peculiarities of the Greek language. Practice in class of what has been learnt as an aid to the reading. (One hour.)

#### U. I. and O. I.—Six Hours a Week Each.

Reading: Selections from Plato; Thucydides, omitting the more difficult speeches; Demosthenes, Olynthiacs and Philippics. Previous preparation in class. Homer's *Iliad*, and Sophocles. Sophocles is for some time to be prepared with the pupils. Learning by heart of suitable passages from the poets, as before. In addition, supplementary private reading.

Revision in every department of grammar, each according to need, but only occasionally. Translations from Greek every four weeks; these are, as a rule, to be taken in class from the author being read, or sometimes from dictation.

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#### (c) NOTES ON METHOD.

1. *Grammar, Vocabulary, and Written Exercises.*—In each of these three directions the selection is to be determined entirely by the aim of the instruction.

For the similarity as far as possible of the Greek and Latin Grammars, see Latin.

Everything which has already been done in the Latin grammar, and which does not serve the aim of the reading, is to be omitted from the grammatical instruction, and in particular almost all general definitions are to be left out. As regards the accidence and syntax, which are to be first acquired inductively from the reading book and then securely committed to memory, the same rule holds good as in Latin, only with this difference, that scarcely any heed is now paid to translating into Greek. The written exercises to that end in U III. to U II. are of the most elementary description, and only serve as practice

a suitable reading book which offers a further selection of specimens from Greek writers.

The preparation of Homer is done at first in class. The peculiarities of the Epic dialect are to be learnt through occasional explanations and through the incidental grouping of forms as they are met with in the course of reading. Suitable passages are to be learnt by heart.

Exercises in unseen translation.

Grammar (two hours): The syntax of the noun as well as the most important rules for the syntax of tense and mood. The syntax is to be systematically studied as far as is necessary by bringing together all that has been met with in the reading and amplifying it from the grammar book. Learning by heart of difficult examples. Revision of the accidence.

Short written translations into Greek once a week, chiefly as class work.

#### O. II.—Six Hours a Week.

Reading (five hours): Homer and Herodotus; and other suitable prose reading.

There is to be no systematic study of the Ionic dialect nor any translation of Herodotus into Attic Greek. Selected passages are to be learnt by heart as in U. II.

Exercises in unseen translation. Written exercises, i.e., translation from Greek alternating with short translations into Greek every fortnight, as a rule to be done in class; the meaning of unknown words and expressions is to be given to the pupils.

The systematic study of *Grammar* is to be concluded at this stage. Syntax of tense and mood, of the infinitive and the participle; the chief stress is to be laid on matters peculiar to Greek.

#### U. I. and O. I.—Six Hours a Week for Each Class.

Reading: Homer's *Iliad*, Sophocles (also Euripides) and Plato; side by side with these authors, Thucydides, Demosthenes, and other prose pieces of suitable content, also suitable specimens of Greek lyrics.

Grammar: Revision of grammar whenever necessary.

Exercises in unseen translation. Written translations out of Greek and into Greek.

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#### NOTES ON METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF GREEK.

1. *Grammar, Vocabulary, and Written Exercises.*—In each of these three directions, the selection and treatment of the matter is to be determined entirely by the aim of the instruction; insignificant details, especially useless forms, are to be kept out of the reading matter.

In grammatical instruction all that has been already dealt with in Latin is to be summarily disposed of, especially the general definitions of terms. In the choice of a grammar care must be taken that the book, in its development of the syntax, is in harmony with that used in Latin. The written exercises are to serve principally for learning forms and rules and in the higher stages, to assist the reading. As regards the translations into Greek which are to be done in class, the same remarks apply as were made in connection with Latin. Mistakes in accentuation are not to be given any special importance in marking these exercises. If, for the acquisition of a suitable vocabulary in III., the

in the accidents and in the most important laws of syntax. In the higher stage they drop out entirely.

2. *Reading.*—This must, without detriment to thoroughness, be more comprehensive than hitherto, especially in the higher stage. The *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, for instance, are as nearly as possible to be read through. So far as this is impossible in the original text, good translations are to be used by the teacher to supplement them. In the treatment of the plays of Sophocles the substance is first of all to be given to the pupil by means of a preliminary translation and explanation of details, and then an insight into the artistic form. The same thing must be done, too, with Plato's Dialogues, the selection of which is to be made, first and foremost, with a view to what is ethically valuable from an educational standpoint.

In other respects the same points of view hold good for the treatment of Greek authors as for the treatment of Latin authors.

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use of lists of words is considered desirable, care must be taken that they are in connection with the reading, and that the words are arranged according to their meaning and derivation.

2. *Reading*.—Based on grammatical thoroughness, the instruction must envisage the trend of thought and the literary form of the work which is being read in its parts and as a whole. When long poetical works are being read, in order to supplement those passages read in the original text, the teacher should use good translations. The reading of Xenophon is, as a rule, to be concluded in U. II. As regards Homer, it is desirable to work out a regular scheme showing what passages out of both poems are to be regularly read, are not to be read, and are to be left to the discretion of the master. In order to overcome the difficulties of choral odes in Greek tragedies a more generous measure of help from the teacher will be necessary, and this will replace the pupils' preparation at home. This same remark applies also to the more difficult portions of prose reading, *e.g.*, to many speeches of Thucydides. The selection and treatment of the Platonic Dialogues is to be determined, in the first instance, by their aesthetic content; consideration is, however, also to be given to the philosophical aspect of these works. For the rest, reference is made to the notes on method for Latin.

If a reading book is used in II. and I., the selections must not only be guided by aesthetic considerations, but must give full scope to an attempt to establish the relationships between the ancient world and modern culture.

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## COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND GERMAN CLASSICAL SCHOOLS.

For the better comparison of English public schools with German Gymnasien ("reformed" and "unreformed") and Real-Gymnasien, I have formulated in the accompanying tables schemes showing the time-tables of the upper forms of each, and also the classical reading of the highest forms.

A.—COMPARATIVE TIME-TABLE OF PERIODS GIVEN TO THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS EACH WEEK IN THE FOUR UPPER FORMS, (1) OF A GYMNASIUM ; (2) OF A REFORM GYMNASIUM ; (3) OF AN ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOL.

	1.—GYMNASIUM.	2.—REFORM-GYMNASIUM.	3.—ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.
Divinity ... ..	2	2	2
Mother Tongue ...	3†	3†	2
Latin and Greek...	13 or 14*	16 or 17*	13 or 14
French ... ..	3 or 4*	2 or 3*	2
German or English	2 (voluntary)	2 (voluntary)	2 (voluntary)
History and Geography	2 or 3	2 or 3	2 or 3
Mathematics ...	3 or 4	3 or 4	4 or 5
Science ... ..	2	2	2 (often voluntary)
	† 8 or 9 hours in Vorschule, 4, 2, and 3 in lower forms of Gymnasium. * Latin begun about 9½, Greek about 12½, French about 11½	† 8 or 9 hours in Vorschule, 4 or 5 in lower forms. * Latin begun about 12½, Greek about 14½, French about 9½.	

N.B.—In all these tables the word "hour" is equivalent to "period" or "lesson," generally about 50 minutes.

These facts apply to all the upper forms of a German school. The highest form in England generally tends to specialise in Classics and English at the expense of Mathematics.

Form A gives what may be taken as roughly representative schemes of the periods devoted weekly to the various subjects in the upper classes of the Gymnasien and the Fifth Forms of our public schools. The following points will be noticed :—

1. The German schools have as a rule longer hours of work than the English, partly because there is less care to avoid over-pressure than with us, partly because their organisers are not responsible, like English headmasters, for all sides of a boy's development, and tend to concentrate their attention upon the mental training, with less consideration for the physical and moral side. They are masters of day schools, and of day schools

which have not, as in England, the example of the public schools to give an ideal of character development and social *esprit de corps*. But whatever the cause, the number of periods per week is on the average three or four more than in England, and this means the possibility of inserting one extra subject, such as Physics.

2. The differences of time-table between the ordinary Gymnasium and our classical sides are superficially slight, if we only compare the upper forms. But the difference is more marked between the lowest German classes (of the ages between 9 and 12) and the preparatory schools which correspond to them in England, and there is a corresponding divergence at the other end, if we compare the Upper Sixth of an English school with the Oberprima of a Gymnasium. In such Gymnasien of the normal type as I have seen, Latin is begun regularly in the lowest form (9 to 10 years), French in the lowest but two, *i.e.*, about 11, Greek in the one above that, about 12. This gives a clear and systematic arrangement such as we lack, and leaves a definite interval between the elementary stages of each language. In England it would be impossible to get any uniform statistics where the practice is so varied, but the tendency is certainly to begin all these languages earlier than this—a tendency due in part to the system of entrance scholarships at public schools, the examinations for which have the general effect of forcing up the standard of Classics, and especially of Greek, demanded from young boys. I think that in this matter the German Gymnasium has the advantage over us.

At the other end, if we compare Upper Sixth with Oberprima, we find that the Germans know nothing of the system of modified specialisation which is increasing in English schools. An English boy who reaches the top of the school about the age of 17 will probably, for a considerable portion of his last two years, concentrate upon the subject (Classics, Mathematics, Science, or History) in which he seems likely to make most progress. He will take the Previous Examination or Responsions, or the equivalent certificate examination, as soon as he is able, and will then drop one or more of the subjects in which he is unprogressive or less proficient. A classical boy will drop mathematics and perhaps French (or he may begin German as a substitute for this). A mathematician or scientist or historian will drop classics, or retain them for literary purposes only, with a sacrifice of the "scholarship" element. In Germany there is none of this specialisation at school. It follows that the Upper Sixth of an English school will really devote much more time to classical and literary study than an ordinary Ober-Prima. This is a characteristic instance of the fundamental difference of the two systems: the English school makes far more arrangements for the individual than the German. I may be allowed to express my opinion that at this end of a boy's career the advantages are very much on the English side; and I have had more than one indication that this is recognised by Germans themselves.

3. The time-table of a Reformgymnasium is principally noteworthy for the large number of periods given to Classics. Latin is begun in Untertertia, with periods ranging from nine or ten per week in the earlier forms to seven or eight in the highest; Greek, begun in Untersecunda, has eight periods in each of the four top forms. The time is gained from French, and sometimes from Mathematics or History; a system which gives three clear years to French before any other foreign language is begun can afford to lessen the hours of this subject later. French is taught in these schools for six periods a week for the first three years, then for three or four when Latin begins, and for two or three after the beginning of Greek.

## B. 1.—LATIN READING OF UPPER FORMS.

GYMNASIUM.	REFORM-GYMNASIUM.	MAELBOROUGH.
I. Tacitus, <i>Annals</i> i. and ii. Cicero, <i>in Verrem</i> , v. Livy iv. and v. (selections). Horace, <i>Odes</i> iii. and iv., and selected <i>Satires</i> and <i>Epistles</i> .	Tacitus, <i>Annals</i> xiii. & xiv. (selections). Tacitus, <i>Germania</i> . Cicero, <i>ad Atticum</i> i.; (selections). Horace (revision of past reading). Terence, <i>Phormio</i> .	Tacitus, <i>Annals</i> ii.-iii., 50. Cicero, <i>Orator</i> (1st half). Livy ix. Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> v. Plautus, <i>Miles Gloriosus</i> . Lucan vii.
II. Cicero, <i>in Verrem</i> , iv. and v. Cicero, <i>pro Murena</i> . Horace, <i>Odes</i> i. and ii.	<i>Monumentum Ancyranum</i> . Suetonius, <i>Life of Augustus</i> . Cicero, <i>in Verrem</i> iv. and <i>pro Murena</i> . Tacitus, <i>Annals</i> i.-vi. (selections). Tacitus, <i>Germania</i> . Horace, <i>Odes</i> i.-iii. (selections). Horace, <i>Satires</i> and <i>Epodes</i> .	Livy ix. Tacitus, <i>Annals</i> ii.-iii., 50. Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> v. Plautus, <i>Miles Gloriosus</i> . Lucan vii.
III. Livy iii. Cicero, <i>pro Roscio</i> . Vergil (selections).	Livy xxi. Cicero, <i>in Catilinam</i> i. and ii., and <i>de Imperio Cn. Pompeii</i> . Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> ii. and selections from i., iv., vi., and xii.	Cicero, selected letters. Cicero, <i>Pro Cluentio</i> and <i>in Q. Caecilius</i> . Propertius (selections) Horace, <i>Epistles</i> i. Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> i.
IV. Cicero, <i>in Catilinam</i> i. and ii. Livy, i. and v. Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> i. Cicero, <i>de Imperio Cn. Pompeii</i> . Ovid, <i>Metamorphoses</i> (selections).	Cicero, <i>in Catilinam</i> iii. Sallust, <i>Catilina</i> and <i>Jugurtha</i> (selections). Cæsar, <i>De Bello Gallico</i> vii. Ovid, <i>Metamorphoses</i> (selections).	Cicero, <i>de Imperio Cn. Pompeii</i> . Cicero, <i>de Officiis</i> i. 25 to end. Livy ii. Vergil, <i>Eclogues</i> (selections). Vergil, <i>Aeneid</i> vii., 1-405. Ovid, <i>Tristia</i> , iv., 1-7.

B. 2.—GREEK READING OF UPPER FORMS.

GYMNASIUM.	REFORM-GYMNASIUM.	MARLBOROUGH.
I. Plato, <i>Phædo</i> . Sophocles, <i>Edipus Tyrannus</i> . Iliad xi.—xxiv. Thucydides i. & ii. (selections).	Plato, Gorgias. Sophocles, Ajax. Iliad xviii.—xxiv. (selections).	Demosthenes, <i>De Corona</i> . Æschylus, <i>Agamemnon</i> . Æschylus, <i>Persæ</i> . Aristophanes, <i>Clouds</i> . Thucydides vi. 1-52. Plato, <i>Republic x</i> .
II. Plato, <i>Euthyphro</i> & <i>Laches</i> . Sophocles, Ajax. Sophocles, <i>Antigone</i> Iliad i.—ix. Demosthenes, <i>Philippics</i> .	Plato, <i>Apology</i> & <i>Crito</i> . Odyssey xvii.—xxiii. (selections). Sophocles, <i>Antigone</i> . Lysias vii. & xxii.	Plato, <i>Republic x</i> . Odyssey ix.—xiv. Sophocles, <i>Electra</i> . Æschylus, <i>Persæ</i> . Aristophanes, <i>Clouds</i> . Demosthenes, <i>De Corona</i> .
III. Plato, <i>Apology</i> & <i>Crito</i> . Herodotus vii.—ix. (selections). Odyssey vii.—xxiii. (selections). Elegiacs (selections)	Xenophon, <i>Anabasis</i> i. 9, ii. 6, iii. 1, 2, iv. 7 & 19-27. Herodotus v.—vii. (selections). Odyssey i.—xiv (selections).	Demosthenes, <i>Olynthiac</i> iv. Demosthenes, <i>Philippics</i> i. & iii. Plato, <i>Crito</i> . Odyssey iv., ix., xi.
IV. Xenophon, <i>Anabasis</i> iii. & iv. Xenophon, <i>Hellenics</i> i. & ii. Odyssey i., iv., v. vi. (selections).	Xenophon, <i>Anabasis</i> i & ii. (omitting i. 9, & ii. 6).	Demosthenes, <i>Philippic</i> i. Demosthenes, <i>Olynthiacs</i> i. & ii. Thucydides vii., 46-end. Odyssey xi. Euripides, <i>Orestes</i> .

In my second scheme I have put side by side the classical books read with teachers in one year by the four upper classes of a Gymnasium, a Reform-Gymnasium, and an English Public School. For this purpose I have taken three definite schools, the Askanisches Gymnasium in Berlin, the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfurt, and Marlborough College. For the fuller understanding of the points of contrast or resemblance the following facts must be borne in mind.

(1). The progress of boys up a German school is uniform: each boy stays normally one year in each class, and the whole class is moved up together at the end of each year. Every boy in Oberprima may be said to have passed through exactly the same course and read exactly the same books. In an English Upper Sixth, with our system of competitive promotion two or three

times a year, this will not be so: the best boys will spend two or even more years in the highest form. This circumstance at once limits and extends our choice of books: for instance, though many boys in a form may not have read the whole of the Odes of Horace, it will perhaps be impossible to find any one Book which has not been read already by a certain number of them. We choose some other subject, and look to private reading and the University to fill up the gaps.

(2). Practically all the boys in a Classical Upper Sixth go on to read classics for a time at least at the University. It is exceptional for a German boy to do this. As soon as he gets to the University he specialises in the branch of study which concerns his profession. Unless this profession be teaching, he does no more classical study. I have before me the list of last Easter's "*Abiturienten*" of the Kaiser-Friedrich Schule in Charlottenburg near Berlin. Ten boys left after a year in Ober-Prima (*i.e.* having completed the regular classical course). Of these four were to take up Law, three Engineering, two Mathematics and Science, and one Medicine. None of these would continue the study of classics.\*

(3). The German ideal in classical study is different from ours. To a certain extent it is more limited. We aim at what I may call the "constructive" side of scholarship—not merely at the knowledge of a certain number of classical books or classical facts. Greek and Latin Composition, both in prose and (for many boys) in verse, as well as literary translation with considerable attention to style, are important parts of our curriculum; in Germany, after the earlier stages of Latin and Greek sentences (mostly oral), there is no composition except Latin prose, and in this the standard aimed at is not beyond that of a good English Fifth. For the loss of grasp and facility in the languages which this involves they seek to compensate by a far greater insistence on knowledge of facts. To an English mind the knowledge required seems sometimes unimportant, and I received the impression that classics as taught in England develop more faculties than the German system. But whatever be the relative merits of the two methods, it may be said that a German Ober-prima, while on the side of "scholarship" it has a standard resembling an English Upper Fifth, in knowledge may rather be compared to candidates for Honour Moderations or the Classical Tripos after one year at Oxford or Cambridge. I do not think that "knowledge" in this instance should be regarded as involving also "grasp" and power to use the knowledge acquired. It is difficult to judge whether it brings appreciation.

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\* A corresponding list from the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfurt gives, out of 37 boys who were leaving, 12 for Law, 7 for Medicine, 5 for Business, 3 for "German philology or history," 2 for Architecture, 2 for Engineering, and for Chemistry, Electricity, Natural Science, Theology, Modern languages, "Classical philology and Archæology," 1 each.

C. 1.—REALGYMNASIUM (REFORM) AND MODERN SIDE.  
TIME-TABLES OF UPPER FORMS.

	REALGYMNASIUM.	MODERN SIDE.
Divinity	2	2
Mother Tongue	3*	2 or 3
Latin	5 or 6†	3‡
French	3‡	4 or 5‡
German or English	4§	4§
History and Geography	3	3
Mathematics	5	5 or 6
Science	5 or 6	4

\* 8 to 10 hours in Vorschule, 4 or 5 in lower forms of Realgymnasium.

† Begun at about 13 (with 8 hours for 2 years).

‡ Begun at about 10 (with 6 hours for 3 years).

§ Begun at about 15 (with 6 hours for 1 year).

|| Begun at about 15 (with 3 hours for 1 year).

† Begun at 8 or 9.

‡ Begun at 8 or 9 or 10.

§ Begun at about 15.

|| Begun at about 15.

C. 2.—REALGYMNASIUM (REFORM) AND MODERN SIDE.

REALGYMNASIUM.	MODERN SIDE.
I. (5 hours) Horace, Odes (selections). Tacitus, <i>Germania</i> . Livy xxii.	(3 hours) Horace, Odes and Epistles (selections). Tacitus, <i>Agricola</i> . Pliny's Letters (selections)
II. (5 hours) Vergil, <i>Æneid</i> (2½ books). Livy xxi. Cicero, in <i>Catilinam</i> .	(3 hours) Vergil, <i>Æneid</i> (2½ books).
III. (6 hours) Cicero, <i>de Imperio Cn. Pompeii</i> . Sallust, <i>Catilina</i> . Ovid (selections).	(4 hours) Selected prose. Ovid (selections).
IV (6 hours) Ovid (selections). Cæsar (selections).	(4 hours) Cæsar <i>de Bello Gallico</i> (2 books).

In my third schemes (C) I have compared (1) The time-tables (2) The Latin reading, of the upper forms of a Realgymnasium (Reform) and the Modern Side of an English Public School. Here, especially in regard to Latin, the advantage is on the side

of the German school, partly because the rigidity of their system enables them to resist the pressure of merely commercial demands for utilitarian subjects, partly because a Realgymnasium gets better linguists than an English Modern Side, which is largely populated by boys who have already shown that they have no gift for learning languages. The external pressure of examinations in Germany helps also to keep up a higher standard of Latin knowledge: these examinations exert a strong controlling and compelling influence upon German education.

In comparing the time-tables, it has to be remembered that there is more variety in the different English schools than in the German. The time-table given is based on the recently published account of the Rugby Modern Side, and on Marlborough; it can only be regarded as approximate. Here again the English specialisation comes in: some boys in the highest form of the Modern Side will drop science for extra French and German, and some will drop German for extra science and mathematics.

It will further be noted that I make no mention of a Realgymnasium on the 'unreformed' lines. These had but little success in Germany: until the *Reform-Methode* was introduced, the Realgymnasium found little favour, and was regarded with suspicion as a hybrid and a poor compromise. But schools like the Muster-Schule at Frankfurt, on which most of my statistics are based, are a practical proof that under the 'reformed' system Latin may be made a real and educational force even without Greek, when a basis of French has been already established, because it then becomes possible in the higher forms to devote to Latin a good many of the hours which would otherwise be needed for French. The demands of mathematics and science also seem to be less pressing in such schools than they are in English Modern Sides: they receive fuller attention in the Realschulen, where no classics are taught.

Having presented the facts so far as I can, it remains for me to attempt an answer to the questions which were the main object of my enquiry. To what extent, from the point of view of a classical or partially classical education, can the 'Frankfurter' system be said to be a success in Germany? To what extent can we argue from its results in Germany to the English public schools? The system aims at combining a classical education with an increased knowledge of other subjects, especially modern languages. It is hoped that by beginning Latin and Greek later time may be saved in the teaching of them, and that the time so saved may be clear gain to the other subjects, more particularly to French. A boy comes to Latin at the age of 12 after three years of French teaching and (what is of far greater importance) a long course of systematic, grammatical, syntactical study of his mother-tongue. French has familiarised him with a similar vocabulary to Latin; German has given him practice in formal grammar and the principles of sentence-construction. That, under these circumstances, in the hands of a good teacher, a capable boy will quickly cover

the elementary stages of Latin, is *a priori* probable: and I saw boys in the first year of Latin manipulating complicated Latin constructions with considerable success. I can testify also to the success with which boys so trained could in the final stage deal with Latin authors such as Tacitus. I heard the highest class of one exceptionally good Realgymnasium tackle the 'Germania' and the Odes of Horace in a way that would have made some of our Modern Side boys open their eyes: and I had similar evidence of the excellent English and good French knowledge possessed by the same boys. In the corresponding form of a Reformgymnasium I heard lessons in Plato and Homer which were evidence of equal success in Greek.\* The top boys of the school knew enough Greek to cope with both these authors. They were perhaps less successful with Euripides. I do not think that the classical capacity of these boys was as great, or their range of reading as wide, as that of the best boys in an English public school: but the average level was a high one, and they could read at any rate certain authors with profit.

Let me note in passing that these results were not gained by any 'short cuts.' There was no sign, in any school that I saw, of any idea of lightening the ship by throwing overboard the preliminary grammar training, or of shirking difficulties of detail in translation. The teachers were content to move slowly and to cover little ground in the early stages rather than leave the foundations unsound. There is abundance of grammar drill: the knowledge of details required goes further than with us: accents, for instance, are regarded from the start as an essential part of the spelling of Greek words, and are often indicated by a gesture of the hand.

So far I have been speaking of the new method as I saw it at its best under what the Germans themselves regard as exceptionally favourable circumstances. It will be gathered that given these favourable circumstances, with capable pupils and able teachers, it justifies itself by the attainment of a high level in Greek and Latin and French, or in Latin and French and English. For a Realgymnasium, which corresponds in the main to the Modern Side of an English public school, the system seems to me to have very great advantages. I am less convinced of its being an actual gain in the case of the Gymnasium: but I am satisfied that here too it has justified itself by a measure of success in some German schools.

On the other hand there are certain disadvantages. Where the period during which the more difficult languages are taught is shortened, the demand on the capacities of teachers and pupils is correspondingly great. Any defect in the teaching at the earlier stages, any undue slowness on the part of the pupil, is a far more serious drawback than under a system which spreads the teaching over a wider number of years. It is

\* It should be understood that English is begun in a Realgymnasium at the age at which Greek is begun in a Gymnasium. This would be, under the Frankfurt system, about 14, in Untersecunda.

perhaps yet more serious that a few weeks' absence, due to ill-health or any similar cause, at the period when either Greek or Latin is being begun, is enough to affect fatally a boy's whole subsequent development. For it is an essential feature of the system that the number of hours per week devoted to a new language should be large: it is never less than eight, and is sometimes ten. The penalty for a few weeks' absence is necessarily heavy. Further there is a danger of over-pressure at the initial stages of Latin and Greek. I thought I saw signs that the strain had its effect both on boys and on teachers. For the effective working of the system high pressure at the early stages is essential: and I am disposed to think that it would be better, were it practicable, if relief were sought by beginning both Latin and Greek a year earlier, *i.e.*, at 11 and 13 instead of at 12 and 14.

When we pass from the question of the success or partial success of this system in Germany to ask to what extent it could be applied to England, and more particularly to an English public school, we have to begin by reminding ourselves of the differences between the English and the German educational arrangements. These are many and important. In Germany there is in the main a local and state-controlled system. Each town has a certain number of schools supported and controlled by the municipality. To one or other of these schools practically every boy in that town will go, and probably in most cases his whole school-time, from 9 to 18, will be spent at the same school. In England, on the other hand, we have in our public schools a number of non-local and independently managed establishments, to which boys go as a rule not at the beginning, but in the middle, of their school days, from one or other of the preparatory schools. This break about 13 or 14 is a very important factor to be reckoned with when we compare the English and German education; it has arisen naturally out of the boarding-school system.

A further important difference lies in the nature of the examinations which control or guide the teaching in the two countries. In Germany the final goal is a *pass* examination, whether we think of the standard of *Obersecunda*, which gives the exemption from additional military service, or of the *Abiturienten* examination, which admits to the university. In England education is largely influenced by *competitive* examinations, whether for entrance scholarships at public schools and the universities, or for the Army and the Civil Service. It is the natural result of this that German education seems to concentrate on the training of the average boy, and the methods, often somewhat procrustean, by which they try to achieve this, entail some sacrifice of the abler and probably also of the more backward pupils. The danger in England has always been that the interests of the average boy should be sacrificed to those of the cleverer. The German principle has undoubted disadvantages. It demands and seems to assume a uniformity of progress in all pupils and in all subjects which is

certainly not found in practical experience. An English school-master finds it hard to understand how the industry, if not the intelligence, of a quick boy can fail to suffer if he is limited to the rate of progress which the normal boy can be expected to attain, if no amount of energy can win him promotion before he has been a full year in his class. Similarly, the German system, so far as I have seen it, knows nothing of 'sets' for different subjects. The same form is taught together in mathematics, French, Latin, Greek, and any other subject that they learn. Probably the German boys are more uniform than ours, and for purposes of organisation there are manifest advantages in a system of such comparative simplicity. But the Germans themselves are not unaware of the disadvantages involved; they recognise that *begabte* scholars suffer from being levelled down, and that in the endeavour to keep progress in all subjects on a level the interests of some of them, such as mathematics and science, must go to the wall.

These differences are of the greatest importance when we consider the applicability of a German experiment to English public schools. It is manifest that reorganisation of studies is easier where the original organisation is so simple. In the ordinary German school there is one curriculum, and one only, for all boys. The normal pupil begins between 9 and 10 in Sexta, and ends between 18 and 19 in Oberprima, having been promoted regularly at the end of each year in all subjects. A certain number of stragglers are left behind in the process, boys who by undue backwardness lose their promotion and have to stay two years instead of one in the same class and go over exactly the same ground again; a large number will leave the school after qualifying for Obersecunda and thereby obtaining the remission from extra military service. But apart from these exceptions, the work of the school is uniform throughout; special arrangements for individuals seem to be unknown, and could not be made without the sanction of the State or municipal authorities. Occasionally a Gymnasium and Realgymnasium are combined in the same school: this type, which approximates to the arrangement of an English school with Classical and Modern Sides, is growing less rare, but it is still exceptional. I was especially interested at Breslau in visiting a school where the Director, himself a science man, had recently added a Gymnasium to an already existing Realgymnasium. The Frankfurt system, by postponing Latin till 12, makes possible a further combination of a Realschule with a Gymnasium or Realgymnasium. This seems to be, in Germany as in England, one great argument for the new system, if it can be worked practically. But to enlarge on this would be outside the limits of the question I have set myself to answer, as to the efficiency, from the point of view of classical education, of the 'Reform.'

With the rigid uniformity of system, which is alien both to the English temperament and to the lines on which English public schools have developed, there goes also the different attitude to the classics, to which I have already referred. - The

Germans in the main make classical *knowledge* their test; we ask for capacity to translate from and into a classical language, for form and style as well as, sometimes to the prejudice of, facts and knowledge. They have little prose composition, and that little not advanced; verse composition has been abolished everywhere. I noticed that the absence of it necessitated a great deal more labour in the teaching of the ordinary scansion of hexameters and iambs in the books read, and I was told by teachers that the boys needed constant drill in this.

A more important fact is the comparatively limited range of authors studied in the schools. The idea of reading the *Agamemnon*, or indeed *Æschylus* at all, astonished masters to whom I made the suggestion. *Sophocles* they seemed to find very difficult; in *Thucydides* the speeches are generally omitted; and I found no traces of authors such as *Aristophanes*, *Juvenal*, *Lucretius*, and others, with whom an English sixth-form boy makes acquaintance, and whom many learn to appreciate. The limited range is made more important by the circumstance explained above, that few German boys continue the study of classics at the University. This difference of ideal must be recognised in considering the bearing on English problems of the German experiment. I saw evidence, from a comparison of lessons which I attended in both 'reformed' and 'unreformed' *Gymnasien*, that boys could be brought, at the end of their school career, to nearly the same level of classical knowledge in the former as in the latter. But it would not be safe to argue from this that the English type of 'scholarship,' which is undeniably of great educational value to the best boys, could be equally attained by beginning Latin and Greek at 12 and 14 and substituting high pressure over a shorter period for our present system. Nor would I willingly sacrifice what seems to me to be the greater suggestiveness and stimulus of our English methods for the more detailed information imparted to German boys.

But if at the sixth-form end the advantage is far from being altogether on the side of Germany, at the beginning of a boy's education it is otherwise. I have called attention to the fact that the basis of the *Reform-Methode* is that preliminary drill in the mother-tongue which is characteristic of all German education. We have not yet anything comparable to it in English. It is much to be desired that we should move in the direction of such a training, whereby a study of the mother-tongue might be made the common basis of all subsequent language teaching. But it must not be forgotten that German is a language far better suited to this than English. Being an inflected and somewhat involved language, possessing a formal grammar, it affords a much better mental drill and preparation for the later study of Latin. It is not without reason that we turn early to Latin for the grammatical training which neither our own language nor French can supply. It is certain that we might do far more than we do towards making the early study of our own language an essential part of education; but it may

be doubted whether English could ever do as much for us of what is now done by means of Latin, as German does for German boys.

Let me sum up briefly. The features in German education which contribute largely to the success, or partial success, of the Frankfurt experiment, and which are lacking in England, are the uniformity of system in their schools, the different ideal which they set before themselves in classical teaching, and the careful preliminary training in the mother-tongue. In all three there is much that we may envy them, much that we may learn from them. We suffer as much from want of system as they do from being over-systematised. Some kind of ladder of subjects, some definite principle which shall forbid a boy to begin a second new language till he has reached a definite stage in the first, would be a great gain. No doubt also we tend to value too little that knowledge of facts and details which the Germans seem to over-estimate. Above all we need the preliminary grounding in English which they get in German.

FRANK FLETCHER.

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## THE METHOD OF TEACHING CLASSICS IN THE REFORM SCHOOLS IN GERMANY.

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It is my purpose to set forth the points in which the methods of classical teaching in the German Reform Schools differ from those in use in English Schools. The Reform Schools, which take French as their only foreign language in the first three years of the course, have set themselves the task of achieving in six years results which shall stand comparison on equal terms with the results achieved in nine years by the Gymnasia and Realgymnasia of the old style, and they have succeeded in the task. They have done more, they have succeeded in this shorter period of time in reading a far larger bulk of the classical Latin literature than was attempted a generation ago, even at the best Gymnasia of the old style. It is my business to show how they have done this, and to indicate the changes in the method and matter of teaching which have produced these most satisfactory results. In so doing, it will be natural to dwell chiefly on those features which differentiate the German methods of Latin instruction from the English, but it should be carefully premised that what I am describing is more or less common to all German schools, whether they are on the reform plan or not; also that I do not wish to imply that we have not in England in certain schools teachers who are doing work as good or even better. We have in England many islands of excellence; but the seas which separate the islands are deep and wide; in Germany there is what one would rather describe as a solid continent of sound achievement, not, it is true, all on one uniform plane—there are, of course, higher levels and lower—but all reaching a certain standard of attainment which would entitle a school in England to rank as first grade.

### TIME ALLOWANCE.

The German Gymnasia, whether on the reformed plan or not, give much more time to classics than the corresponding schools in England. In the Gymnasia, where Latin is begun at the age of 9-10, and Greek at the age of 12-13, eight hours a week are prescribed for Latin in the first five years of the course and seven hours in the last four years. In the Reform-Gymnasia Latin begins at the age of 12-13 in the fourth year of the course (*Untertertia*), and has no less than ten hours a week in the first two years and eight hours in the last three years. Greek is begun two years later with an allowance of eight hours a week right through to the end. In the reformed Realgymnasien Latin begins also in the fourth year, with eight hours a week of

the first two years, six hours in the next two years, and five hours in the last two years. It should be noted that the Realgymnasium has almost as many hours for Latin as the Gymnasium in the lower classes, for the reason that Latin of all subjects is the one which least admits of any lack of thoroughness in fundamentals. This is a considerably larger time allowance than is made in England at any school, except those which, like the great public schools, specialise in classics from the first. That the German Gymnasium does not in any sense specialise in classics is clear from the following analysis of the timetable, which show the classical languages in their relation to other subjects. It will be noted that the German school-boy's week has thirty-three hours, or thirty hours deducting gymnastics; it should not, however, be inferred that German teachers teach thirty hours a week, they seldom teach more than twenty.

**GYMNASIUM ON THE REFORM PLAN (FRANKFORT <sup>A</sup>/<sub>M</sub>).**

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B	III. A	II. B.	II. A	I. B	I. A
Approx. age-	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18
Divinity - -	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
German - -	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin - - -	-	-	-	10	10	8	8	8	8
Greek - - -	-	-	-	-	-	8	8	8	8
French - -	6	6	6	3	2	2	2	2	2
History and Geography	2	2	6	3	4	2	2	2	3
Mathematics	5	5	5	4	4	3	3	3	3
Nature Study	2	2	3	2	2	-	-	-	-
Physics - -	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
Writing - -	2	2	1	1	1	-	-	-	-
Drawing - -	-	2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-
Gymnastics -	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing - -	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
English	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
Hebrew	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2

Optional.

REALGYMNASIUM ON THE REFORM PLAN (FRANKFORT <sup>A</sup>/<sub>M</sub>).

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B	III. A	II. B	II. A	I. B	I. A
Approx. age -	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18
Divinity - -	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3
German - -	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3
Latin - - -	-	-	-	8	8	6	6	5	5
French - -	6	6	6	4	4	3	3	3	3
English - -	-	-	-	-	-	6	4	4	4
History and Geography -	2	2	6	4	4	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	5
Physics - -	-	-	-	-	-	3	2	4	4
Chemistry -	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	3
Nature Study	2	2	3	3	3	-	-	-	-
Writing - -	4	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Drawing - -	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Gymnastics -	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Singing - -	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

NOTE. There is another type of Reform School, the *Altona* type, which begins with French in VI. and V., adds English in IV., and Latin in III. B. A few schools of this type (*e.g.* Osnabrück) begin with English in VI. and add French in IV., Latin in III. B. But it is not necessary to discuss these schools separately, as there are only 10 of them, and they present no special distinctive features.

A second advantage that the German teacher possesses is the careful grading of the classes. The classes are large, most of them in the lower grade number about 40 boys, but they are uniform in attainment, they have all been taught on the same system, they are pretty much of an age, and there is, consequently, a greater evenness in the classes of a German school. Promotion is annual, but for all that there is not so much "tail" in a German as in an English class. Herein Germany enjoys the advantage of a country which organised Secondary Education more than 100 years ago. The course of a boy who is destined for Secondary Education is clearly mapped out; once he is launched upon that course there is no chopping or changing, he carries it through, at any rate to the point at which, by qualifying for promotion out of *Untersecunda*, he earns his certificate for one-year service in the

Army. The parent who intends his son to have a Secondary Education sends him, as a rule, to the *Vorschule*, a preparatory school, attached to the Secondary School, at the age of 6. After a three years' course in the *Vorschule*, the boy enters the lowest class of the Secondary School, the *Sexta*, normally at the age of 9. If the boy is sent to the Elementary School, he will have to take a four-year course there before entering the Secondary School; he cannot enter earlier, because it is not till the Fourth Standard that he learns the "Latin" (what we should call the "English") script and print. The boys, on entering the secondary school, are therefore fairly uniform in age and attainment, and they enter when the classes are made up at the beginning of the school year; there is no break in the gauge, the two systems are "end-on" with each other. Only, if the boy is to have a Secondary Education at all, his parent must not postpone the decision after the age of 10.

Directly the boy enters the lowest class of the Secondary School he begins a foreign language; if he enters a Reform School or a *Realschule*, he learns French, and does three years' French before he begins a second language. If he enters a *Gymnasium* or *Realgymnasium* of the old type, he begins at once with Latin, and does two years of Latin before he starts his second language, French. Once in the school, he moves up regularly once a year if he qualifies for promotion. If for two consecutive years he fails to qualify, he is superannuated. This case is, however, rare, because a man's social standing in Germany depends upon his obtaining the qualification for one year's service in the Army. The dread of missing this is so insistent that it enables the German teacher almost to do without any form of punishment. If a boy does not get his promotions, he misses his *Einjähriges Zeugnis*, he has to serve as an ordinary soldier, "*mit den Bauern*," for two years in barracks, and he labours under a social stigma for the rest of his life.

It may be thought, that under these circumstances there would be a general exodus from the school as soon as the required standard is reached. This is not the case. If a boy is destined for the University, for any of the learned professions, or for the higher branches of the Civil Service, he has to complete the full nine-year course of the first grade Secondary School (*Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium* or *Oberrealschule*), and in every large town there are special Secondary Schools with a six-year course provided (*Progymnasium*, *Realprogymnasium*, *Realschule*) for those who aim at the lower qualification. Even taking the case of a city which is predominantly commercial like Hamburg, we have the following figures. There are 5 schools with a full nine-year course. In these there were altogether:

	No. in IIb.	No. in IIa.	Shrinkage.
1903-4	310	254	19%
1904-5	341	281	18%

The percentage of shrinkage for the whole of Germany is about 20%.

This is one of the features in the German system which most strikes an English observer. It argues on the part of the German public in general a worthier conception of Secondary Education, a willingness to wait for its late harvest, and to make the sacrifices which waiting involves. They know what Secondary Education is, they value its advantage, they think ahead and count the cost, then, having once started their sons in a Secondary School, they carry the project through. Thus the Secondary School has in Germany the advantage which the Elementary School has in England, it can count on keeping the boy for a continuous period of at least six years, and it can plan out its course as a whole on that basis.

The main outlines of its curriculum, together with the time allowance for each subject, are prescribed by the Government. But since the issue of the Lehrpläne of 1901, there has been considerable elasticity, wherever a school was able to show a good thought-out case for variation; the very existence of the Reform Schools of differing type shows the willingness of the Government to admit careful experiment.

Before proceeding to discuss the method in detail, it may conduce to clearness if I here transcribe the curriculum for Greek and Latin of a typical Reform Gymnasium. The AIM is the same as in the gymnasia of the old type: "On the sure basis of grammatical discipline to secure that a pupil understands the more important classical authors, and is thereby introduced to the intellectual life and civilisation of antiquity."

#### GREEK.

*Untersecunda*—age 14-15.—Introduction to Attic accidence and chief syntax rules. Xenophon, *Anabasis* i., ii., iii. (first two chapters), iv. (chap. 7). Two exercises weekly, one in school and one out. 8 hours.

*Obersecunda*—age 15-16.—Completion of accidence. Syntax of case and sentence. Xenophon, *Hellenica* i., ii., iii. (selections). Herodotus, selections from i., ii., iii., vi. Homer, *Odyssey* i.-xiv. according to the canon. Homeric accidence and prosody.

32 written exercises; including several translations from the Greek. 8 hours.

*Unterprima*—age 16-17.—Plato, *Apology*, *Crito*, Selections from *Meno* and *Phædo*. Wilamowitz, Reader II 1, 4. Sophocles, *Antigone*. Homer, *Odyssey* xvi.-end. *Iliad* i., xv., xvi. Syntax.

32 written exercises, mostly done in school, chiefly translations from the Greek. 8 hours (6-7 given to translation, 1-2 given to grammar).

*Oberprima*—age 17-18.—Thucydides, i., ii., iii. (selections). Wilamowitz, Reader II 5, 6. Plato's *Republic*, *Allegory of the Cave* (Petersen's edition). Homer, *Iliad* xviii.-xxiv., Sophocles, any rate 1 exercise weekly, every third week a translation from *Untersecunda*. 8 hours (7 hours translation, 1 hour grammar).

## LATIN.

*Untertertia*—4th year of course, age 12-13.—The regular accidence of the 5 declensions and 4 conjugations, with the more important exceptions and irregular verbs. Deponents, modal and defective verbs. Reading book, 68 pages, with thorough knowledge of vocabulary used and regular practice in composition, oral and written. Syntax as arising out of the reading. 10 hours weekly.

*Obertertia*—5th year of course, age 13-14.—Cæsar: *De Bello Gallico*, i.-vi. (with omissions). Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, selections (amounting to 700 lines in all). Introduction to reading by thoroughgoing analysis and preparation conducted at first in class. Systematic revision of accidence and vocabulary learned in IIIb. Syntax of the compound sentence. Written exercise once a week in class and once every month at home. Repetition from Ovid. 6 hours weekly are given to reading, 4 to grammar.

*Untersecunda*—6th year of course, age 14-15.—Sallust, *Bellum Jugurthinum* (with omissions), Cicero, *in Catilinam* i., ii., iii. Cæsar: *De Bello Gallico*, vii., specially for translation at sight. Reproduction and *précis* of contents in Latin. Ovid, selections from *Metamorphoses*, 1,000 lines in all; repetition from Ovid. Syntax, continued, and exercises, oral and written, thereon. 8 hours weekly.

*Obersecunda*—7th year of course, age 15-16.—Livy, *xxi.*, *xxii.* or *xxiv.*, *xxv.* Cicero, *de Imperio Cn. Pompeii*, Sallust, *Catilina*, or Cicero, *in Catilinam* iv. Vergil, *Æneid* ii., with selections from i., iv., vi., xii. Reproductions and *précis* in Latin. Syntax and exercises, oral and written. 8 hours weekly.

*Unterprima*—8th year of course, age 16-17.—Tacitus, *Germania*, *Annals* i.-vi. (selections). Cicero, *pro Murena* or *In Verrem* iv. *Monumentum Ancyranum*. Suetonius, *Augustus*. Horace, *Odes* i.-iv. (selections), or according to a selection on biographical lines intended in two years' reading to cover the whole of Horace's poetry. Revision of grammar and syntax, notes on style and synonyms as suggested by author. Composition in connexion with the reading. 8 hours weekly.

*Oberprima*—9th year of course, age 17-18.—Tacitus, *Annals* xi.-xv. Cicero: Selected letters, *Somnium Scipionis* or *De Officiis* i. or selections from *Tusculan Disputations*, i., iv. Horace, selected Satires and Epistles or latter half of two years' course begun in Ib. Terence, *Phormio*, or Catullus, selections.

Composition once a week; extracts from German prose authors such as Mommsen, Roman History. 8 hours weekly.

## AIM.

One of the writers in "Essays on a Liberal Education" remarks that classical teachers in England are not yet decided whether boys are to learn Greek and Latin in order that they may read the classics, or whether they read the classics in order that they may learn Greek and Latin. In Germany there is no such uncertainty of aim. The aim is to introduce the pupil, by means of the literature, to the intellectual life and civilisation of antiquity. This at once differentiates the German aim from the English ideal of scholarship, that delicate sense of refinement in the use and appreciation of language which we in England specially regard as the fine flower of a classical education. This ideal of scholarship is not depreciated by German classicists, but they do not regard it as practicable for school-work; it is only one choice spirit here or there that has the power to attain to it, and to sacrifice the culture of the great mass of the pupils to the production of one or two such choice spirits seems to them neither just nor expedient. Their aim is information, not scholarship; it is not primarily æsthetic, but neither does it exclude the æsthetic culture. They recognise that for one boy who has the fine instinct for words there are fifty boys who have the instinct for things, and they believe that classical literature will appeal to this larger number, will, rightly handled, interest and inspire them with its content and its personalities, while the strict training in grammar and disciplined accuracy involved in the process of translation and composition will make their minds plastic, correct, logical, and effective. That a large number of boys will never obtain sufficient command over the medium used to obtain those results which are claimed for classical training, they will readily admit and will at once point out that the Reform system by taking French as the first language enables the teachers to recognise and sift out at the end of the third year those boys who do not show sufficient linguistic ability to profit by a classical course; much wearisome waste of time is thus avoided. But for boys of normal ability who can give the necessary time, the conviction is practically unanimous that a training in Latin is the best training they can get. It gives insight into the essential nature and laws of language, which is, as Wilamowitz says, "the most wonderful creation of human genius." Training in Latin is the best linguistic training, and linguistic training is the best training for that independent study and research which a German calls *wissenschaftliche Arbeit*. At the same time, it gives greater power of acquiring other languages, especially those of the Romance group. The constant translation from Latin into the mother-tongue and the comparison of the two languages affords an insight into the structure of the mother-tongue and a readiness in its use which are not otherwise obtained. Further, the study of Roman history in the original documents forms the best introduction to the study of the social and political questions of our own day; the historical understanding of these questions in the case of Greece and Rome is easier because the factors are so

comparatively simple, because we can see the whole process of cause and effect complete from the beginning to the end, and because we are detached from them ourselves and therefore approach the study without any partisan bias. The present is conditioned by the past; the Roman Empire, the Roman Law and Roman institutions have influenced every European nation; the historical understanding of present-day questions through knowledge of Rome must be the first step towards their solution.\*

Again, the study of Roman literature broadens out into matters of universal human interest; no author is more "human" than Horace, and the Ciceronian philosophy which is read in the last school year suggests the philosophic attitude of mind.†

Finally Latin literature has an ethical quality peculiarly adapted for assimilation by adolescence. It is full of brave deeds and devotion to country; the great sayings of the Romans stamp themselves on the memory and serve to counteract the namby-pamby softness and senility of modern thought. Modern literature has not the same simplicity, directness, and strength of *ethos*.‡

It is important to grasp clearly the aim of classical training as the Germans conceive of it, because it is so different from the English, and the difference of aim to no small extent accounts for the difference of method—the absence of all verse composition and the relative stress laid upon good translation rather than good prose composition. It is impossible to deny that the German ideal is considerably broader in its human aspect and less academic than the English, and, because it has these larger relations to modern life, is more likely to impress and fertilise the mind of the average boy. There is certainly nothing in it inconsistent with Matthew Arnold's definition of culture as "the acquainting ourselves with the best that has been known and said in the world and thus with the history of the human spirit."

It remains to discuss in detail the process by which German teachers carry out their aim.

\* These points are well brought out by O. Liermann, *Politische und Sozialpolitische Vorbildung durch das klassische Altertum*. Heidelberg, 1901. F. Bölke, *Das klassische Altertum und die höhere Schule*. Heidelberg, 1900. R. Pöhlmann, *Das Altertum und die Gegenwart*. Beck, Munich.

Compare Prof. Freeman's saying that Greek history is the best elementary text-book of political philosophy, and Schopenhauer: "The man who knows no Latin is like a man who moves through beautiful scenery in a fog; his horizon is extremely limited; he sees only what is close at hand, if he ventures a few paces out of the beaten track, he is lost in the vague and the undefined. . . . The man without Latin belongs to the 'masses,' however expert he may be at electricity and the analysis of fluor spar."

† Montaigne: "A d'aucuns c'est un pur estude grammairien, à aultres l'anatomie de la philosophie par laquelle les plus abstruses parties de nostre nature se pénètrent."

‡ The indirect moral teaching of Cæsar is well brought out in a volume on *Suggestion in Education*, by W. M. Keatinge, p. 173 ff.: S. Augustine finds in the Roman's utter self-devotion to the earthly state the type and pattern of what the Christian's devotion should be to the kingdom of heaven.

## CO-ORDINATION OF KNOWLEDGE.

"The new which it has is old and the old is ever entwined with the new."  
—*Prof. Jowett* (speaking of Oxford).

It is recognised that Latin cannot stand as a subject by itself; that which is isolated has no mental adhesion. Every new addition to knowledge must be linked on to the ideas already subsisting in the mind. The pupil who is to be introduced to a new subject always brings with him a certain stock of knowledge which bears some relation or other, however vague, to the new subject. The teacher's first duty, therefore, is to bring into the mental focus by skilful questioning those ideas which are serviceable for the new acquirement, and take care that with each fresh acquisition the closest connexion is established both between the new ideas in themselves and between them and the knowledge previously existing.

To this psychological theory of apperception more regard is paid by teachers of Latin in all German schools than with us, because all teachers are trained, and, so far as the theory of apperception is concerned, all teachers are Herbartian. In the Reform schools, the boy of 12–13 years brings to the new subject of Latin a far larger stock of ideas than the 9-year-old Sextaner of the unreformed school. He has learned his grammar thoroughly from the instruction in the mother-tongue. In Sexta he has learned to decline and conjugate and thereby has obtained clear notions of case and person and mood and tense: he has learned the parts of speech and the parts of the simple sentence, working out the latter with the finite verb as his starting point; he has learned to distinguish the adjective used as predicate from the adjective used as attribute, and knows the other different methods of expressing attribute; he has learned the difference between the direct and remoter object and the various kinds of adverbial expression. In Quinta and Quarta he learns the structure of the compound sentence, he learns how to mark off subordinate sentences by punctuation and how to classify them in their relation to the principal sentence according to the part of speech which they replace or the part of the sentence to which they belong; all this is drilled into him by constant practice in sentence analysis and sentence construction, so that his different grammatical categories are clearly defined in his mind.

Moreover, he has had three years' experience already with a foreign language; he has been taught French as a living language, not as though it were a matter for the deaf and dumb. He has acquired hereby plasticity of mind and power of expression, and to regard translation not as a matter of substituting certain words for certain other words, but as a reclothing of thought in another dress. The child's first introduction to the idea of a foreign language is of the greatest importance to its linguistic education later on. If it begins with a language so remote from its own experience as Latin, the first impression of language is apt to be one of "dead words." But with French taught on

the reform method the impression is quite different, the foreign language is a way of expressing experience or feeling.

On this basis of grammatical knowledge and this experience of a foreign language the teacher can base his first instruction in Latin. Not only so, but the boy has had in Quinta a careful selection of stories from the mythology and heroic legends of Greece and Rome; this has been followed up in Quarta with a one year's course in Greek and Roman History. The Untertertianer knows therefore who these Latins are whose language he is going to learn, and is able to link up what he learns in organic sequence with what he has already learned.

The result of this careful preparation, or propædeutic, is that in one year's intensive work at Latin the teacher is able to cover the ground which would have taken between two and three years, had he begun at 9 instead of at 12. The boy of 12 thus prepared is ready to reason, he has an idea of system and law, he can generalise and arrange his knowledge methodically in his mind, he learns his accidence more rapidly because he grasps the underlying principle of word formation and modification; he does not need to have an "easified" Latin book about donkeys and hoops written down to his level, he starts at once with real Latin sentences, and feels his way gradually, without losing his foothold, into the construction of the different cases and subordinate sentences.

The results of this careful preparation are astonishing. An average class begins Cæsar in its second year, and in the course of the year reads the first five books through and selections from Book VI. together with 700 lines of Ovid. The same teacher, who does this with his second year Latin class on the reform system, tells us how, working under the old system, and beginning Cæsar in the third year, he took the whole year slowly ploughing his way through the first book.\*

This same careful attention to the synthesis of knowledge is apparent throughout. When they come to a new rule to be learned in syntax, the pupils are referred to the sentences in which this rule has already been exemplified in the Reading Book; they have noted these as isolated appearances as they read the book, now they put together these isolated examples and induce the rule.

Again, in the choice of reading the same principle obtains. Directly Cæsar is finished, they follow on with Cicero's speech, *de Imperio Cn. Pompeii*. This gives them a glowing description of Cæsar's great rival, and after studying the ideal of the great general, which Cicero presents in that speech, the pupils will write essays discussing how far Alexander the Great and Frederick the Great, and other great generals whom they have met in their history, fulfil Cicero's idea.

In the same way the reading of Vergil's *Æneid* ii. is made to coincide with Lessing's *Laocoon*, and the discussion of the Laocoon statue group provides an introduction to Greek art. German lyric poets are read at the same time as Horace's Odes;

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\* J. Wulff, *Der lateinische Anfangsunterricht im Frankfurter Lehrplan*. Kesselring, Leipzig, 1902.

Lessing's *Hamburger Dramaturgie* at the same time as Horace's Second Book of *Epistles* and *Ars Poetica*. The subjects set for German Composition are chosen with a view to weaving threads of interest in the pupil's mind to and fro between the various subjects of the instruction, thus making one subject support another, and cultivating a sense of the unity of all knowledge. Thus they are told to compare two different countries, about which they have been learning, say in their Latin and their Geography or History, the points of the comparisons to be treated are worked out by the teacher with the co-operation of his class: soil-cultivation, flora, fauna, inhabitants, institutions, modes of intercourse and warfare, religions, etc. Or they are told to compare the Greek mercenary army of their Xenophon with the armies of Persia, of Alexander the Great, of the early Germans, of Rome. With us too frequently the co-ordination of knowledge is left to manage itself in the child's mind. No one can study German Schools or their treatises on methods of instruction and the planning of curricula† without being impressed with the skill and care with which one subject is linked up with another, and preparation is made beforehand for each new stage of progress.

In the Latin work throughout one is impressed by the way in which the grammar and exercise books all work on the same vocabulary as is provided by the reading book or author used for translation, so that the same word material is being used over and over again for different purposes, and thereby becoming more thoroughly welded into the mind. There is no wastage of effort, nothing is learned *in futuram oblivionem*. The German, French, and Latin grammars are all constructed on the same model, they use the same terminology and the same classification, so that a pupil is not confused by finding the same grammatical feature differently denominated, when he passes to a new language. As the reading and grammar are definitely allotted to each form, the examples chosen to illustrate the syntax are for the most part drawn from the reading of the forms to which that portion of syntax is assigned. Matthew Arnold complained that "every one of the grammars following a different system, the student masters the rationale of none of them, in consequence, after all his labours, he often ends by possessing of the science of grammar nothing but a heap of terms jumbled together in inextricable confusion." The same could have been said of German schools until the Reform Schools, following Professor Sonnenschein's admirable lead, devised their series of Parallel Grammars.

Another point that impressed one was the way in which each Latin lesson formed a complete whole in itself. It did not end abruptly with the sound of the bell; it took a distinct piece of work, translation, or composition, or grammar, and rounded it off in the period; there were no loose threads left hanging out. The same unifying principle of concentration is carried out in the

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† See especially *Handbuch für Lehrer höherer Schulen* (Teubner, Leipzig, 1906), and P. Dettweiler, *Didaktik und Methodik des lateinischen Unterrichts* (Beck, Munich, 1906).

reading of classical authors, as I shall have occasion to point out later on.

The danger of distraction is probably greater in German Secondary Schools than in our own because of the system of *Fachlehrer* for special subjects. In this respect the reform movement has produced a certain amount of reaction, especially in the lower and middle portions of the school, where the evils of distraction are greatest. The Latin teacher is usually the form master and takes the German of his form as well as the Latin, sometimes also the French or History. At some of the best schools the teacher moves up with his class, and the master who has taught the French and German in the three first years of the course gives his pupils also the first start in Latin. This represents a great economy of force, and contributes in no small measure to assist that personal knowledge of pupils and parents on which the Government educational authorities are beginning to lay more stress.\* The problem of co-ordination is also one which constantly engages the attention of masters' meetings; one of the secrets of the success of the Frankfurt schools is confessedly the way in which the teachers have worked together with one mind and will and heart towards the common goal.

#### ORAL WORK.

"Ist eine Sprache denkbar ohne Sprechen? Und wenn nicht, kann es einen Sprachunterricht geben ohne einen Unterricht im Sprechen?"—*H. Perthes.*

There is no dead-aliveness about the German classroom. When a question is put, it is put not in the first instance to an individual but to the class as a whole; those who know (or think they know) the answer signify in the usual manner, sometimes with considerable vigour, by holding up their hand. The boy who is called on to answer rises smartly in his place. Any boy at any moment is ready to run to the board and write according to the teacher's direction. If it is a Greek lesson, each boy strikes the accent of the word he uses with his hand. All this physical activity helps to counteract mental torpor: *mens attenta in corpore attento*, as Perthes† happily expresses it. But the chief feature which distinguishes their classical work from ours is the large part which oral work plays in the class teaching.

For this development of the oral teaching classicists are undoubtedly indebted to the '*Neuere Richtung*' of the modern language teachers. The scientific argument for the use of speech in teaching languages has been convincingly stated by Prof. Clifford Allbutt.‡ The physiologist's argument based on a study of brain-processes is abundantly fortified by the experience of the classroom. Oral work not only saves the eyes and saves time, it clarifies thought, strengthens memory, and gives readiness and

\* *Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben für die höheren Schulen in Preussen*, 1901, p. 75. Halle, 1901.

† H. Perthes, *Zur Reform des lateinischen Unterrichts*, 4ter Artikel, p. 161. Weidmann, Berlin, 1886.

‡ Classical Association Proceedings, January, 1906, p. 19ff. London, 1906.

nimbleness to the wit. "The correct expression of a truth not only tests but assists its comprehension and gives it the requisite solidity and permanence."\* Comenius, who anticipated the whole idea of the reform method, was strong on the speaking and even the acting of Latin. "*Omnis lingua usu potius discitur quam praeceptis, id est, audiendo, legendo, relegendi, imitationem manu et lingua temptando quam creberrime,*" and he works out four reasons for the conversational use of Latin. Above all, the free use of spoken Latin adds life to the instruction. Getting up the mere bookish form of a language as presented to the eye is a one-sided, wearisome, deadening business for boys who tingle to their finger tips with animal spirits. It is at best a sort of educational mechanics, which misses all the nice balance and grace of verse, all the strong roll and emphasis of prose; these have no meaning except as addressed to the ear. Nothing gives so much actuality to classical teaching as making boys recite and speak Latin.

• But though the developing of oral work owes so much to the '*Neuere Richtung*,' it must not be supposed that the oral work in the Latin or Greek lesson proceeds on the same lines as that of the French lesson. There is hardly any attempt to use Latin for the ordinary affairs of the classroom or for matters of ordinary intercourse.† Up till 1890 the Primaner spoke (or were supposed to speak) Latin among themselves in school hours, but the result was such a barbarous jargon, so utterly uncondusive to accuracy or '*Sprachgefühl*,' that the practice was utterly discredited. What form then does the oral work take?

(i.) In the translation, as soon as a chapter is finished, one of the boys is called upon to read the whole chapter through in Latin, any mistake in quantity or pronunciation being at once put right by some member of the class. Great stress is laid on intelligent reading, the proper pauses must be preserved, and the emphatic words duly emphasised. When at the next lesson the translation is revised, all books are closed and the teacher reads the Latin sentence by sentence, calling on members of the class to translate. The effect of this practice on the attention of the class is most marked: it forces them to pick up Latin by the ear, and certainly counteracts all tendency to word for word translation by forcing the boy to think rather in terms of the sentence than the isolated word.

(ii.) After a section has been gone through carefully, all books are turned over and the teacher puts questions based on the text to the class. Each answer must be a complete sentence in itself, and the word which answers the question must come first in the answer. This exercise trains to careful observation in the reading of the text and plasticity of expression. In the first lessons, this reproduction of question and answer will perhaps be used after

\* F. Reidt, *Anleitung zum mathematischen Unterricht an höheren Schulen*. Berlin, 1886.

† An exception is the Reform Realgymnasium at Barmen, where Dr. Michaelis experiments on the same lines as Dr. Rouse at the Perse School. There may be other schools, but they are few.

each sentence in the reader; the question words used—*quis? quid? cur? quando? quot?*—are written on the blackboard and are easily picked up. This is, of course, practically an exercise in retroversion, and might easily develop into a mere parrot repetition if the teacher did not vary his questions skilfully. As soon as facility is acquired, a longer section, say a whole story, is taken, and the following may serve as a sample:—*Cum adolescentulus Romanus in castris amicis clipeum pulcrum et splendidum monstraret, Marius: "Cur laudas," inquit, "clipeum tuum? strenuorum Romanorum fiducia non in sinistra sed in dextra est."*

This is the seventeenth piece in Wulff's Reader, and would be taken approximately in the eighth week of learning Latin.

MASTER. *Quid adolescentulus monstravit?*

BOY. *Clipeum splendidum et pulcrum monstravit.*

M. *Cui monstravit?*

B. *Amicis suis monstravit.*

M. *Ubi monstravit?*

B. *In castris Romanis monstravit.*

M. *Quis castris tum praeerat?*

B. *Marius castris praeerat.*

M. *Quid Marius id spectans exclamavit?*

B. *Ne laudaveris clipeum tuum.*

M. *Quid adolescentulo Romano laudandum est?*

B. *Gladius adolescentulo Romano laudandus est.\**

During the first year the teacher will be content if the pupil in his answer simply rings the changes on the words used by the teacher in his questions: later on he expects the boy to cast his answer in quite a different mould and show some power of self-expression. The boys, too, become keen at showing how well they can do it. In the top classes, at the beginning of a translation lesson one or two of the pupils are called upon to give a short *résumé* or *précis* of the previous lesson in Latin, and this will be followed by a few questions in Latin by the teacher, intended to supplement the narrative or to bring out some point that was not clear. The boys in the top classes gave these *résumés* without any fumbling in quite passable Latin; any mistake was at once corrected by their vigilant classmates. The whole showed a sense of mastery, and the joy that mastery gives: '*possunt quia posse videntur.*' But such results would not be possible unless in the lower classes boys had been habituated to pick up Latin by the ear and express themselves in Latin

\* This dialogue is taken from a brochure by Dr. Michaelis, *Welche Förderung kann der lateinische Unterricht an den Reformschulen durch das Französische erfahren?* Elwert, Marburg, 1902. Dr. Michaelis goes on to say how he has developed his oral system at Barmen. The whole booklet is very suggestive and practical, but unfortunately it is now out of print.

simply and shortly. Similarly boys in the third year were called upon to read a piece of *oratio obliqua* into direct speech.

(iii.) Other exercises are in connexion with vocabulary. Boys will be instructed to go through their back reading and put together all the words they find connected with the fleet, the army, the town, its buildings, its inhabitants, its government, &c., and the teacher will conduct a small dialogue on this vocabulary.

*Quid in oppido videtis? Templâ, vias, aedificia, portam, monumenta, fluvium, pontes videmus.*

Then appropriate adjectives are elicited.

*Quis in oppido habitat? Homines, viri, feminae, pueri, liberi in oppido habitant.*

This oral composition is not meant to prevent or proscribe written composition; on the contrary, it paves the way for it by inducing a sort of grammatical conscience which recognises a fault at once by an instinct bred of habit, and in this way written composition is saved from a mass of preventible blunders. The whole of the composition is done orally during the first few weeks of learning Latin; it is based on the reader, a sentence with the singular is turned into the plural or *vice versa*, the tense, or person, or voice is altered, adjectives are inserted and so on. Not until the way has been thus carefully prepared does the teacher ask for a written composition. He knows how much of a small boy's attention is absorbed by the very process of writing, the average boy of 12 cannot write and think at the same time, and therefore it is wiser to prevent the occurrence of mistakes than after their occurrence to try to eradicate them. The advice of Quintilian is followed out: "*scribendo dicimus diligentius, dicendo scribimus facilius.*"\*

#### GRAMMAR.

*Qui nescit partes, in vanum tendit ad artes.*

"Latin speech was before the rules and not the rules before the Latin speech."—*Dean Colet's introduction to his Latin Grammar.*

The German teacher recognises as readily as the Englishman that it is the logical clearness and exactness of the Latin Grammar which entitles it to the premier place it now holds as an instrument of education. Indeed, during the last half-century and up to within the last twenty years, Grammar has been even more a fetish with the Germans than with us. The immense advance of scientific philology invaded the school grammars, and padded them out into unwieldy dimensions with lists of exceptions and elaborate stylistic rules. It was thought that a grammar to be scientific must be, above all things, complete. When I was myself in the Quinta of a German gymnasium, I learned long rules for genders which I have long since forgotten. For every Latin word I learned a German word, but to the great majority of these words in the long lists there was no intelligible

\* See Dr. Rouse, Latin composition, *Classical Review*, August 1907.

idea attached in my mind; they were absolutely dead matter in my experience and waste products which clogged the mental processes. I remember the word *curculio*, it fixed itself in my memory because the sound of the word tickled me. I learned that it meant a "weevil," but what a "weevil" might be I had no idea until long after I had left school. Later on I was taught that *mihi nomen est Marcus* was rare and *mihi nomen est Marco* was the normal Latin; the latter occurs seven times in Cicero, the former only five times. There was some similar fiction based on Ciceronian statistics about *mihi crede* and *crede mihi*. Such were some of the crimes against youth perpetrated in the name of scientific thoroughness. Against all this insanity there was not unnaturally a strong, almost a violent, reaction. The Lehrpläne of 1890 swept a whole mass of useless ballast out of the German school grammars. "We live in an age of attenuated Grammars," said one of the teachers. The reaction went too far, and there were many complaints at the end of the century of the fluidity of the boys' Grammar, as evinced by the Leaving Examinations. Accordingly, the Lehrpläne of 1901 laid more stress upon accurate training in Grammar, and assigned half of the Latin hours to grammar up to and including *Untersecunda*.\* At the same time, teachers are not to teach anything beyond what is of frequent occurrence and characteristic—anything of rare occurrence and exceptional is to be passed over with a short word of explanation but not drilled in.

Latin grammar is, therefore, to some extent reinstated; the freer conversational methods of teaching modern languages have made the necessity of it even more evident than before. In the first three years, as has been stated, grammatical training is obtained mainly through the mother-tongue. From *Tertia* onwards Latin Grammar takes its place. But the method is changed; it is no longer the old memorising of declensions, conjugations, and syntax-rules which made boys of the old generation regard Latin as being chiefly a stern phalanx of declinable nouns and conjugable verbs. "The sentence must be taken as the basis" is now the cardinal instruction: "*vom Satze ausgehen*." Grammar is to be learned by the language, not the language by the grammar.

One may take as a sample of procedure the first lesson in the Reading book (*Wulff*):

(1) *Minerva dea erat sapientias et litterarum.* (2) *Incolis terrae Atticae Minerva oleam donavit.* (3) *Inprimis Athenae florebant doctrinā et litteris.* (4) *Incolae Athenarum aras Minervae coronis ornabant.*

The teacher reads the whole of the passage slowly. The pupils can see it is about Minerva, and they have learned about her and Athens in a previous class. The words which are unknown are explained, wherever possible, by connecting them with French or words of foreign derivation in their own language. So *déesse* suggests the meaning of *dea*; *lettre* suggests *litterarum*; *terre*

\* This applies only to the schools of the old style. In the Reform Gymnasium four hours are given to Grammar as against six to Reading in *Tertia* A and B.

suggests *terra*; *donner* suggests *donavit*; *fleurir* suggests *florebant*, and so on. The meaning of the different forms is explained and they are written on the board with the meaning, special attention being called to the endings as determining the case. Here we have the rough beginnings of a paradigm. Then one of the pupils is called upon to translate. In translating he must analyse the sentence aloud, starting with the principal verb and getting at the other parts of the sentence from that starting point. The teacher is careful not to interrupt; the utmost he does is to suggest by means of helpful questions. Interruption of any kind checks the train of thought which may be on the point of working out to the right solution; and in any case it prevents the teacher from seeing what the scholar can do by himself and how far his own explanations have been satisfactory. When the scholar has given his translation, good or bad, the mistakes are corrected with the help of the whole class, and the pupils are accustomed to put corrective questions to their classmate: "Which word is subject? What case is —?" &c. Towards the end of the lesson the missing forms of the paradigm are filled in and the whole memorised.

The principle of induction is more easily carried out in the syntax. Take, for instance, the uses of the ablative case. In the first reading piece they have "*florebant doctrina et litteris*," where the ablative expresses the matter in respect of which; then comes *aras coronis ornabant*, where the ablative expresses the instrument or means. In the next piece they get *in tutela, in viis, in lucis*, where the ablative with preposition *in* answers the question "where?" Soon after comes *e fenestris spectamus silvam*, where with the preposition *e* it answers the question "where from?" and closely connected with this is the next instance, *natura timidus*, denoting here the point of view from which the man is regarded and suggesting at once the French idiom "*Silésien d'origine, orpheline de père*." It is the business of the teacher to group all these meanings together, building each new appearance as it occurs on to those that have preceded it and gradually developing in organic sequence the idea of the ablative case. This being done, it is no great step from *nocte media to sole oriente, ineunte vere*, and the uses of the (so-called) ablative absolute.

A skilful use of the analogies in the mother language helps towards the grasp of the Latin idiom. We want to lead up to the accusative and infinitive which occurs in the next piece in the reading book. Instead of starting with the rule "After verbs *declarandi et sentiendi* the subject stands in the accusative case and the verb in the infinitive mood, the predicate agrees with the subject in the accusative," we refer back to two sentences which have already occurred in the reading book. "*Videmus stellas in caelo esse*." "*Credo hominem probum esse*." These may be literally translated and similarly we may say "I know the man to be honest." "*Scio hominem probum esse*." But, while we cannot say "I hear the man to be honest," still less, "I hear the man to have been ejected," or "to be about to die," this is

the regular way of stating a fact after a verb of knowing, thinking or stating in Latin. Then the translation may begin; each sentence with the new construction is written on the board, the principles of the construction are noted once more and are formulated by the class. Immediately they are exercised *viva voce* in the new construction, using the words of the sentences just construed and the rest of the available vocabulary and ringing the changes on the sentences by varying the gender, number, voice, etc., until every member of the class is familiar with the formidable phenomenon. Then, and not till then, the Grammar is opened; the rule is read and the examples to be memorised are fixed and underlined.

One of the features of the Reform Readers is that in the Vocabulary (*Wortkunde*), which is a separate book, there are at certain intervals collections of the syntactical usages which have occurred, and the points in which the Latin idiom differs from German are specially noted. In the same way the vocabulary gives the French words, which are derived from the Latin.\*

Masters are constantly asking, "What other instances of the accusative case have we had?" A boy in reply gives a Latin sentence out of the reader, translates it, and says what the function of the accusative was in that sentence; another boy gives another sentence in the same way illustrating another use, and so on. Thus I found a class which had learned Latin for no longer than four months was able to give without hesitation instances of *cum causale* taking the subjunctive, *cum historicum* also taking subjunctive, *cum temporale* and *cum iterativum* with the indicative. The same class, on reaching a simple sentence with *oratio obliqua*, were asked, "Is this the only construction after verbs of declaring and perceiving?" Answer, "No, there is *non dubito quin...* with the subjunctive." "How do you translate this?" "I do not doubt that..." "What other ways are there of translating *that*?" "*Oraverunt ut...*" "How do you translate the negative of *that*? They begged them *not to...*" "*Oraverunt ut ne...*" In each case the boy in answering quoted a complete sentence from the reader. The teacher, after the class, showed me his book, in which he had carefully noted with red ink the sentences where he had called attention to new forms of accidence, and with green ink the sentences which had served to "induce" some rule of syntax.

I heard also a lesson to a first year Greek class, which had learned Greek for four months. The object of the lesson was to open up the way for the contracted verbs. The teacher started with recalling the declension of *γένος* and *πόλις*, which were already known. From these declensions he induced certain rules of contraction  $\epsilon\epsilon = \epsilon\iota$ ,  $\epsilon\omicron = \omicron\upsilon$ ,  $\epsilon\omega = \omega$ . These were written on the board and supplemented with  $\omicron\epsilon = \omicron\upsilon$  (which had occurred in the form *πrouβαλον* in the Reader), and the teacher told them

\* J. Wulff, *Lateinisches Lesebuch für den Anfangsunterricht* (Weidmann, Berlin); *ibid.*, *Wortkunde zu dem Lateinischen Lesebuch* (Weidmann, Berlin); *ibid.*, *Der lateinische Anfangsunterricht im Frankfurter Lehrplan*. (Kesselring, Leipzig, 1902)

that  $\epsilon$  was absorbed in a following long vowel so that  $\epsilon\eta = \eta$ ,  $\epsilon\upsilon = \upsilon$ ,  $\epsilon\omicron = \omicron$ . "Now we can proceed to conjugate  $\pi\omega\lambda\acute{\omega}$  right through. What is the stem?" " $\pi\omega\lambda\epsilon$ ." This was written up. "Now add your endings and contract." In ten minutes the class had themselves given correctly all the contracted tenses of the verb, and were told to look them up in their Grammar, and memorise them for next time. I have a note also of a Latin class which after one or two premonitory words hammered out for themselves the declension of *acer*, *acris*, *acre*. Accidente loses its terrors when boys find that each new stage gives them the power to induce a still further stage.

It is easy to see how such induction adds interest to the class, and gives it a sense of finding out things for itself and doing things by itself; there is no better way of making knowledge stick, and there is no better incentive to persevering effort than such heuresis. There is quite as much of it in the schools of the old (unreformed) type, perhaps more, because the boy of 12-13 already has his grammatical categories clearly defined in his head and readily fits the new knowledge into its mental frame-work. The fact is that with a second language the inductive process is not so necessary. Induction, the passing from the particular to the general, is the process by which knowledge is acquired by the growing mind: deduction, the passing from the general to the particular, is the process of maturer knowledge. The German teacher uses first induction to secure his working hypothesis or rule; having established this, he at once uses deduction by applying the rule to a whole set of instances.

The chief noteworthy points about the Grammars now in use are easily summarised.

(1.) In the early stages there is no special grammar book. Reader, exercises, and Grammar are contained all in the same book. When on beginning to read Cæsar a boy gets a Grammar, he gets the Grammar which he is going to use all the way up the school, because the German teacher believes in localisation as a help to memory.

(2.) The syntax part of the Grammar is interleaved, and the boy enters examples from his own reading by way of illustration, giving in each case a complete sentence and the reference.

(3.) There is no attempt at completeness. All "freaks" are omitted (*e.g.*, the Greek declension in Latin). Gender rules are cut down to two or three pages, and lists of exceptional genders have an appropriate adjective attached to learn with the noun, *e.g.*, *pes nudus*, *lex Manilia*, *collis propinquus*, *Mensis Martius*, *porticus publica*. When the noun declined by way of paradigm is a person, *a* or *ab* is always prefixed to the ablative case, *e.g.*, *a puero*, *a milite*, *a principe*, and this rule is strictly observed in repeating the declensions.

(4.) Useless ballast disappears; *e.g.*, the perfect of *eo* is *ii*, not *ivi* or *ii*, because *ivi* never occurs in classical Latin; similarly the only nouns of the fourth declension which need to form their

dative and ablative plural in *ubus* are *tribus*, *artus*, *lacus*, and for *artus* there is the obvious excuse that otherwise it would be indistinguishable in dative and ablative plural from *ars*.

(5.) The examples are taken from the authors read in those classes to which the particular portions of syntax are assigned. For instance, syntax of cases is learned in *Quarta*, the author read in that class is *Nepos*; hence examples of case syntax are selected from the lives of *Nepos* which are usually read in *Quarta*. Similarly, syntax of moods and tenses is illustrated by sentences from *Cæsar*.

(6.) The stress laid on the complete sentence is very marked. If a boy makes a mistake in grammar, he is told to construct three sentences containing the correct form and produce them next day. If a boy has forgotten a word, instead of another boy being asked to supply the word, he is called upon to quote a sentence in which the word has already occurred, so that the sense may be recalled by the help of the setting in which it occurred. To teach grammar in this way through sense is to let a boy see something of the law that lies behind rules, and give him, as Dr. Ziemer says, "a glimpse into the workshop of the human mind at work on the creation of language."

(7.) A certain number of hours per week is required by the Regulations to be given to grammar (four hours in the first two years), but it is quite exceptional to devote a whole hour to nothing but grammar; usually not more than half an hour at one time is given.

#### TRANSLATION.

"Mind grows, not like a vegetable, by having its roots littered with etymological compost, but like a spirit by mysterious contact with spirit, thought kindling itself at the living fire of thought."—*Carlyle*.

The two greatest changes which have taken place in all German Classical Schools in the last generation are: (i) There is a great reduction in the amount of translation into Latin, and a corresponding increase in the amount of translation from Latin. (ii) Whereas formerly in reading the text the author was treated mainly as providing examples for the illustration of *Madvig's* or *Buttmann's Grammar* and the subject-matter was treated with indifference, now the reverse is the case—the subject-matter is everything, and grammar subserves the purpose of making its meaning clear. This is really a corollary of (i).

It is one of the advantages of beginning Latin late that the pupil does not require to spend two years over an "easified" Latin reader, such as the Germans call "*Fibel*," a type of book over-abundantly represented in the educational literature of England. The Romans had no authors who wrote for children; either, therefore, we must supply the deficiency of Roman literature in this respect ourselves, or we must postpone Latin until an age when boys can be expected to understand the language of *Cæsar*, the simplest of all Latin writers, and be interested in the story he has to tell. If we choose the former

alternative, we are tying boys down for at least two years to a Latin text, which at any rate is not written by Latins (I will not say it is not Latin), and involves learning a vocabulary not needed for the reading of real Latin authors.

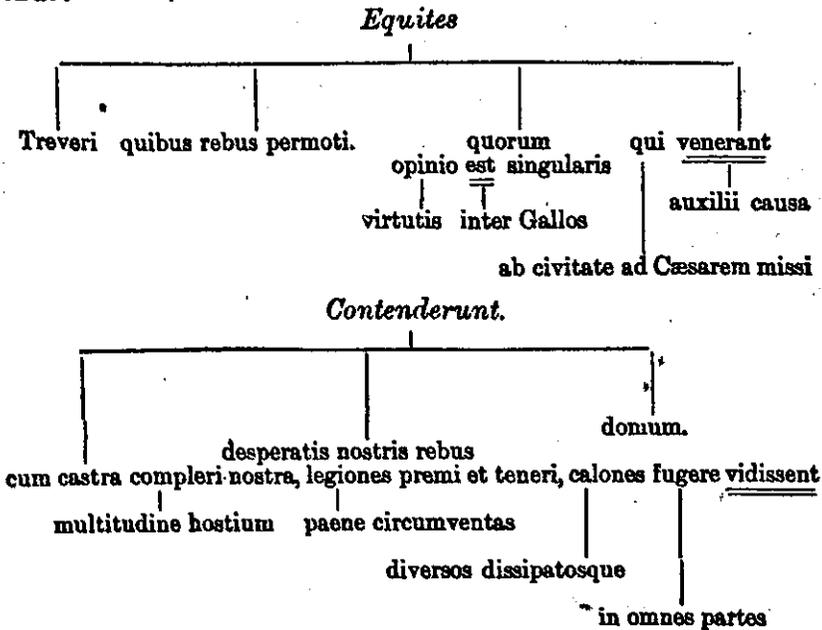
Yet, even for a boy of 13-14 years, who has an average aptitude for languages, the first plunge into Cæsar is hard; the Germans recognise frankly that many of the difficulties he presents are greater than they can expect boys to solve for themselves, and therefore to set a boy down to Cæsar with no hint or help except a dictionary is either to make him despair or practically to drive him to the use of subterfuges which will make possible the impossible. Every teacher recognises that the use of "cribs" depraves both mind and morals, and therefore his first duty is to train the boy, who means honestly by his work, to feel that he can do without them.\* It is like teaching a boy to swim, one must hold up his chin until he begins to feel that he can go by himself. Accordingly, during the first half-year of Cæsar all the preparation is done in class with the teacher, and all the boy has to do at home is to revise carefully what has been so prepared. The method of this preparation is somewhat as follows. The teacher in a few sentences introduces the subject and gives an idea of what it is they are going to translate. If it is the first chapter of Cæsar's Gallic War, he will briefly recall by questions what they know from their history about Julius Cæsar; he will then point out that here we have a great general acting as his own special war correspondent, and why this campaign is of so great interest and importance for modern times; then a boy will point out on the map "all Gaul" and its constituent divisions. Next, the teacher reads the first sentence, carefully grouping together those words which are connected in sense. The class finds out the predicate and that is translated; starting from the predicate they work out the meaning of the different parts of the sentence. An actual instance will make this method clear; it is pretty much the same as in England. Take Cæsar, *de Bello Gallico*, ii, 24, 4:—

*"Quibus rebus permoti—equites Treveri,—quorum—inter Gallos—virtutis opinio—est singularis,—qui—auxilii causa—ab civitate—ad Cæsarem missi—venerant,—cum—multitudine hostium—castra compleri nostra,—legiones premi—et paene circumventus teneri,—calones,—equites—funditores,—Numidas—diversos dissepitosque—in omnes partes fugere—vidissent,—desperatis nostris rebus—domum contenderunt."*

The teacher will give the class in two or three short sentences the general drift of the passage "The Treveri had sent their cavalry to support Cæsar, but, when they arrived on the scene

\* H. Perthes speaks very strongly on this point: "Die Schule hat eine heilige Pflicht den Gefahren, welche die weitverbreitete Benutzung unerlaubter Hilfsmittel für die Wahrhaftigkeit unserer Jugend in sich schliesst, mit allem Ernste entgegenzutreten." See *Zur Reform des lateinischen Unterrichts auf Gymnasien und Realschulen*, by Hermann Perthes, p. 19. Weidmann, Berlin, 1885. (Reprinted from the *Zeitschrift für Gymnasialwesen*, Jahrgang XXVII, 1873.)

and saw the Roman soldiers so hard pressed and the panic flight of the auxiliary troops, they thought it was all over with Cæsar and his army, and made off home again." Then the teacher reads the passage slowly and clearly, taking pains to group the words according to their sense, as is indicated by the dashes. If the subordinate sentences are not sufficiently indicated in the text with commas, he tells the class to put in the supplementary commas for the sake of clearness. Then he asks, "How many main sentences have we here?" "One." "Which is the main verb?" "*Contenderunt.*" "What is the subject?" The subject, you remember, marches like the general at the head of the column and the verb brings up the rear. "What is the subject?" "*Equites Treveri.*" "Does it march at the head of the column?" "No." "Why not?" "Because there is something said about it." "Why is that something put first?" "Because it is closely connected with the sentence immediately preceding." "What word shows that?" "*Quibus.*" Then *Treveri domum contenderunt* is translated and written by a boy on the board; there is always a boy ready to act as junior demonstrator, and there are always plenty of keen eyes to watch him and see he does his business properly. Then the subordinate sentences are taken separately, beginning with the participial adjunct "*Quibus rebus permoti.*" The teacher asks if any word is not known, and, if possible, he ferrets out the meaning by means of Latin or French words which they know already. The word "*maior*" cropped up on one occasion, and was promptly connected with the *Maiordomis* they had in their history, with French *maire* and the common German surname *Meyer*. Finally, when each subordinate sentence has been translated and its connexion with the main sentence ascertained, the whole period will be analysed by the "junior demonstrator" on the board, the class directing him. thus:—



Then the teacher will proceed to show how the literal construe gives them a sentence which is not really German; if Cæsar had been a German, he would not have expressed it in that way. Finally, with the help of the class, it is broken up into three or four main sentences. The teacher gives a model translation, and a boy reads the whole period once more in Latin. No boy is allowed to read the Latin text until he knows what it means; it is impossible to read with appreciation until one thoroughly understands. Great stress is laid on distinguishing the two versions—the construe and the translation. The first is necessary to show that the meaning and structure of the Latin period has been thoroughly understood; the second is necessary to express the meaning in idiomatic German. The mother tongue is becoming more and more focal in German schools since the Emperor's speech at the Conference in 1890. But the aim of construing is to make itself dispensable as soon as possible. In the Upper Forms the pupils are by degrees encouraged to translate rather than construe, and it is equivalent to a severe reprimand when a pupil, getting into a tangle with a sentence, hears from his teacher in tones of thunder: "*Dann konstruieren Sie gefälligst.*" The importance of good German is impressed not only in the translation of sentences but also in that of words; two words in two different languages are not like the triangles of Euclid's fourth proposition, which coincide in all respects, it needs taste and judgment to find in each case the right translations even for simple words. I shall never forget the explosion of wrath on the part of the teacher and Homeric laughter on the part of the class when a boy, in construing a passage of the Odyssey which narrated the sacrifice of a pig, rendered  $\rho\acute{o}\nu \epsilon\tilde{\iota}\lambda\acute{\iota}\nu\tau\epsilon \psi\upsilon\chi\eta$  by "*Und ihn verliess die Seele.*"

I found it was the practice to memorise certain types of translations, e.g., *Exustis aedificiis Helvetii profecti sunt.* (i.) *Nachdem die Helvetier ihre Wohnungen einäschert hatten.* (ii.) *Nach der Einäschierung. . .* (iii.) *Die Helvetier einäscherten ihre Gebäude und. . .* *Credimus animum mortalem esse.* (i.) We believe in the immortality of the soul. (ii.) According to our belief the soul is immortal. (iii.) The soul is, as we hold, immortal. This is useful in the earlier stages, but might easily degenerate into formalism. Still, just as there is the danger of formalism, so there is a still greater danger of superficiality and mere guess-work parading itself under the guise of pure German. The teachers are quite alive to this danger. I did not see anything to suggest that the gymnasium classroom was, in any lesser degree than our own, a school of intellectual honesty and "a lethal chamber for all breeds of imposture."

THE WRITTEN TRANSLATIONS into the mother tongue play a far greater part in German Schools than with us. There is a tendency to regard it as quite on a par with Latin prose translation as a criterion of the work both of teacher and taught. It involves severe mental discipline. A boy has to make a close and intimate study of the thoughts of a master-mind\* and think

\* O. Jäger, *Lehrkunst und Lehrhandwerk*, p. 379. Jacoby, Wiesbaden. 1897.

them after him ; he must grasp the sense of the piece as a whole and in its connection with what precedes ; he has to get behind the words themselves and master the thought, then he has to get the exact words in his mother tongue which express that thought, and he has to set out the various elements in their due perspective. Latin is better than any modern language for this purpose, because its mode of expression is so different from our own. Any error or shortcoming on the boy's part is more easily brought home to him as an error in his own language ; it stands self-convicted, whereas an error of style or taste in a Latin prose has not infrequently to be taken on trust as such, because the teacher says it is not Ciceronian. This exercise is, therefore, claimed to be equally beneficial for both languages, Latin and the mother tongue ; many teachers think it as good a mental gymnastic as Latin prose composition, and point out that Cicero traces his own skill as a stylist to his frequent practice in translation from the best Greek authors. I found in the Upper Classes that a boy who had a fancy for doing a verse translation of Ovid or Vergil or Horace was allowed special remissions of homework that he might carry through his idea. The fact that a great scholar like Wilamowitz-Moellendorf has published translations of the classics has raised the whole prestige of such work in Germany ; it was formerly regarded as rather on the level of hack-work.

I have already pointed out how the teacher is instructed for the first half-year of Cæsar to do all the preparation in class ; the same instructions are given when Ovid, the first verse author, is begun. Not only so, but practically all the way up the school I found it was the practice before setting a piece for home preparation to give a few words of assistance for any passage of special difficulty, or, if there was no time for this, to exempt this passage from preparation altogether. Also, at the beginning of a translation lesson, the question was regularly put, "Has anyone found a difficulty with any passage?" If the answer is "Yes," then the teacher ascertains wherein the difficulty lay and removes it before beginning. How far these tactics of considerateness have been effective in eliminating "cribs" it is impossible to say ; many teachers spoke hopefully, and it is only reasonable to suppose that they must have had some real effect. At any rate, no German boy can beguile his conscience by saying that he was driven to use cribs ; the German teacher recognises what is indeed self-evident—that there is in every author much which transcends the ability of the pupil to make out.

I did not find the annotated edition was regarded with much favour except by those who were themselves editors. It had proved itself, I was told, no remedy against "cribs," nor was it in itself pedagogic, because the only knowledge which has value is knowledge based on antecedent knowledge and linked on to it by apperception. German teachers were not a little pleased with Mr. Owen Seaman's definition of parallel passages as those which being produced ever so far in both directions never meet ; it chimed in exactly with their Herbartian views. I heard no

parallel passage quoted in a classical lesson, except those elicited from the boys themselves and quoted from works they had already read. Commentaries the teachers regard as admirable things for the teacher and possibly for the two senior classes, where they save the teacher time; they were useful also for senior boys in their private reading, but not otherwise. As to whether the notes should be at the bottom of the page, or at the end of the book, or bound in a separate volume, opinions vary very much. The junior boys, who used commentaries at all were using mostly commentaries bound in a separate volume and of a very simple description.

The texts were well subsectionised, and had headings for each section and subsection, with a brief intimation of the contents in Latin. Where these headings were not provided, they were written in by direction of the teacher after being worked out in class. In the first and second years most texts had the quantities of long vowels marked, and the *oratio obliqua* was picked out in italics. The date was printed in the margin, where it was relevant. There was an index of names at the end of the book. Maps and plans were included in the text and strongly approved; also a few pictures; but I saw no fancy pictures, only such as were taken direct from some ancient relic or work of art. The illustrations were not nearly so lavish as in many recent English editions.

Dictionaries are first used in *Tertia*, i.e., by boys of 12 to 14 years of age. The first dictionaries used are special dictionaries for Cæsar, for Ovid, for Xenophon, and for Homer. At first the boys bring them to school and are taught how to look up words, to get first at the root meaning of the word and then determine which is the use which suits the particular passage they are translating; all this under the direction of the teacher until they tumble to the idea. The dictionaries of the Bréal-Bailly type, where different complex words are classed together under their common stemword, were much approved, e.g., under *βαίνω διαβαίνειν τὸν ποταμὸν, ὑπερβαίνειν τὰ ὄρη, παραβαίνειν τὸν νόμον*. As an instructive instance of the way this grouping helps the memory by associations and ideas one may take *penus*—the store-chamber or larder. Under it we find *penates*, the gods of the store-room; *penes* (preposition), in the store-room, i.e., in the hands of; *penuria*, lack of stores; *penetro*, to pierce through to the store-room (which is the innermost room of the house); *penetralia*, the innermost part; *penetrabilis*, etc. Similarly, *amare, amor, amicus, amicitia, inimicus, inimicitia; iudicare, iudex, iudicium, ius, iustus, iniustus, iniuria*.

#### UNSEEN TRANSLATION.

In several States this is specially prescribed. Prussia, for instance, prescribes it in *Secunda* and *Prima* for the Gymnasium\* though not for the Realgymnasium. With us, unseen translation means almost invariably a written

\* In the Lehrpläne of 1892 it was prescribed throughout from *Sexta* upwards; "*Fleißige Uebungen in unvorbereiteten Uebertragen.*"

piece of work ; with the Germans it is mostly oral. The passage chosen is as a rule taken from the author read by the class in the preceding year, so that the pupil can easily get his bearings ; the style is not strange and the difficulties not beyond his powers. The teacher sees that the general drift and the setting of the piece is made clear, he then explains beforehand any words or turns of speech which are strange. No dictionaries are allowed. Next the piece is divided up among the class, about five or six boys being told off for each section and the easier section being given to the weaker boys. After sufficient time has been given for looking through the section in perfect silence, the teacher calls upon some boy in the first section to translate, the whole class now giving its attention to the passage which is being translated. First of all, the scholar gives a short *résumé* of what his piece is about, then he proceeds to translate. If he fails to understand or goes wrong in any point, the others in the section are expected to put him right. So the whole piece is taken through and gone over again a second time, any scholar, whatever the section to which he belonged, being expected to take his part in the revision. The whole piece may be set for the next day to be translated in good German idiom. This exercise is warmly approved by most classical teachers as an exercise in presence of mind and as habituating the boy to grasp readily the drift of an author's meaning, as an exercise, that is, in what Professor Hale would call "the art of reading Latin" (as distinguished from the art of translating Latin). It is specially valuable for the more conscientious but not specially sharp-witted boy, who is apt to drag over his home preparation and to get the idea "that the dictionary must do the work and he give a helping hand now and again, instead of his doing the work and the dictionary lending the occasional helping hand." It is noticed that these conscientious boys are not infrequently very backward at first in unprepared translation, while the less conscientious boys show up to advantage ; it is not the first time with them that they have had to translate unseen, and necessity has been the spur to invention. But I doubt if any German teacher would have seen much educational profit in some of our attempts at written unseen, when the passage is beyond the great majority of the class, is quite dissociated from all their mental experience and their attempt at translation consists accordingly chiefly in *lacuna*.\*

*Repetition* plays a subordinate part, as one would expect in schools where there is no verse composition. Most stress is laid upon it when Ovid is begun, the first verse author. In the first lessons the scansion is explained, and, owing to this and the strangeness of poetic diction, progress is slow, perhaps 5 to 10 lines a lesson. In this case the whole lesson is set for repetition. Later on the finest of the Horatian odes and special passages

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\* There is a full discussion of "*Extemporiren*," as it is called in Julius Rothfuchs's *Beiträge zur Methodik des allsprachlichen Unterrichts* (Elwert, Marburg, 1893). The method he advocates is somewhat different. He deals in detail with the various objections (§§ 33-41, pp. 80-95).

from the Satires and Epistles of Horace and from Vergil are memorised. Prose is also learned by heart, especially passages of direct speech, or those of historical as well as grammatical interest. What has once been learned is constantly revised, and the teacher expects to be able to draw on these passages to illustrate both subject-matter and idiom. Here comes in again the advantage of the teacher moving up with the class. *Non multa sed melius* is the motto for repetition.

#### CONTENT. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SUBJECT-MATTER.

“For in the whole is contained the real excellence of a writing ; in the paragraph, not in the sentence ; in the chapter, not in the paragraph ; in the book rather than in the chapter. And the character of the writer dimly seen may be often greater than the book which he has written.”

These words of Professor Jowett sum up far better than can any words of my own the characteristic of the German mode of teaching classics, which distinguishes it not only from the English mode but also from the German classical teaching of a generation ago. While English public schoolboys are searching the scriptures of Greece and Rome to collect phrases and fine-sounding words which will meet the necessities of their verse compositions or adorn a prize theme, the German Gymnasiast is trained to master thoroughly above all the sense of what he reads, to put himself in the position of his author, to think his thoughts after him, and by this means to obtain a clear mental picture of the ancient world, enter into its problems, and thereby realise historically and therefore intelligently the bearing of the thoughts of the ancients upon our modern world.

All the main stress is thrown upon the reading, not the composition. Composition is mainly useful because it gives accuracy and grip to the power of reading. Here again, as was the case with the systematic training in grammar, the classics come in to supplement the deficiencies of the “*Neuere Richtung*” in modern language teaching. It is undeniable that the attempt to modernise the teaching of modern languages and to make it conversational, has to a certain extent lowered the standard of reading in modern language classes. When one finds German boys in English lessons feeding their immortal souls on “Three men in a boat,” “Three men on the Bummel” and similar ephemeral, not to say slangy, literature without any serious thought-substance in it of any kind, one feels more than ever the need of emphasising the reading in the classical hours and giving the boys there some real, living touch with the master minds of antiquity.

From the first beginnings a pupil is made to feel that he does not learn the language for its own sake but for the sake of what it has to tell him ; language is merely the dress of thought and at once appears in its true function. Hence the first readers avoid as far as possible the detached sentence, though in the later stages, after Cæsar is begun, there is not the same scruple because there is not the same need. Moreover, the passages in

and chastened by the necessity of attending to the niceties of a foreign tongue in which all composition must be a work of art."

The English case for Classical Composition, as practised at the English Public Schools, rests practically on this argument, and I do not know that it has ever been more happily expressed.

#### THE TEACHER.

"Stets geforscht und stets gegründet,  
Nie geschlossen, oft geründet,  
Aeltestes bewahrt mit Treue,  
Freundlich aufgefasstes Neue,  
Heiteren Sinn und reine Zwecke:  
Nun man kommt wohl eine Strecke."—Goethe.

The work of the German schools could not be carried through as it is stage by stage with such uniform efficiency, were it not for the trained skill of the teachers. The reform system makes greater demands than ever upon this trained skill, and that not only of the individual, but of the staff as a whole, for it is acknowledged that without the heartiest co-operation of the whole staff, it is impossible to get results in classics which will stand comparison with the results of the longer course at the Gymnasia.

The main feature that strikes one in the classes where the reform method is in full swing, is the almost total absence of the book. The teacher is in direct touch with his class; the book is there to refer to in case of need, but the teacher is so thoroughly well prepared that he often teaches the whole lesson through without referring to it. He not only knows the book but he knows what he may count on finding in his pupil's mind: if he has not himself taught them in the lower grades, he has taken pains to inform himself exactly of what they have done, and he knows in what sentences they have had this or that word or construction. This intimate '*rapport*' between the minds of teacher and taught adds immensely to the life of the class and the effectiveness of the teaching. It is not enough to be just "one lesson ahead" in preparation; the teacher must have made a close study of the whole work which he is reading with his Form, in order to make his selection, he must know the central thought round which he means to group the passages he selects. This is of course done for him in certain cases; Vergil he seems usually to read "*nach einem Kanon*," but it is not by any means always the case. Moreover, he must be a good scholar, for the oral work could not be done by any teacher who was not absolutely sure of his quantities and ready in Latin speech.

The great art of the classical teachers consists in their power of combining self-activity on the part of the pupils with thorough grounding and drill. I have already given instances of self-activity on the part of the scholars. The teachers feel more and more that, if knowledge is to be "enfeoffed" in their pupils (to use Montaigne's word) and made their own, it must be something which they have themselves made or found, not something which has been handed to them done up in a parcel, ready for use; this means guidance, especially in the lower stages, but

the higher they rise in the school, the less there should be of the leading-strings. When a boy makes a mistake, the teacher, instead of correcting him, leads him to correct himself, and, when that is done, to see the reason why he never should have made it. But in asking this question, the teacher is careful not to repeat himself the wrong word. "And why not the other form which we will not repeat?" I have alluded to the *Freie Vorträge*, and to the *Sammelhefte* and the grammar exercises, in which a pupil puts together certain grammatical occurrences in his reading, or makes a comparison between some point in Latin grammar with the corresponding construction in French or German, or makes a list with examples of the different ways in which the German "that" is rendered in Latin. In the same way some boy will be told off, or volunteer, to look up in the Dictionary of Biography the article on, say, Catullus or some person occurring in the lesson, or some passage in Friedländer's *Sittengeschichte* dealing with gambling, or whatever it may be. This all appeals to the boys' instinct for doing and discovering and collecting things, and not only is the teacher working along the line of these natural feelings, but he is at the same time carrying out the great precept of Kant, "*Der Mechanismus in der Erziehung muss zur Wissenschaft werden.*"

But there is one danger in this method, against which many of our most gifted teachers are slow to guard. There may not be sufficient drill and practice to rivet the knowledge thus gained on the mind; the foundations in particular are apt to become unstable, and yet unless there are stable foundations there can be no stable superstructure. τὰ κάρωθεν δεῖ ἰσχυρότερα ἵλασι. This is the part of the teacher's work which taxes his skill more than anything else. The problem is to secure plenty of repetition and yet prevent what is meant to be a mental gymnastic from becoming a mental treadmill. Without constant repetition and practice it will not be possible to bring a whole class of over 40 boys up to the high level of average performance, which is found in German schools. If one might add a rider to Kant's maxim, one might say "*Die Wissenschaft in der Schule muss zur Methode und Festigkeit werden.*"

Everything new is constantly repeated until it is firmly riveted on the mind, every new declension or conjugation, every new word, every new sentence or phrase or idiom, which is to become part of the boy's stock-in-trade, is regularly drilled in by constant repetition in close and organic connexion with knowledge already won. The sentence is something about "Caesar subducing the Helvetii." The new word is "subdue." "Turn your books of \*." What is the Latin for 'When he had subdued the H.?' "Although he had subdued." "Because he had subdued, learn the order that he might subdue." "Now, what will it be in to tell hiserson plural?" "We subdued the H.," and so on. Sp appears are taken to practise those words which are avorially far as p because they are so nearly alike: *fugo—fugio*; later —ges, after C—*caedo* (with compounds); *paro—purio—* because here is not

The greatest pains are taken to keep this work sprightly. In "saying off" conjugations a different verb is taken from time to time to avoid monotony, and the class is asked to suggest which verb; in the declensions an adjective will be coupled with the noun, and the class first suggest an adjective of like and then one of unlike termination; or, one boy will say the case, another the Latin form, a third the German meaning, while a fourth writes it on the board, so as to get as many actually employed as possible and keep the whole class on the *qui vive*. In this way, by constant variation, the business of drill is carried through without becoming mechanical or dull. It is surprising to an English teacher to find how large a part the boys themselves take in doing it. If one goes into a class with the teacher after the stroke of the bell, one finds the class has already begun, although the teacher was not there; one of the boys is on the platform and without any book is asking the vocabulary set for the day, and varying his questions by forming little sentences or groups of words, as he has heard his teacher do it before. It is worth noting that in Obertertia all the vocabularies learned in Untertertia are repeated, one is taken every day and "ticked off" in less than 5 minutes; I presume that the same is done in other classes too. It does not mean much expenditure either of work or of time, but it produces readiness and firmness of vocabulary, and it thereby effects a great economy of mental effort in the end.

#### GREEK.

"And when the sun of its dominion failed,  
 And when the winter of its glory came,  
 The winds that stript it bare blew on and swept  
 That dew into the utmost wilderness  
 In wandering clouds of sunny rain that thawed  
 The unmaternal bosom of the North."—*Shelley*.

If Latin is the backbone of the Gymnasium, Greek is its crown. When the question was raised at the Conference of 1900, whether English should be made alternative to Greek, the suggestion was unanimously repudiated, though in several ways the Conference showed itself alive to the importance of English. It was felt that Greek belonged to the essence of the training afforded by the Gymnasium; neither history, literature, nor Latin, nor Divinity could be taught in the same way or with the same culture value as at present, if the teacher could not count on all his pupils learning Greek. Greek is a "piece of our national history," said Prof. Harnack: "twice it has saved us from the reign of arid formalism, stilted scholasticism, and despiritualised rationalism—at the time of the Renaissance and again at the beginning of the 19th century. In both these epochs, Plato, Greek Art, and Greek Poetry have rendered to our people imperishable service. The Reformation itself, with its return to livelier, deeper, purer religion, cannot be imagined apart from Greek, and Greek is as much a part of our modern history as of the history of the past."

But, apart from its special services to the German people and the German literature, Greek maintains its place as an instrument of culture. Humboldt looked to it to provide a

counterpoise to the "*Gemeinheit des Zeitgeistes*," and there is as much need of it to-day, because there is certainly no lack of "vulgarity in the spirit of the age." Greek literature has far more ideality than any other. Latin is prosaic by its side. It has also far more inspiration and freshness, no other literature is so fitted to awaken in adolescence "the philosophic mind" and lead to the inward emancipation which comes from looking on the realities of life as Plato reveals them.

"Latin literature belongs to an age which had very much our own faults of the exaltation of the surroundings of man over man himself, of inordinate luxury, spectacular athletics, town life increasing, country life diminishing, and departure from nature in everything from diet to costume."\*

Greek literature, on the other hand, is freer than any other from any senile taint; it is ever young and ever noble, and, though its currency is of gold and is current only among its few, it is those few who in their turn leaven society and preserve its ideals undimmed.

Nor can Greek literature in translation have the same effect, however excellent the translation may be. Prof. Harnack speaks of two young students who, after leaving the Gymnasium, were pursuing different lines of study at the University. They were asked whether, on looking back on their education, they would willingly give up their Homer. The answer was "No." When they were asked whether they could not have read him in German, they said, "When we read him in German, he was like a mere fairy tale; but to read him in Greek is like the knowledge of another world which it is well to know." † The Greek language is a part of the Greek spirit, not a mere sheath which holds the sword of the spirit, but a part of the spirit itself and the instrument of its revealing.

But the object in learning Greek is not quite the same as in learning Latin, and therefore the method is different. In Latin the aim was not only the knowledge of the literature but the logical discipline of the Latin Grammar. If this logical regimentation is already obtained through Latin, it is no longer necessary to repeat the process in Greek. If in Latin the boys are under law, in Greek they are under grace. Hence, in learning the necessary elements of Grammar the memory work is reduced

\* See R. T. Mackenzie, *Almond of Loretto*, p. 349. Constable, London, 1905.

† See *Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichts. Herausgegeben im Auftrage des Ministers der geistlichen Unterrichts und Medizinal-Angelegenheiten. Berlin, 6 bis 8 Juni, 1900*, p. 80. Berlin, 1901. (Report of the Conference of 1900.)

Also W. Lexis, *Die Reform des höheren Schulwesens in Preussen. Der Unterricht im Griechischen*, by Professor U. von Wilamowitz-Moellendorf, p. 166. Halle, A. S., 1902.

"Es ist vergessen worden, dass die alte lebendige Rede wie sie unmittelbar aus dem Herzen kommt, nicht ein logisches, sondern ein psychologisches Verständnis verlangt."

R. L. Stevenson, on Veracity of Intercourse, in *Virginibus Puerisque*: "Where a man has not full possession of the language, the most important because the most amiable qualities of his nature lie buried and fallow."

to a minimum; no more is learned than is necessary to accurate translation; already in the first year of the Reform Schools boys are pushed on to reading an Author. Composition does not wholly go by the board, but it is entirely subsidiary to the practical necessities of translation; it is useful for the acquisition of the necessary Grammar and to prevent vague guess work in reading Greek, therefore it is practised; but it is never of an advanced character, there is no attempt at anything higher than accuracy of form and syntax, and in the last year it is altogether dropped, for the Leaving Examination requires no Greek composition, only a Greek unseen translation. A German master, with whom I was discussing the matter, put the whole position very aptly by saying, "You can read the German print without any difficulty or hesitation, but it would puzzle you if you were asked actually to print the letters which you recognise so readily. We take the same position with regard to Greek. We want boys to read it, not to write it, and, if we give up Compositions, we are able to cover much more ground in Greek literature."

Thus much premised, the points which differentiate the German teaching of Greek are easily summarised.

*Accents.* All Greek is pronounced according to accent. No attempt is made to reproduce the rhythmical accent of the ancient Greeks; the accent is rendered as in modern Greek by stressing the syllable. The stress of the voice is accompanied by a manual gesture. For an acute accent the boy strikes from right to left, for a grave accent in a reverse direction, the circumflex is marked by tracing the curve in the air. There is no doubt that this physical gesture helps to impress the accent, and I could not find that this learning of accents impeded progress: a boy must put some accent upon every word he pronounces, and it is just as well to learn the correct accent from the beginning and no harder. Professor von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf made an attack on this learning of accents and the spiritus, as being unhistorical and useless,\* and it seemed to me to break down when it came to the reading of poetry. But the practice still goes on; only the regulations say that not too much stress is to be laid upon mistakes of accent in marking the written work.

*Grammar.* Nothing beyond what is absolutely necessary for the purpose of reading is learned. The dual goes by the board. Before Homer is begun, a few words are said about it sufficient for purposes of recognition; for Attic Greek it is not needed. But, even so, there remains much which must be pure memory work, and, if this is not properly drilled in at first, it will act as a drag on the reading afterwards. This is the main argument of those who object to the postponement of Greek till the fifteenth year in the Reform Schools, it is felt that rote work is better done two years earlier. But if the elder boy is handicapped in respect of pure memory work, he gains in respect of syntax. He need waste no time over such simple sentences as "The sailors are loosing the girdles of the young men," "The city is great," but

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\* *Ses Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichts* Berlin, 6 bis 8 Juni, 1900. Anlage 2, S. 215. Berlin, 1901.

can be at once introduced to sentences of more complicated structure and more rational content. Hence syntax constructions can begin with the first lesson and will not present much difficulty.

One variation calls for special notice. At the Leibnitzschule, a Reform School in Hanover, Greek is begun with Homer, and the Homeric Grammar is the first grammar taught. This is a revival of an old tradition begun by H. L. Ahrens and interrupted by the annexation of Hanover in 1866. Even then the experiment did not stand alone. Herbart, Dissen and Fr. Ranke (Director of the Friedrich-Wilhelm Gymnasium, Berlin) believed in beginning Greek with Homer, and Dr. Matthias, of the *Unterrichtministerium* in Berlin, warmly advocated it at the Conference of 1900.\* Certain distinct advantages may be claimed for it. First, as regards accidence, the forms, being nearer to the original and uncontracted, are clearer and simpler. It is easy to see the working of the phonetic laws and understand the organic growth of the language. If one begins with Attic, the organic connexion is lost: Homeric forms are regarded as deviations from Attic, so many abnormal excrescences; this obscures the sense of linguistic growth. It is easier to learn Attic Greek after beginning with Homeric Greek than to learn the Homeric dialect after learning Attic first. Next, as regards vocabulary, the Homeric words are used in their original meanings, or at any rate in meanings which are nearer to the original than their Attic equivalents. Hence a boy, beginning with Homer, gets the right hang in tracing the development of the meaning of a word. Thirdly, the syntax is much simpler and better suited for elementary instruction, "not logical but psychological." The cases, for instance, and prepositions are seen in their original local, concrete significations, from which all others are derived. Finally, Homer is the starting-point of all Greek literature, the fountain-head of the Greek national spirit. "*Ὅμηρος περικαίδευκε τὴν Ἑλλάδα.*" It is beginning at the wrong end to read Attic literature first and then Homer—the right sequence is Homer, Herodotus, Xenophon. There are various interesting points in the teaching. The middle is taken before the active, because it shows better the distinction between the forms which take the thematic vowel and those which do not (Cf. *τρέπ-ο-μαι ὄρνυ-μαι* as against *τρέπ-ω*). The terminations of the middle are uniform and at once suggest the affinity between the subjunctive and primary tenses of indicative on the one hand, and the optative and the historic tenses on the other. The strong aorist is taught before the weak and in connexion with the present stem. Such forms as *ἔτελεσσα, ἔδειξα*, instead of being irregularly formed from *τελέω, δείκνυμι*, are connected at once with the verbal

\* See *ibid.*, p. 269 ff.

Cf. also essays by two of the masters at the Leibnitzschule, Hanover: R. Agahd, *Homer als Grundlage des griechischen Unterrichts*. Monatschrift für höhere Schulen. Jahrgang II., 1903, p. 441 ff. F. Hornemann, *Der griechische Unterricht im neuen Gymnasium*. Neue Jahrbücher für Pädagogik. Jahrgang VI., 1903, p. 253 ff. Prof. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf argues that the Frankfurt plan will not produce its full results until they begin with Homer. (See his essay quoted above, p. 47.)

stems  $\tau\epsilon\lambda\epsilon\sigma\text{-}, \delta\epsilon\iota\kappa\text{-}$ . The verbs in  $\mu$  lose their terror when they are taught as non-thematic verbs by an expert philologist who has taught his class from the beginning how the forms of accident arose. This is quite possible with boys in their 15th to 16th year, and Dr. Agahd and his colleagues at the Leibnitzschule have succeeded beyond all question in the work to which they have put their hand. The experiment is only of some few years standing, but so much one can say already. It is an experiment which needs something better than the hack-teacher; it needs a philologist who does not obtrude his philology; but, given such teachers, it is an experiment which merits careful consideration. There are difficulties, but the difficulties lie chiefly in the beginning with the reading, and Dr. Agahd has wisely availed himself of Dr. Cauer's simplified text of the Odyssey. In Appendix B (1) (p. 171) will be found a plan of the reading at the Leibnitzschule.

The reading of the authors is not so predominantly historical in Greek as in Latin. Xenophon, it is true, forms the standing dish, holding almost the same place as Cæsar holds in Latin; and the same principle holds as for Latin, that the first object in reading is assimilation of content. But what is sought in Greek is a higher culture, not so much historical fact as thought on politics, society, or foundational questions of moral conduct, and the idea of beauty. The reading, therefore, is more predominantly poetical, and it culminates in Plato. The reading of Plato, which Professor von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf pressed so warmly on the Conference of 1900, holding up the example of England, takes the place of the *Philosophische Propädeutik* which used to be taught in the Prima; its function is to "immunise" the mind (if I may use an American expression) against the plausible sciolisms and shallow would-be philosophies of modern literature. A beginning is made with the Apology and Crito, but one of the great dialogues, the Gorgias, the Phædo, or the first book of the Republic, with select passages from the later books, is always included. Herodotus is read rather for the sake of the human element in him than for the history, for his open-eyed and ingenuous delight in discovery and narrative.

In Thucydides it is usually the Sicilian expedition which is read; also very generally the funeral oration of Pericles, but it is recognised that the speeches are too hard even for Primaner to make out for themselves, and annotated editions are used, preferably such as have notes at the bottom of the page.

About Demosthenes there are two opinions. Professor von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf thinks that there is practically no room for him in so short a time as school affords. "Perhaps at the end of the course," he says, "one might find time for one or two short speeches, but of artistic oratory there is enough in Latin and French without our needing to read it in Greek."\* Even in the political section of his reading book there is no room for Demosthenes. He is prescribed by the Lehrpläne as one of the authors for Oberprima, but he is not read at the Goethe Gymnasium,

\* Paper at the 1900 Conference, Report, p. 210.

where Lysias is the one representative of Greek oratory. On the other hand, Weissenfels \* and Dettweiler †, both experienced classical teachers, speak warmly of him as being an author specially adapted for school work.

Other prose authors such as Arrian, Plutarch, Isocrates, Lycurgus, Marcus Aurelius, Lucian, are read occasionally, but the general feeling is that time devoted to authors of merely secondary interest is so much time lost from the great classics, who are not for an age but for all time.

Of these Homer is the first and, for school purposes, the greatest. They begin with the Odyssey, usually with Book ix., and the object is to give the scholars, if not the whole of both poems, at any rate an idea of the story as a whole. There is much, especially in the Iliad, which is demonstrably of later origin, and of lesser interest, and therefore better omitted. Why should the school carry ballast which criticism has thrown overboard? In reading Homer it is found that thorough linguistic grounding in the Homeric dialect at the beginning saves a great deal of time in the end. When the pupils have done six or seven books, reading proceeds at a rapid rate, and a good deal is left to private study.

Tragedy is the creation of the Greeks, just as they have created every other type of literature, with the exception of Satire. Sophocles is taken as the representative of Greek drama. The Antigone is the favourite play; the Electra, the Ajax, Philoctetes, Oedipus Rex, and Oedipus Coloneus are also read. The Trachiniaiæ has not yet recovered from the libellous onslaught of Schlegel. The Ajax appeals to the German sense of honour, as found specially among students and soldiers. The Oedipus Rex has a special interest because of Schiller's "*Braut von Messina*."

Aeschylus is regarded as too hard for school reading. This is surprising, for nothing grips English sixth form boys more than the Agamemnon, and the Prometheus with us is usually read below the sixth. It is the price which the Germans pay for their devotion to Homer, but it is a heavy price. Euripides is not much in favour and different plays are read; the two Iphigenias are naturally favourites, as they serve so well to illustrate Goethe. In reading tragedy it is the custom to prelect the harder chorus-songs and not require from the pupils anything beyond a knowledge of their general purport. Selections from Greek lyrics are read as an aid chiefly to the understanding of Horace, but also for the purpose of understanding and illustrating German lyric poetry, by a comparison with this type of poetry in its original form.

The Reading book of Professor von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf, the scheme of which he laid before the Congress of 1900, ‡ has not yet been largely adopted. It has been called a *Reallesebuch*, and its

\* *Handbuch für Lehrer höherer Schulen*. Teubner, Leipzig, 1906.

† P. Dettweiler, *Didaktik und methodik des griechischen Unterrichts*. Beck, Munich.

‡ See Prof. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf's article in *Classical Review*, Oct. 1906.

object is to give a bird's-eye view of the many-sidedness of Greek intellectual activity and show how "in all departments of modern thought the threads lead back direct to Hellas." It gives samples from all sorts of byeways of Greek literature, illustrating romance, history, political theory, natural science and geography, mathematics, physics and technology, hygiene, philosophy, Christian antiquities, criticism and art. It is calculated to take a year in the reading in Prima, and is meant to come as a supplement to the more solid reading of authors in the forms below. The Director of the Goethe Gymnasium spoke highly of its value, and mentioned instances of former scholars who spoke gratefully of it as having given them their first introduction to Marcus Aurelius. But it is a difficult book to teach and Prof. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf himself foresaw the necessity of instituting special holiday courses, at which teachers could acquire the requisite qualification.\*

The New Testament in the original Greek is not taken as a regular subject, but in the Evangelical religious instruction important passages are studied in the original in Prima, by way of inducing the scholars to refer to the original text.

No account of the Greek in German schools would be complete without a reference to the use made of Greek legends and translations of Greek authors in the modern schools. In some of these there is a continuous course right through from the bottom form but one. In Quinta there are stories from the mythology and heroic age. In Quarta a year is spent on the history of Greece and Rome. In Tertia, Homer's *Odyssey* is read in Voss' translation (a verse translation edited in more modern form by Hubatsch). In Secunda the *Iliad* is read in the same way and is immediately followed by a course in German Epic beginning with the *Nibelungen Lied*. In Prima the *Oresteia* of Aeschylus and different plays of Sophocles are read in Prof. von Wilamowitz-Möllendorf's translation, also a translation of Euripides' *Iphigenia* alongside of Goethe's *Iphigenia*; and occasionally one of the Classical Plays of Grillparzer, (*Medea*, *Sappho*). In short there is a systematic attempt to link on the modern side boy to the high tradition of humanity and let him, too, catch the inspiration of the race which has educated all the civilised nations of the west.

J. L. PATON.

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\* Many criticisms have appeared. Specially worthy of note are J. Ziehen, *Ueber die Verbindung der sprachlichen mit der sachlichen Belehrung* (Kesselring, Leipzig, 1902), and O. Weissenfels, *Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen*, Vol. 56, p. 353 ff., Vol. 57, p. 770 ff.

## APPENDIX A.

NUMBER OF HOURS ASSIGNED TO LATIN AND GREEK IN THE  
GYMNASIA OF VARIOUS GERMAN STATES.

## (1) LATIN.

	VI.	V.	IV.	III.B.	III.A.	II.B.	II.A.	IB.	IA.	Total.
Age - -	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	
Prussia -	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	68
„ Reform Schools	-	-	-	10	10	8	8	8	8 (7)	52 (51)
Alsace-Lorraine	7	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	71
Saxony -	9	9	8	8	8	8	7	7 (8)	7 (8)	71 (73)
Bavaria -	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	6	6	66
Baden -	9	9	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	72
Württemberg	10	10	10	10	10	8	8	8	7	81
Brunswick -	8	8	8	8	8	7	7 (6)	7 (6)	7 (6)	68 (65)
Anhalt -	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	68
Hesse -	9	9	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	68
Mecklenburg	9	9	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	71

## (2) GREEK.

	III.B.	III.A.	II.B.	II.A.	IB.	IA.	Total.
Age - -	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17	17-18	
Prussia - - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
„ Reform Schools	-	-	8	8	8	7 (8)	31 (32)
Alsace-Lorraine - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Saxony - - - - -	7	7	7	7	6 (7)	6 (7)	40 (42)
Bavaria - - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Baden - - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Württemberg - - - -	7	7	7	7	6	6	40
Brunswick - - - - -	6	6	6	6 (7)	6 (7)	6 (7)	36 (39)
Anhalt - - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Hesse - - - - -	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
Mecklenburg - - - -	7	7	7	7	6	6	40

## APPENDIX B.

## READING OF GREEK AUTHORS.

(1) *Leibnitz Schule (Reform), Hanover, 1905-6.*

- IIb. First Year. Homer, *Odyssey*, ix., x. (1-144), xii.
- IIa. Second Year. Xenophon, *Anabasis*, i.-iv. (with some omissions); *Hellenica*, ii.  
Homer, *Odyssey*, the beginning v.-vii.
- IB. Third Year. Homer, *Odyssey*, xiii.-xxiv. (with some omissions).  
Homer, *Iliad*, i.-v. (with some omissions).  
Sophocles, *Antigone*.  
Herodotus, Book vii. and selections.  
Plato, *Symposium*, *Apology*, *Crito*, *Phædo*, in Bamberg's selections.
- IA. Fourth Year. Demosthenes, *Philippics*, i.; *Olynthiacs*, i., iii.  
Thucydides, vi., vii., selections.  
Plato, *Protagoras*.  
Homer, *Iliad*, xiii.-xxiv. (selections, about 4,000 lines).  
Sophocles, *Edipus Rex*.  
Greek Lyric Poets (Biese's selections).

(2) *Goethe Gymnasium (Reform), Frankfurt a/M, 1905-6.*

- IIb. First Year. Xenophon, *Anabasis*, i., ii. (omitting i. 9, ii. 6).
- IIa. Second Year. Xenophon, *Hellenica*, ii., with selections from iv.-vii.  
Lysias, *Or.*, xxiv.  
Herodotus, Selections from Books vi.-viii.  
Homer, *Odyssey*, i.-xvii. (selections).  
Book xi. read privately.
- IB. Third Year. Plato, *Apology* and *Crito*.  
Homer, *Odyssey*, xvii.-xxiii. (selections).  
Homer, *Iliad*, i.-xvi. (selections).  
Sophocles, *Electra*.  
Wilamowitz, Reader, i., 1, 2, 4.
- IA. Fourth Year. Homer, *Iliad*, xi.-xxiv., (selections), vi. 369-502.  
Euripides, *Heracles*.  
Plato, *Phædo*.  
Thucydides, i., ii., selections.  
Wilamowitz, Reader, ii., 4, 5.  
Reading at sight from Xenophon, *Hellenica*.

APPENDIX C.

LIST OF BOOKS REQUIRED FOR GOETHE GYMNASIUM, FRANKFURT A/M.

Mech.		H.		LATIN.	GREEK.	HISTORY.	
VI.						Stories from German Legend and History.	
V.						Stories from Legend and Early History of Greece and Rome.	
IV.						Ancient History to Death of Augustus.	
III B.	Latin Reader and Vocabulary	} Latin Exercise Book.	} Latin-German Dictionary of Gold and Silver Age Latin.	} School Grammar, same throughout, Accidence and Syntax.		Roman Imperial History.	
III A.	Caesar " Dictionary (Etymological)						} History of Germany.
II B.	Ovid " Dictionary Sallust Cicero, in Catilinam.				Greek Reader and Vocabulary Xenophon " Dictionary	} Homeric Dictionary. Greek Exercise Book.	
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BOARD OF EDUCATION.

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SPECIAL REPORTS  
ON  
EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.  
VOLUME 21.

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SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION  
SCHOOLS.

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Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty.

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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 21  
OF  
SPECIAL REPORTS ON EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS.

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Since the publication ten years ago, in the first volume of the Board's Special Reports, of Miss Dodd's paper on the School Journey in Germany, followed by the Special Reports five years later in Volume VIII by Messrs. Cowham, England, Wollman and Flamank, and Hyde, on School Journeys in this country, out-door education has developed not only on the line of the School Journey but on other lines also. These Reports indicated indeed that a need had been felt at home as well as abroad for supplementing indoor education by bringing school-life into relation with life outside the school, and that steps had already been taken to meet the need in this country along lines similar to those already taken in Germany.

But recently the idea has outgrown the particular form in which it manifested itself in the School Journey. It would seem that we can already recognise a general and widespread tendency to restore to school-children by varying methods and agencies those educative influences which town-life is apt to shut away from them. The vital principle that took shape in the Journey is now to be recognised in other educational activities. Efforts that at first might appear to be separate and sporadic, as did the School Journey ten years ago in England, may now fairly be considered as aspects of one general movement vitalized by one and the same idea.

It has therefore seemed convenient to treat in one Special Report, prepared by Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency, a number of different aspects of out-door education. The various sections of which this volume is composed are linked together by the quality common to all the educational experiments described—that the school room in each case is wholly or partly the open-air. The volume presents some picture of that part of the educational field to-day which is covered by the open sky. Vacation Schools, Country Schools for backward children, School Journeys, may all be considered as varying aspects of a conscious reaction against the evils of a school-life lived within the limiting four walls of a school room unrelieved and uninspired by any intelligent contact with the healthy and stimulating realities of nature. The evils which are inevitably attached to town-life show themselves as inevitably in the physical and intellectual development of children, and are exaggerated as inevitably in the case of children whose home circumstances provide few or no

relieving conditions. To diminish and offset these evils, to promote a more natural balance among the physical and intellectual factors which make up bodily and mental health is the general aim of such educational efforts as are here considered.

In comparison with this general aim the differences between the various efforts need little comment other than the observations contained in the Report itself. The vacation school possesses a distinguishing feature in that it is in the first place a holiday "school," and only in the second place an "open-air" school. Its essential nature would not be altered theoretically if all its work were done indoors. Actually, however, a vacation school tends to be in many respects an outdoor-school, for its object would be endangered if not destroyed by confining its activities within four walls. The date of the long holidays makes also towards this end. The "open-air school" and "country school" proper are on the other hand the direct and essential outcome of the desire to counteract the effects which town life is apt to produce upon the child's growth, bodily, mental, and spiritual. The function of the open-air school is largely remedial and curative. Physically its aim is distinct and direct, mentally its aim is, if equally distinct, yet less direct. With the School Journey, the aim is more consciously a mental development than in the case of the other two forms of what may be called the "outdoor" theory. It is the product not only of this theory but even more of a theory purely educational.

*"Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem,  
quam quae sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus et quae  
ipse sibi tradit spectator."*

What the work in the laboratory is to chemistry and physics, that in a large measure the sights and associations of a School Journey are to history, geography, and nature-study; and as nature-study has grown in estimation for young children at the expense of the laboratory so the open road has found its place in our education as something more than a way to and from the school-house.

It has only to be added that the Board accept no responsibility for the opinions expressed by the writer of this Report.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.  
December, 1907.

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# SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION SCHOOLS.

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## SCHOOL EXCURSIONS AND VACATION SCHOOLS.

## I.—HISTORICAL INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

It is not difficult to understand the reason that School Journeys and Excursions did not form an organic part of the curricula of English schools in the centuries preceding the year eighteen hundred. Neither ignorance of the educational method involved nor of the pedagogic value of such expeditions forbade that organic use in, at any rate, the more notable periods of English educational history. A national need had not arisen. The English schoolboy possessed national characteristics and natural opportunities that did away with the necessity of school journeys in the days before modern industrial enterprise transformed the educational problem by aggregating vast masses of humanity in narrow, ugly, yet select centres of production and trade. But with the opening of the new era such ignorance and such need were apparent enough. Children in these centres of industry for the first half of the nineteenth century were scarcely educated at all; their ignorance, their environment and work prevented any adequate expression of national characteristics. It is for this reason a matter of some importance to lay preliminary emphasis on the early history of nature study and of the relationship of nature to school life. A blank period intervenes between the educational methods of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance and of the revival of to-day. In the old times there was not the need for the self-conscious return to nature. The unconscious relationship of national life to natural life achieved the results that we aim at, or some of them. Life itself co-ordinated the things learnt in the school or University with the events of daily life. Of course, in so far as mediæval scholasticism governed the curriculum, this was not true in the case of the famous scholars of the Middle Ages, but it was true in so far as the average child or student was concerned. The scholar and the student derived from rural surroundings in one case and from the long journeys between home and the Universities in the other case that "open-air" outlook on life, that sense of nature which becomes apparent in the literature of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. To-day rural surroundings are in the vast bulk of instances absent from the daily life of the young people who in the Middle Ages would have composed the section of the nation attending school or the Universities. In the sixteenth century the University was a great secondary school, and the boys who filled it did so under conditions that rendered a knowledge of rural life an essential though unconscious part of his education. To-day we have to create those conditions by conscious effort, and in doing so it is possible for us to make the knowledge more immediately effective than it was in the Middle Ages and even in

the period of the Renaissance. We can make the acquaintanceship with nature involve a new hygienic value, and we can use the observation of nature as a definite instrument in the acquisition of historical, geographical and scientific knowledge. No doubt there is loss in the self-conscious return to nature, but there is also gain. It must also be remembered that the Renaissance return to nature was not wholly or even essentially unconscious. As we shall see, in rapidly tracing the ideas of Renaissance and later thinkers on the relationship of nature and education, the return to nature was consciously advocated as a re-action from the theories and pure intellectualism of the schoolmen. To-day a similar re-action is taking place, and it is therefore important to consider the early evolution of the idea of nature study.

It is usual to trace back the genesis of the school excursion to the ideas of Jean Jacques Rousseau. To do so is, however, scarcely accurate. Rousseau's ideas on the subject were by no means original, though they brought the school journey into prominence in Germany. The scholars' expeditions were in one sense the greatest educational force of the Middle Ages when young University students, boys of fourteen or fifteen years, wandered over Europe in the periods devoted to vacation, alone, or in small companies, taking with them in some cases (in Switzerland, for instance) younger school children as "fags." In England the wandering scholar was a notable fact of social life as late as the Commonwealth. An epigram or an epitaph, a wedding couplet or a birthday verse, was the price that he paid for board and lodging. He was an institution supported, if not created, by the joint efforts of Parliament and the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, who recognised and encouraged the wandering of the poor scholar. By a statute of 1388\* it was provided that poor University scholars might beg if licensed by their Chancellor.

In the fourteenth century England was a famous *locus* of the scholars' journey. Scholars poured into the country from Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and the Continent. From the first the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were centres, "*Ubi convenit multitudo studentium.*"† Thither and thence, under royal licence, scholarship moved throughout the islands and over seas. The travelling was part of the education. The scholars were very young, and tramping the roads was the only means by which the schoolboys could reach the Universities. Jean le Charlier de Gerson, afterwards the famous Chancellor of Paris, had to tramp many a long league before he could join the University of Paris. There are numerous statutory references to the travelling scholar. In 1410, by a statute passed at a Parliament held in Dublin, it was ordered that "no Irishman adhering to the enemies shall be suffered henceforth to pass over the sea, by color of going to the scooles of Oxford, Cambridge, or els where."‡

\* 12 Richard II. cap. 7 directs "that the Scholars of the Universities that go so begging, have Letters testimonial of their Chancellour."

† Close Rolls, (1227-1231), 15 Henry III. m. 14d. (p. 586).

‡ 11 Henry IV. cap. 24. See Tracts relating to Ireland (Dublin, 1843) printed for the Irish Archaeological Society, Vol. ii., p. 137.

In 1413\* the Irish generally, including Irish mendicant clerks ("Chamber Deacons"), were excluded from the realm; but exceptions were made in favour of Irish Graduates in the Schools, Sergeants and Apprentices of the law. In 1417 the Privy Council received a petition from Ireland asking that all the Irish should be sent back for the defence of the realm except beneficed clergy, law students, and scholars at the University (*escolers estudiantes in les Universitees*). In 1422 the statute 1 Henry VI. c. 3 prohibited Irishmen from being principals of halls in the Universities and ordered Irishmen coming to the University to bring testimonials. In the following year† Irish students were ordered to bring sureties. In 1429‡ the law as to the Irish students was confirmed, but the King and the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, despite a petition from the Commons, refused to extend it to disorderly Scotch and Welsh students, (though the latter in 1400-1 had fled and rebelled against the Crown)§ or to exclude from one University, students who had been expelled from the other.

The principle of the act of 1388 was followed in 1495 and again in 1503-4.|| Throughout the fifteenth century the wandering scholars moved about England. Anthony à Wood, writing under the date 1461,¶ says that "it was usual for scholars so to do." The sixteenth century encouraged these young travellers. A statute of 1530\*\* orders "Scolers of the Universities of Oxford and Cambrdyge that goo about beggyng, *not beyng aucthorysed under the Seals of the sayde Universities*," to be regarded as "stronge beggers" and punished. The poor travelling scholar disappeared in the seventeenth century at the very date when the new Educationalists were advocating the school journey and continental travel became the last stage of the education of the rich. But the peregrinations of poor scholars were no longer very welcome when the royal scholar James I. wandered south to the English throne. William Lambard, in the edition (p. 38) of his "Duties of Constables" published in 1602, declares that "everie person above the age of seven yeeres that calleth himself a schollar, and goeth about begging," is a rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar. "The seal of the University," however, for another half-century guaranteed a scholar board and bed.††

No doubt it may be said with truth that these scholar journeys were not organised in the pedagogic sense. They were, however, an expression of the national spirit, and received the special

\* 1 Henry V. c. 8 and 4 Rot. Parl. pp. 13, 102, 190, 254, 255.

† 2 Henry VI. cap. 8.

‡ 8 Henry VI. 4 Rot. Parl. pp. 349, 358.

§ 3 Rot. Parl. p. 457.

|| 11 Henry VII. c. 2, ss. 1, 2; 19 Henry VII. c. 12. s. 2.

¶ See Gutch's edition of Wood's "Oxford," Vol. i., pp. 619-620.

\*\* 22 Henry VIII. c. 12.

†† See also Lambard's *Eirenarcha*, p. 420. At Malton in the North Riding as late as 1640 "a man, calling himself by the name of a Scholler, having been taken begging by colour of a passe which appears to be counterfoote" was punished (North Riding Record Society's Quarter Sessions Records, Vol. IV., p. 183. Rev J. C. Atkinson.)

sanction both of Parliament and of the educational authorities who controlled the Universities and the Grammar Schools. Indeed, no advanced education could be had without the aid of such journeys. But the pedagogic conception of the school journey and of nature study did not arise until the mediæval scholars' travelling days were almost done. This conception was, however, in the air when men still could see, to use the words of Sir Thomas More, poor scholars of Oxford go a-begging with their bags and wallets. The early middle ages, indeed, were not without hints of such a conception. The treatise *de Utensilibus* of Alexander Neckam (who died in 1217), and a vocabulary of the names of plants (in Latin, Anglo-Norman, and English), of the same period\* give us some suggestions of nature study, while Mr. Oswald Cockayne has edited for the Rolls series a work† that gives some considerable idea of the practical botany of the Middle Ages. The *Vocabula Magistri*, by John Stanbridge (1463-1510), was a renaissance work in part perhaps founded on Neckam's book, but far better. At this very period Rabelais (1483-1553) was advocating practical work and nature study for children. Gargantua and his companions "did recreate themselves with bottling, cleaving, and sawing, and threshing sheaves of corn in the barn. They also studied the arts of painting and carving." Rabelais may have learnt something of his new ideas from the work of Vittorino da Feltre (1378-1446), in whose Palace School at Mantua both natural history and natural philosophy were taught to the pupils. Rabelais, however, goes on to lay down general educational principles. Gargantua advises the child Pantagruel as follows:—

"In the matter of the knowledge of the works of nature, I would have thee to study that exactly; so that there be no sea, river, or fountain of which thou dost not know the fishes; all the fowls of the air; all the general kinds of shrubs and trees, whether in forest or orchard; all the parts of herbs and flowers that grow upon the ground; all the various metals that are hid within the bowels of the earth; together with all the diversity of precious stones that are to be seen in the orient and south parts of the world; let nothing of all these be hidden from thee." ‡

Erasmus, likewise, advocates nature study, in order to give life to the mind. No doubt these writers had not altogether our modern ends in view, but they certainly felt the unity of all knowledge and the reaction of all forms of study upon character and brain power; and their ideas were not merely in the air, for Trotzendorf (*circa* 1520) and Neander brought the study of nature and history into school life.

When we turn to England, we find Sir Thomas Elyot (*circa* 1523), the author of "*The Governour*," advocating the use in school life of practical work—such as painting and carving, of

\* See "State Intervention in English Education," p. 2, note 2 (Cambridge University Press, 1902), by the present writer.

† See "Leechdom's Wortcunning and Starcraft of Early England." Collected and edited by the Rev. Oswald Cockayne. (3 vols. Rolls series, 1864.)

‡ "Educational Opinion from the Renaissance," by S. S. Lawrie, p. 51.

music and games. Roger Ascham (1515-1568), likewise recommends the educational use of physical exercises and recreation, and of music as a school subject. The idea of nature study was indeed in the air. Montaigne, in his protest against the abuse of the rod, exclaims, "How much more decent it would be to see their classes strewn with green leaves and fine flowers, than with the bloody stumps of birch and willow! Were it left to my ordering, I would paint the school with the pictures of Joy and Gladness, Flora and the Graces, that where the profit of the pupils is, there might their pleasure also be." Francis Bacon also largely contributed to the general educational ideas of the new age, and in particular by the influence of his thought over Comenius.

John Amos Komensky, known to history as Comenius (1592-1671), laid down the Baconian principle that "As far as possible men are to be taught to become wise, not by books, but by the Heavens, the Earth, oaks, and beeches; that is, they must learn to know and examine the things themselves, and not the observations and testimony of others about the things."\* This is the position aimed at to-day, and particularly approached by the school journey. Comenius was not able, as indeed we are not fully able, to reach this position in practice, but he laid down a principle which is incontrovertible, and represents a high educational ideal.

In the "Great Didactic," however, Comenius to some extent descends to detail. He recommends that the education of youth should have as its penultimate stage, foreign travel. Richard Mulcaster, it should be noted (1533-1611), two generations earlier had violently attacked this practice of foreign travel as a stage in education, though on scarcely sound grounds. The "Great Didactic" lays down a principle partially adopted in recent years by the Board of Education. "The same branches of knowledge are to be studied in each of the four periods into which the twenty-four educable years are divided, the differences being, those which the varying stages of mental development in the pupil make inevitable. The school seeks to make the pupil learned in things, as distinct from words, to give him real learning, the knowledge of Res, "Reals," Realien. . . . The boys and girls must learn 'to measure skilfully in the accustomed manner, length, breadth, and distances, they must learn so much of economics, of politics, and of mechanical principles as will enable them to understand ordinary daily life at home and in their State, nor may they be ignorant of the course of the world's history as set forth in the most general way; to this must be added the chief things in Cosmography, as the rotundity of the Heavens, the globe of the Earth hanging in the midst, the movement of the Ocean, the various straits of Seas and Rivers, the chief divisions

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\* *Didactica Magna*, ch. xviii. 28, and see also Adamson's invaluable *Pioneers of Modern Education*, Cambridge University Press, 1905, p. 52.

† Adamson, p. 61.

of the world, the chief Kingdoms of Europe; but above all, the Cities, Mountains and Rivers of their Fatherland, and whatsoever is memorable therein' (Ch. xxix. 6).\* 'Whatever is taught should be taught as a thing which is actual (*res præsens*) and of a certain use. Let the pupil see that what he learns is not something from the land of Nowhere, or matters relating to the Platonic Ideas, but things which verily surround us, a true knowledge of which will confer real advantage in our life. So will his mind be keener in attack and more accurate in discernment' (Ch. xx. 16). This is the cry of Pestalozzi, 'It is *life* that educates.' It was the principle which was in the end to assure a place in the ordinary school-course for modern studies."†

Comenius would bring the pupil within touch of nature at every turn. Each school must have a garden where the children may "feast their eyes by the inspection of trees, flowers, and plants." The study of things is the beginning of learning: things as they seem in nature, not as they seem in books. "Comenius' philosophy is a sensationalist philosophy: the mind of the little child is figured by Aristotle's blank tablet, his brain by wax. All the writing subsequently found on that tablet, all the moulding of that wax, are to be explained as the outcome of sights, sounds, and all other varieties of sense-experience conveyed to the mind through the organs of sense, and connected with each other by powers which Comenius calls 'internal senses.'"‡

Such a philosophy is only partially true; it does not give us a complete educational theory of reality, or show us the general purposefulness of things, or even hint at the idealism which belongs to any effective educational system. But so far as it goes it is true; it represents a definite educational stage which we have not reached yet, but which is before us as an immediate goal. The incomplete realism of Comenius is a necessary stage, and it can only be reached by the organic relation (through the direct effort of a central authority) of nature study, school expeditions, and organised Vacation Schools to the school life of the country. At least one English educational writer of the age of Comenius—William Petty—was anxious to carry the "real" idea so far that "a child, before he learned to read or write," should be given such a practical acquaintance with Things and Actions that he could easily test the value of a book as soon as he could read it.¶

For this purpose Petty recommended education through the medium of gardens, menageries, museums, geographical collections, astronomical observatories, and picture galleries. All children should have a technical training, and, if bound an apprentice, should spend the latter four years of the period "in travelling to learn breeding, and the perfection of their Trades."

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\* Adamson, pp. 63-64.

† *Ibid.*, pp. 66-9.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

¶ *Ibid.*, p. 131.

John Dury (1596-1680) carried Petty's position a step further, anticipated something of Froebelian methods—the apparently free co-operation of pupils in the orderly development of the curriculum—and foreran Herbart by insisting “that all studies, while following the principle of sequence, must unite in leading the pupil to achieve the true end of learning, and that due connection should be maintained between different branches of learning.”\* St. Jean-Baptiste de la Salle (1651-1719) introduced the practice of nature study into his famous Christian Schools. The Pietist Schools of A. H. Francke (1663-1727) spread the same idea in Germany.

Professor Rein and Herr Scholz have given us some interesting notes as to the development of the school journey in Germany. They mention a form of mediæval journey known as the Rod-journey (*Virgatum-gehen* or *Rutenzug*) used as a punishment for naughty children, but without any educational meaning. The same must be said of the school journeys on the Brocken of the scholars of Quedlinburg in 1634. But Montaigne and Comenius show us that *real* school journeys existed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Francke followed indeed in the footsteps of Comenius. Rousseau, we are told (but, as we have seen, not quite accurately), was the first to exercise educational influence over the school journey: “*Rousseau ist der geistige Vater desselben.*” † He drew in fact his ideas from Montaigne and developed them.

Basedow in 1774 was the first to work out a scheme of school journeys as part of an educational plan, and from his institution at Dessau the new educational method spread, in a way very profitable to education, through Germany. Salzmann, at Schnepfenthal, carefully worked out the pedagogic idea of school-journeys, and made them an actual part of his school curriculum. We are told that his journeys were as good as the best are to-day. One point insisted on was to bring before the pupils, in connection with the journey, the names of famous men worthy of imitation—a point insufficiently considered in modern journeys. He also insisted on the girls' school journey (not too seriously undertaken in Germany to-day) and it was specially planned to teach them their duties in life. Salzmann aimed at an educational system that should make the lives of men harmless, useful, and contented, ripe in judgment and refined in character, and should give the school-master a “healthy, understanding, good, and happy people” upon whom to exercise his art. These aspirations were breathed a hundred years ago, amid the din and turmoil of the Napoleonic wars. His ideas were taken up forty years later by Bender at his institution at Weinheim and improved. ‡ Bender's long school journeys served

\* Adamson, p. 147.

† Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-Seminar zu Jena, Heft 3, p. 79 (Langensalza, 1891).

‡ The early nineteenth century had a system of short-day journeys or very long ones lasting for months. Jean Paul Richter substituted for this system journeys lasting a few weeks by which children were taken from dark towns into beautiful scenery.

for the free development of the personality of each pupil, and the journey was a compulsory part of his course. Bender's programmes of 1845 and 1859 show us exactly the relationship between the school work and the journey at that date. The school journey, lasting two or three weeks afoot, supplemented the teaching and filled up gaps that could in no other way be bridged, but it was not yet organically related to the school curriculum. Bender's theory, however, underlies all later German theories on this subject. K. V. Stoy, for some time a teacher at Bender's Institute at Weinheim, carried Bender's ideas to Jena. In 1852 he took school journeys at Jena with his Seminar school. The idea was rapidly adopted by more than twenty seminars. The journeys proved a connecting link between the teaching of the school and the University,\* and this fact created an enthusiasm for the system that carried it throughout Germany. All modern German school journeys are under the influence of Stoy and the Seminar founded by him at Jena. Ziller, of Leipzig, developed Bender's theory along lines closely related to Stoy's practical system, and Ziller's method was taken up by Dr. Rein who, about the year 1876, was the first to bring school journeys into close relation to the teaching plan, making them an essential part of his system of education, and making the capacity to lead a journey a necessary part of a teacher's training. The system was rapidly taken up by sixteen German states, and now school journeys are universal and in some places they are obligatory. Stoy's example is still influential in determining the character of the journey. At Stoy's school in Jena two journeys of four days each are made in the summer, all scholars and teachers taking part in three divisions. In the autumn, in the month of August, there is a journey that lasts fourteen to sixteen days. In this journey the scholars are divided into three classes, each in three parts. It should be noted that in the case of short journeys the total cost per head each day should not exceed one shilling and sixpence, while no public school journey should exceed three shillings per head each day.

The lesson of history seems to me to be that the school journey should be a national affair, definitely controlled by the Central Educational Authority. Its pedagogic value is its capacity to bring into living union the various departments of school work, and strict supervision is necessary in order that this linking up may be made as effective and as normal as possible. The journey must not only be an integral part of the school life but an integral part of the educational system, thus not only linking up departments of work, but schools with schools and grades with grades from the infant school to the university.

## II. TWO FRENCH EXPERIMENTS.

It will be found helpful to consider in some detail continental experience in the details of school expeditions. It must,

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\* The journeys of the young university students in the Middle Ages had the same effect.

however, be remembered that though school expeditions of some sort or another are almost universal in the case of secondary or higher grade schools throughout Germany, yet these expeditions vary very considerably in quality and educational usefulness. The high educational example of Jena is by no means followed in all other districts, and instances have been brought to my knowledge in which the day journeys were positively demoralising by reason of the incapacity or misconduct of the teacher in charge of the party. It is absolutely essential to the usefulness of a school expedition that it should be under the control of a very highly trained and enthusiastic teacher.

The work done in France by the French Alpine Club—founded in 1874 for the regeneration of the nation, "*au lendemain de nos désastres*," is worthy of all praise. One of the fundamental objects of the club was "*l'organisation des caravanes scolaires*." In 1875 the president of the club, M. Cézanne, député des Hautes-Alpes, summarised the object of these journeys in the following words:—"Arracher les jeunes gens à l'énervante oisiveté des villes, organiser pendant les vacances ces caravanes scolaires dès longtemps pratiquées en Suisse et en Allemagne dont Töpffer a si spirituellement illustré les joyeuses péripéties, et qui laissent dans la mémoire de ceux qui y ont pris part, un souvenir ineffaçable."

The Club created a Commission especially to organise school expeditions, walks, excursions and journeys for the pupils of *lycées* and *collèges*. The whole question was discussed at a Conference called on October 28th, 1905, by M. Julien Bregeault in the grand amphitheatre of the Sorbonne, and held under the presidency of M. Bienvenu-Martin, *Ministre de l'Instruction Publique, des Beaux-Arts et des Cultes*.<sup>\*</sup> At this Conference the work now being done by the Commission was described. The President is M. Richard, "*le Töpffer français*." His work has, however, been in fact more elaborate and detailed than that of the German enthusiast. Töpffer only travels with his own pupils, and in the longer vacations. M. Richard travels all the year round with any pupils who may be available: "petites excursions et grand voyages, plaines et montagnes, partout il entraîne sa bande joyeuse, qui l'adore; actuellement il a fourni plus de quatre cent journées de direction effective, sans compter les courses qu'il suit en amateur."

He is helped in his work by two professors of the faculty of science, by a specialist in history, archæology, and geography, M. Leroy, who has worked at the movement from the first, and others. Two doctors accompany the expeditions; "*Ceci va rassurer les mères de famille*." In France, as in England, the fears of parents are found greatly to hinder the progress of school journeys. This is in fact, however, a desirable check, for it secures the guidance of efficient and desirable leaders. No careful parent, either here or in France, would or should allow

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<sup>\*</sup> "*Revue Pédagogique*." Nouvelle serie. Tome XLVII. No. 11. November, 1905. pp 464-474. Paris.

a child to join a school expedition unless a known teacher or leader of an absolutely reliable type is in charge.

The French Alpine Club expeditions are open to all scholars from *lycées* and *collèges* from the age of nine or ten years up to the age of military service, provided that the scholar can produce a written authorisation from his parents and a record of good conduct. There is only one form of punishment: exclusion or expulsion from the expedition. In 1904 the Paris section of the Club organised four long expeditions and seventy-four excursions in the immediate vicinity of Paris. The total number of attendances was 2,399 by 514 scholars. In the first seven months of 1905 there were 59 expeditions, including three long journeys, with 1722 attendances. The work was not restricted to the Paris section. At Lille, Marseilles, Lyons, important work was done while "les sections de Canigon, de la Drôme, d'Embrau, de Beaune, de Lons-le-Saunier, de Tarbes, de Pau, de Nice, ont également, mais à des intervalles plus espacés, procuré aux élèves de lycées et collèges de très intéressantes courses au grand air et dans la montagne." But the work has not yet in any sense reached the bulk of the secondary schools, and even in Paris not one-twentieth of the secondary scholars have been brought into the movement.

The cause of the comparatively slow extension of the movement, after the continuous efforts of thirty years, is probably the fact that these journeys are not a living part of the school life. They are organised from without and not from within. Every effort, indeed, is made to obtain full touch with the schools, and the movement has the full approval of the educational authorities. Every Thursday and Sunday during the school year excursions are made in the environs of Paris, at a cost to each pupil not exceeding two francs. This does not include food, which is frequently brought by the pupils and eaten in the open air. During the short holidays the Commission organises short expeditions, occupying two or three days, to some picturesque district or historic town or site. Twice a year—at Easter and at the beginning of the long vacation—journeys lasting ten days are made in France or abroad as far as Algiers, but mountainous regions—the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Vosges, the Jura, the region of Mont Blanc—are the favourite districts with those who join these long expeditions; which cost per head, at the most, all told, a little over six pounds. M. Bregeault complains of the indifference of French families to the undoubted advantages of these expeditions. He attributes it largely to the fears of the mothers—their unfounded fears, for no accident or sickness has ever marred an expedition—and public ignorance of the work done by the French Alpine Club. But neither reason is the real explanation. The work of the Club is external, and for success to be secured, for these journeys to become an integral part of child life, the work must be internal, must be organised within the school itself as part of the daily life of the school, as part of the normal education. M. Bregeault pleads for the scholar's journey with great eloquence on the grounds of personal

and national health, and no doubt on those grounds it ought to be supported. But unless the journey becomes a recognised part of national education, extending to the primary schools, it will not attract the parents as it ought. At present in France the school-journey is an "extra," a desirable "extra" no doubt, but still something not recognised as an essential instrument of education. Until it is so recognised it cannot become universal.

Yet the need of such an instrument of education in France becomes manifest enough when we turn from the pupils of the *lycées* and *collèges* to the children of the slum schools. Sir Edmund Verney, in an admirable paper,\* has given us facts that are startling enough. In 1887, twelve years after the French Alpine Club started its patriotic movement, Dr. Graux, a leading doctor at Contrexéville, being struck with "the condition of the children in the Paris slums, the high rate of mortality, the deterioration, physical and moral, of the survivors, the anæmic condition of the children at the end of the school year," projected, in conjunction with M. Duval, a country holiday home for poor Parisian children. M. Duval "was a member of the municipal council of one of the poorest and most crowded quarters of Paris, known as the XIth Arrondissement," a district with a working population of 220,000. The idea of these two social workers was to bring before the *gamin* "a simpler and happier mode of life," and suggested that this end would be attained if some Paris municipality were to acquire land and buildings in a rural district to form a country resort for the poorest class of children in its elementary schools. Dr. Graux and M. Duval, in pursuance of their plan, bought a disused château of the seventeenth century at Mandres, and M. Duval handed it over to the Caisse d'École of the XIth Arrondissement, furnished and ready for occupation. The original building supplied large dormitories and store rooms as well as a committee room, while new buildings added to the château a refectory with kitchens, and above them day rooms and a small library.

"The refectory opens into a wide glazed verandah, giving shelter to the children in wet weather, and, except while actually eating or sleeping, the children live out of doors. The one instruction given to the teachers in charge is to keep the children happy and amused in the open air. The only task insisted upon is a weekly letter to the parents, which is utilised to make them give a connected account of what they are seeing and doing."

It was to this life that two hundred "pale, weary, eager little boys" came in the summer of 1889. So the scheme started. The full proposal was to take in all, during the year, a thousand children from the age of ten to fourteen years, securing to each child three weeks holiday. Since only two hundred could be taken at a time the long summer holiday is not sufficient for the purpose. It was consequently necessary to work in intimate touch with the school authorities, thus securing a system that really operates from *within* the school and makes the school holiday an organic part of the school life. The first question to be decided, in view of

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\* "Children's Country Holiday in France," by Sir Edmund Verney, Bart. (*Good Words*, January, 1903).

the fact that some children must go to the holiday school in term time, is as to the class of children who are to lose their school work. The right principle was at once adopted. In the month of May, the children who are to take the holiday in school time are chosen from among those "who, from weak health or dull brains, are making the least progress in their studies." Thus a month of school work is given up to secure physical health, and the children on their return to Paris have their full school holiday. "Alternate batches of two hundred boys and two hundred girls are despatched throughout the summer, not a day being lost, the children returning from Mandres crossing the train by the way bringing a fresh party down from Paris." The last party of the year are composed of the pick of the schools in character and ability, some of whom are leaving school. All other children are back in Paris in time for the re-opening of the schools on October 1st. The effort, in fact, is made to reverse the normal and cruel order of nature, to give to those that have not, and to make up for the physical and moral loss that the poorest children inevitably suffer in the urban struggle for life.

It is worthy of notice that with this class of child no difficulty is made by the parents. In the middle class the parents are often too ready to sacrifice the gain to be derived from the school holiday to the fear of illness, or injury while away from home. No doubt the very poor parents are not sorry to be spared the cost of maintaining the children during the three weeks, but their readiness to allow the children to go cannot be assigned to this cause. They are delighted at the pleasure and benefit that the children are certain to derive from the holiday, and they have an official guarantee of safe custody. The difficulty of the parents is in England and France alike restricted to the less poor. Sir Edmund Verney gives a useful account of the method adopted in sending off a party to Mandres. Each child chosen has a number, and "he goes off to the Mairie of the Arrondissement in Paris, where 400 strong little wooden valises, each numbered and with its own key, are stored. . . . A dark cloth cap is presented to each boy, and forms a distinguishing mark." The boxes are returned to the Mairie next day packed and are then strongly fastened together in tens and sent to meet the children at the *Gare de l'Est*. The children are booked at the military (quarter) fares and go by a slow train, which, starting at 9.0 in the morning, reaches Contrexéville at 5.30 p.m. "Here the tradesmen who are purveyors of the school colony undertake to supply carts whenever required for the use of the children." Ten long light Lorraine carts take them in parties of twenty to the holiday houses. "Each child is weighed and measured on arrival and on departure; the average gain for boys is two kilogrammes ( $4\frac{1}{2}$  pounds), and for girls one to one and a half (about 3 pounds). Some boys have gained as much as eight pounds in the three weeks. When the girls are given some form of the gymnastic exercises now confined to the boys, their increase in weight and width of chest may perhaps be as striking as is already the case with the boys. The greatest change in their appearance is wrought during

the first eight days of their holiday; the skin becomes much clearer, and the whole aspect of the children is brighter. Life, which has been an anxious fight to many a little street arab, has suddenly become a tranquil state, sheltered from worry, in which cruelty and hunger are unknown. The mere quiet and silence of the country have a soothing influence, greatly aided by the unwontedly generous diet and kindly surroundings. After the first week the children begin to put on flesh and to relish the change of food, although some, accustomed to the stimulant of black coffee, with perhaps a dash of rum in it, despise at first the hot morning milk, which they say is only fit for feeding pigs; but when once they have taken to it they enjoy it and thrive upon it. The diet is abundant and excellent; after the hot milk-soup in the morning there is a substantial mid-day meal of stewed meat and vegetables, when each child has before him his tiny bottle of red wine; a bowl of milk at 4 p.m. and a supper of soup, roast meat, vegetables and fruit, with plenty of fine white bread at every meal." There is ample provision for bathing.

"In the short space of three weeks it is found that the change in the child's manners is almost as marked as in his bodily health. Cleanly habits of thought and action, perhaps hitherto unknown, the discipline of good manners at meals, and the unselfishness induced by the common life of a well-ordered community, tell upon the character quickly at such an impressionable age. Something practical is effected in combating what in some cases are inherited tendencies to evil. The scowl of the hunted animal is giving way to the natural gaiety of childhood, and this applies to the girls quite as much as to the boys. The girls do not get so much exercise as the boys but they are trained in household matters, cleanliness, order, and good management."

The holiday has its educational side. The long walks in the lovely woods are themselves lessons in nature study, and the children are specially taught to observe the various objects of the forest, the stems and roots, leaves and flowers, birds and beetles. "The village may be described as one vast farm yard." The children are brought into actual contact with Nature herself and with man working on the soil. The produce and the beauty of the world take a new reality from such an experience. Much depends, of course, on the self-sacrifice of the leaders and this is abounding. Each one only receives for three weeks thirty francs in addition to his or her keep, and for this has to be ceaselessly on duty, for the children are never left unattended day or night. "All are lay teachers; no religious instruction is given, but the children whose parents desire it are taken to the parish church, which is just outside the School Colony gate." Sir Edmund Verney usefully compares the Country Holiday Movement in Paris and London. The expense in France is greater; one thousand children for three weeks each cost 60,000 francs or £2,400, namely 60 francs (£2 8s. 0d.) for each child. "In England 10s. is paid for the keep of each child in a cottage

home for a fortnight, which scarcely pays the cottager unless two or three are taken together; the parents contribute to the railway fares, and nothing is paid for supervision from the moment when the child has started from the railway station in London. The French children are better and more scientifically fed, and enjoy a holiday of three weeks instead of two, and above all they are assured of getting it." In London the loss of voluntary subscriptions or an epidemic may deprive the most needy children of their holiday. "The French realise more readily than we do what an admirable national investment is the spending of money for the health and the education of the children, who are the only true wealth of a State." On the other hand our system "has charms and advantages of its own. London children, who are affectionately welcomed by the country secretary, generally a lady, and put into suitable homes, are introduced into quite a new world; make fresh, often lasting, friendships, and experience for themselves both the advantages and the drawbacks of country life. They take their share in the village interests, challenge the country boys to cricket, and generally beat them, and if a few apples are stolen and some rabbits and squirrels have a bad time of it, the independent life that our boys lead affords a valuable training of character. They are trusted, and are usually worthy of trust. They swarm into the hay fields and ride in the waggons and are treated everywhere with good-natured tolerance, and are allowed to try their hands at all sorts of occupations. . . . Boys and girls leave laden with gifts of flowers, fruit, and vegetables, which, with the characteristic generosity of the poor, the cottage-mothers often send back to the unknown mothers in London. Many a boy after he has gone to work in succeeding years has returned to the same kind hearth when a rare holiday has given him a day out of town; in some cases the parents of a delicate child have boarded him out for several months, or even years, in the village where his country holiday was spent, and under these conditions children of younger age can be sent to an experienced cottage-mother than are dealt with in France. Such spontaneous and valuable friendships are impossible under the French system. The boys are always treated as children; no surreptitious knife or ball drops out of a trouser-pocket; work and play are alike regulated; the School Colony is entirely self-contained, and enters into no relations with the village community. Much of the contrast has deep root in the different habits of the two nations; but an English observer has something to learn from the generous endowment and scientific organisation of the children's country holiday in France."

### III.—VACATION SCHOOLS.

It will be convenient here to turn for a short space from Continental experiments in order to contrast the English tentative methods of dealing with very poor urban children in vacation time, with the interesting Parisian experiment just described.

The French and the English and American workers have all something of the same end in view. To save the children from the streets, to prevent the holiday time destroying the moral and mental benefit of the school time, to do something that will help *physique*, is in the mind of all workers. The French, however, lay chief weight on physical improvement in the children, the Americans on pure recreation and amusement, the English on recreative but utilitarian occupation. Perhaps it would be fairer to compare, as is done by Sir Edmund Verney, the French holiday school with the English boarding-out system, since it may be said that as the French school is a boarding school and the English is a day school, the work done is not comparable. But, inasmuch as the aim of the two methods is much the same, it will be useful here to deal with the Vacation School organised by Mrs. Humphry Ward, and held at the Tavistock Place Settlement.\* Some combination of the ideas exemplified in the two systems may then become apparent.

The school ground and buildings are adjacent to the Duke of Bedford's "large, beautifully designed, neatly kept, and well-wooded garden," and this fact gives a touch of nature to the happy school day. There are also available for investigation the sites, overgrown with vegetation, of some demolished houses, and this has proved very useful for nature study. The report on the Vacation School† held in 1903 gives us in valuable elaboration the scheme followed. The following passage sets forth the aim of those who organised this school.

"The school aimed at giving the children something to do, in place of roaming listlessly about in street or alley, with nothing to tempt them to action save the ever-present opportunity for mischief. Children such as we had cannot amuse themselves. They have little imagination or initiative, and, as a rule, unless acting under guidance, fail to give their desire for amusement and occupation suitable shape. They roam about, suffering from a peculiar childish *ennui*, and actually long for the return of the normal school days and the cessation of the wearisome holidays. The purpose of the school was to change all this. It sought to satisfy the hunger for occupation by setting the children something to find out, or something to do. It sought to care for the physical well-being of the scholars by carefully organised exercises. It sought to raise the children's ideals of morals and conduct by direct and indirect instruction. It sought to show the children that coming to know and learning to do, are, in themselves, some of the truest of pleasures. It sought to afford pleasure chiefly to those children who were doomed, from one cause or another, to remain in London throughout the vacation, and so go sea-less, fresh-air-less, and joyless." The children were drawn from a dozen local Elementary Schools—

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\* The Holiday School at Osea Island described below may be compared with the French School at Mandrea. The Dutch Health Colonies dealt with below should also be considered.

† Vacation School Report to the London School Board by the Director of the Vacation School held at The Passmore Edwards' Settlement,

some Voluntary, some Board Schools. 1,500 forms of application for admission were printed, parts of these were filled up by teachers at the various schools and the rest by applicants at the Settlement itself. Subsequently, 329 personal applications were made. Of the 1,500 printed forms 1,352 were sent in, and consequently there were 1,681 applications for the 750 available school places. The organisers issued 750 invitations to attend. Of these children, 184 did not come, and 88 only attended once or twice, and therefore 272 additional scholars were invited. Some few of the guests were excluded by contagious illness, and other children did not want to stay more than 14 or 21 days, so that a few additional invitations were issued from time to time. In all 1,149 invitations were issued, and 965 children attended school once or more. The number of children on the attendance roll was intended to be kept at 750, and in fact it worked out at 751. It had been calculated that this would give an average attendance of 600, and in fact the average attendance worked out at 601·9. Thus, on the average, 80 per cent of the children attended without any system of machinery for securing regular attendance. Even on the wettest days—and 40 per cent. of the days were wet—the attendance was never bad. The school-going habit has indeed become a second nature to the town child. The session of the Vacation School opened on the first Monday following the closing of the elementary schools, and closed on the Friday before they re-opened. No time for acquiring a loafing habit was given, and the children at once were taught to enjoy their holiday. The children assembled each day at 9.45 and 4.45 in the court on the east side of the settlement. At 10.0 a.m. and 5.0 p.m. religious exercises (consisting of a hymn, the Lord's Prayer, the Beatitudes and an address, lasting in all fifteen minutes) were conducted in the court during fine weather and in the gymnasium at other times, on Monday, Wednesday and Friday by a minister of the Church of England, and on Tuesday and Thursday by a minister belonging to one of the Free Churches. The postcard of invitation had informed the parents that they could withdraw their children from the religious exercise if they so wished, but only one child was actually withdrawn. The parents of three other children desired to withdraw their children, but in fact their children did not attend the school at all. It will be remembered that in the case of the school at Mandres the French children were only given religious instruction if the parents wished it. In the case of the London School the parents were assumed to wish the instruction to be given, unless they expressed a contrary desire. The fundamental difference of outlook can scarcely be discussed here, but its importance cannot be over-rated. It is to be noticed that in the Settlement school discipline was easily maintained and the general tone of the children was good. No children were expelled for unruly behaviour. "They were orderly in coming, orderly in assembling, orderly in class, and orderly in going home. They were cheerfully obedient, happy and free, hardly ever venturing to presume on the kindness shown them"

and invariably keeping within the bounds of reason." There was no system of punishment except the greatly feared threat "not to come again." In the case of the Mandres school the children appear to have been under a much closer system of oversight: but one is tempted to think that the children in the Settlement school were of a somewhat higher type than the children at Mandres.

The curriculum of the school was made up of the following kinds of instruction:—

- (1) Manual training (Woodwork for older boys).
- (2) Housewifery and cookery (older girls and occasionally boys).
- (3) Singing, Musical Drill, Physical Exercises, Gymnastics (Boxing for older boys).
- (4) Story-telling.
- (5) Clay modelling.
- (6) Dancing.
- (7) Nature Study.
- (8) Brush work and Drawing.
- (9) Reading Room (Story Books).
- (10) Dramatics (in preparation for a performance at the end of the term).
- (11) Needle-work (dolldressing), Basketwork, and Cane-weaving.
- (12) Lantern story-telling.
- (13) Ambulance work and Nursing (including the washing and dressing a baby).
- (14) Swimming (boys and girls).
- (15) Sand digging.

The children were divided into ten classes from A (the eldest children) to K or L, separate kindergarten classes. These little people were about five years of age and had a special time-table under a responsible mistress. "The work taken included stories, building games, paper-folding, cutting and pasting, nature study, chalking, singing, colouring, clay-modelling, soap-bubble blowing, skipping, ship-sailing, and other recreative occupations—the delights of infant years."

Except in the case of Woodwork, Housewifery, Needlework, and Cane-weaving, the lessons lasted only 35 minutes, given alternately in the garden and the building. The garden was provided with seven gravelled sites for the outdoor lessons and there was a supply of trestle tables, chairs and other outdoor furniture. Parts of the sites of the demolished houses were turned into sandhills, while the vegetation on other parts of these sites was utilised for Nature Study. Every 35 minutes the class was marched to the central place of assembly and then marched away to other work. Half the children attended in the morning session and half in the afternoon. The ten classes in each session had a roll of 37 or 38 pupils, of whom 30 or 31 were on the average present. "As soon as this number was exceeded (30 or 31) evidence began to appear of difficulty of working, and for Vacation School purposes our experience shows that 30 in attendance must be considered as the limit. For each of these classes

we provided one whole-time teacher or her equivalent—except that for the kindergarten three whole-time teachers (or their equivalent) were allowed for the roll of 75; for the Woodwork class the boys only (18 or 19 on the roll) of a normal class were deemed enough for one teacher and the girls (a like number) were deemed enough for the Cookery and Housewifery." In addition to the instructresses in Singing, Dancing and Musical Drill two accompanists were provided and in the Gymnastic class there was an instructor for the boys and an instructress for the girls. Over and above these, there was a mistress who helped generally where needed. This made a staff equivalent to sixteen whole-time teachers drawn mostly from from secondary or kindergarten training centres and schools together with some graduates. The school was organised on the mixed principle—enabling brothers and sisters to work together—"and accustomed both boys and girls to live naturally in each other's presence without excess of bashfulness on the one hand, or frivolity on the other." Work of exceptionally good quality was done, especially in Woodwork, Nature Study and Gymnastics. "The children found useful occupation pleasurable, and a number came to recognise, perhaps for the first time, the blessedness of having something to do worth doing." There can be no doubt that the Vacation School was a definite success in 1903 at this settlement and subsequent experiments have more than confirmed this success. Parents and children alike welcome the school. At the dramatic entertainment which concluded the sittings of 1904 there were present 1,050 children who had attended the school. The work of this school grows in importance each year, and the experience now gained will be of the first importance to those who start such schools in other great centres.

The secret of success was evidently associated with the number and great skill of the teachers. It is a sound educational principle that the younger and poorer the children are, the more highly trained and sympathetic the teachers must be. The school, too, supplied a definite demand. The streets of a great town are not the place for a holiday and can undo in a few weeks the work of as many years. But the Vacation School does not answer all the purposes of the French Vacation School. It does not remove the children even for a brief period from the urban environment, and therefore can do little for the physical constitution of the child. To combine the Vacation School with the Boarding-out system, or Holiday Home system, seems nearer an ideal scheme. If children could be boarded in cottage homes during the period when the country schools are in vacation and the schoolhouses could be used for Vacation Schools run on exactly the lines adopted at the Passmore Edwards Settlement, the advantages, without the obvious disadvantages of the French scheme, would be secured. Of course such an end could only be attained by the most intimate correlation of administration between rural and urban local education authorities. Cottage homes would have to be placed on a register by the rural education authorities, and a list of

such homes supplied to the urban authorities. The difficulties of machinery would be very great, and not the least of these would be the supply of teachers in rural districts during the vacation. This difficulty might in fact be found insuperable. The present system of town Vacation Schools might, however, suffice if an alternate solution of the difficulty as to the necessity of a change of environment were adopted—the drafting into cottage homes during the ordinary sessions of the rural schools of the children most in need of change in environment. These children would attend the rural schools in the ordinary course, and would in the summer attend the urban Vacation Schools. Such a scheme would have the advantage of taking back to the land the very type of child that most needs some inducement to leave the towns; but it would necessitate a higher standard of teachers and teaching than is now available in most rural districts. The experience of England and France alike proves the necessity of adopting some educational change that will give the poorest of town children the physical and moral benefits of rural life during some period of the year. The expense attending the transfer to cottage homes is of course the primary difficulty to be overcome. The children who attend the London Vacation Schools are those whose parents cannot subscribe to a holiday fund. It is probable that the case could only be met by a grant in aid. If such a grant could be secured it would be paid to the local education authority who supplied the school places and guaranteed the cottage homes. On paper such a scheme does not appear to be unworkable, and its advantages are manifest; but it would have to be worked out in very elaborate detail and on a small scale before it could be adopted. An experiment could easily enough, however, be made. It would not be difficult for the Education Committee of the London County Council to arrange such an experiment with, say, the Surrey or Hampshire County Council. If this proved successful a great step in advance would have been taken.

The evil at which this suggestion aims—the social disease of *accidie*—has been directly attacked in Manchester by an energetic voluntary committee working in conjunction with the Education Committee of that city, by the formation of a “Country School” (originally suggested in 1903 by the Rev. S. Nugent Barry) at Knoll’s Green, Knutsford. During the year 1905–6\* something like 1,200 children and teachers were sent to the school. This large number was accommodated by the addition of a camp to the school buildings. This school can only take eighty scholars at a time. The building is of corrugated iron, lined with stained and varnished wood. It is cheerful, bright, and clean, and includes a schoolroom, a dining room, two large airy dormitories, cloak room, matron and teachers’ rooms, kitchens, etc. The scheme provided that the children should, in each case, stay two weeks, and should pay for the period the

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\* Fourth Annual Report of the City of Manchester Education Committee. See also first Report of the Committee of the Knoll’s Green School and articles in the *Manchester Guardian* of July 11th, 1904, and April 30th, 1906.

sum of 7s., including the railway fare to Mobberley. The day began at half-past six, school from nine to twelve and two to four (most of the work out-door work), with a splendid dinner in between the school periods. Tea and supper followed, and bed at 8.30, with a master to read the boys to sleep. The progress made by the boys and girls (each sex alternately occupy the buildings) is remarkable in the extreme—mentally, as well as physically. The cost of starting the school was £3,000, and it is now proposed by means of a grant of £400 from the administrative sub-committee on education to increase the permanent accommodation to 120 scholars. The voluntary committee of the school are of opinion that if this is done, the school will become self-supporting. It is probable that the Country School will become a part of the municipal educational system, for "the Country School Sub-Committee has since been asked to approach the David Lewis trustees with a proposal that the existing lease of the Country School shall be cancelled, and that in lieu thereof a fresh lease for ten years be granted to the Manchester Education Committee, with the provision that at the end of such ten years the Committee shall have the option of purchasing the land (up to ten acres) at £50 per acre."

The efforts of Manchester have not been limited to this useful Country School. During the summer of 1905 twelve school playgrounds were opened to children who had only streets to play in, and were extensively used. The question of the provision of playing fields in various parts of the city for the use of the older children in the elementary schools has become important in view of the clause in the Code of Regulations issued in July, 1906, as to organised games. It is there stated that "In schools for older children a period occupied during the school hours in properly organised games under competent supervision and instruction" may be counted as school attendance. The Board of Education, in answer to an inquiry from the Playing Fields Sub-committee (July 2nd, 1906) stated that the games in question might be played outside the various school premises. The Sub-Committee therefore made a number of recommendations to the Education Committee for the purpose of securing fields (in local parks or elsewhere) where football, cricket, hockey and rounders for boys (and similar games for girls) could be organised. It was proposed that one afternoon a week should be devoted to these games under the superintendence of the teachers in the respective schools.

Experimental country school work of importance has been done during the last two years by the Fielden and the Primary Demonstration Schools associated with (though not under the control of) the Manchester University Department of Education. The Primary School and Kindergarten was established in 1902 to demonstrate methods of school training and teaching to students in the Department. The general plan of school pursuits based on Froebelian and Herbartian methods, is under the direction of Dr. V. J. Findlay, the Fielden Professor of Education. The children leave at twelve years of age to take up higher work. The Fielden Demonstration School (also under the direction of

Professor Findlay) is a school of a higher elementary type for boys between eleven and fifteen years. A "school-camp" being among the experiments contemplated by the organisers of these schools, a first attempt was made in 1906, when a party of 12 children (3 boys and 9 girls from the two schools) between the ages of eight and fourteen years were taken by one mistress and two students to the camp of the Ancoats Lads' Club, near Marple. Miss M. G. Findlay, Headmistress of the Primary School and Kindergarten, states that:—

"The tents were used for sleeping merely; meals were served out of doors when possible, and in the kitchen in wet weather. We catered for ourselves and cooked all our own food, beside doing all the laying of tables, washing-up, sweeping, and bed-making. These duties were done much more cheerfully and promptly than were the school-lessons in our second experiment, and formed a most useful discipline which none, after the first day, resented. In spite of heavy rain at night and wet grass, no one caught cold, and all returned to Manchester looking sunburnt and well. A marked effect was visible in some cases during the remaining week or two of the term—nerves were steadied, self-control greater, and a new readiness to help in practical ways was manifest. That the whole work of the following year was enriched by these experiences was clearly shown by the eager way in which they were pressed into service to illustrate lessons of every kind. The sum charged to each child (10s.) covered all expenses including the few pence of the railway fare for teachers and children, and left us with a balance of 23s. in hand."

An experiment on a larger scale was made from July 8th to July 20th, 1907. The Fielden School sent 30 boys (aged from 10 to 16 years) with three masters, and the Primary School 29 children (aged from 6 to 11 years) with six mistresses. Some Training College and Diploma Students were also present. The party was lodged at the Holiday Home, Great Hucklow, an institution belonging to the Unitarian Sunday School Association. The charge for board and lodging was 7s. 6d. for each child and 11s. for each adult. The experiment in consequence of the increased railway fare resulted in a small financial loss. On this occasion the children were "at school"—bed-making and boot-blackening being their only household work. Miss Owen states that ordinary school work was resented by the children.

"Work that greatly interested the class in school was more or less openly resented, especially at first. The children wanted to run and shout, or to pick flowers and decorate their persons, rather than to attend to nature study and geography. The nature of the ground immediately about the Home lent itself to an unusual degree to the carrying out of fairy and of adventure plays, and of these the children never tired. Boys of 14 dug for gold till the perspiration poured off them in the burning sun; little ones were goblins in the woods, or met fearsome beasts which they slew in princely fashion; but all that savoured of the schoolroom seemed out of place. Yet when we returned to ordinary work the things we saw, and the new ideas we gained at Camp, served us at every turn, and Geography and Nature study have not failed to receive a stimulus despite apparent neglect. A little steady work was done every day, however, chiefly in the form of nature-records, diaries and home-letters. Basket-making was immensely popular towards the end and almost all the older children were able to take home their flowers in a basket of their own making. Some of the most valuable results of the experience are difficult to register. From the teacher's point of view the advantage of thus coming into close relationship with their children, in and out of school hours, can scarcely be overestimated. The social life means much to the children too, especially to those who have no big brothers or sisters to look up to at home, or no little ones to protect and care for."

An elaborate curriculum (including careful study of the fauna, flora, geology, and history of the district) has been prepared. Next year it will perhaps be possible from the experience gained to do more actual work. It is impossible not to feel that a certain amount of disorganisation must arise if school discipline is broken up during the term. Discipline is in itself a most important factor in education. Professor Findlay, in his interesting article on the experiment,\* lays emphasis on the fact that the time given to the work "is a part of school time, not of holiday time; attendance is counted just as at home. In fact, it is the day school turned for a fortnight into a boarding school, with all the advantages of intenser corporate life, self-help, independence, which are the peculiar product of good English boarding schools." Professor Findlay points out that the weeks preceding the "Camp" fortnight should be "utilised to prepare for the new life." Even on this second experiment preparation had its effect on the elder boys, and "some serious work" was done. The experience gained of country life was, moreover, all-important. "This widening experience, guided by teachers who know what appeals to the child, pays for itself a hundred times over, not only in nature-study and art, but also in geography, history, literature, song, and humanistic studies of every kind." It purifies taste as well as lungs. A parent of one of the children put the point very clearly: "The value of this country school is that my lad is learning how to enjoy the country. After he has been out here a few times he will not want to go to Blackpool and listen to nigger troupes." Professor Findlay lays stress on one very important point. The school "has been the creation of a class bond between school and home. We had to secure the goodwill of parents before they would entrust their children to us. It is a great adventure for a little boy or girl aged eight or nine to leave home, to sleep in a dormitory, with father and mother miles away!" As has been shown above, this is a real difficulty with parents who are not of the poorest class. Miss Grace Owen (an assistant lecturer and demonstrator in the University Department of Education) gives me the further information that walks and short excursions form a regular part of the school life in these two schools throughout the year. The younger children make frequent visits to two farms which are within a tram-ride of the schools, and the older children are taken out to make plans of the streets, to visit buildings of historic interest, and to see parts of the Technical School, such as the Weaving Department, etc. The Manchester Demonstration Schools will have done good work if they can make parents of all classes see the wisdom of country schools and camps, which give vent to the constructive and imaginative side of child-nature. Professor Findlay looks forward to the day when the large day schools in crowded cities will each have a permanent "camp" deep in the country. It is a goal that may well be reached.

The importance of this development of educational work in Manchester can hardly be over-rated. The necessity of some such device for dealing with physical deterioration is obvious,

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\* *Manchester Guardian* (August 19th, 1907).

and the success of a system of organised school games can hardly be doubted. The Manchester Committee have also made an experiment in connection with nature-study of an important kind. Certain public elementary schools were supplied in 1906 from the gardens at Swinton House with plants, such as lobelia, stocks, and asters, for the children to grow in their own homes. One penny was charged for each plant, and 2,497 were distributed. The children were invited to bring these plants back in September, and for each satisfactory plant a card of merit was then awarded. These plants were issued to sixteen school departments, and it was found that 583, or about 25 per cent. were successfully reared. The schools varied in their success. In one school no less than 99 plants out of 200 came to maturity.

An experiment of the Manchester School type was made in Epping Forest in 1907 by the Leipsic Road (Camberwell) Council School (boys' department). A party of 31 boys from the upper standards under the charge of the head master and one of his assistants occupied each day, for the school week beginning October 16th, the Shaftesbury Retreat (belonging to the Committee of the Fresh Air Fund), at Loughton on the edge of the Forest. Sleeping accommodation was available, as bunks were built round the walls of a large room and simple bedding provided. The sanitary and washing arrangements were quite satisfactory, and the food of excellent quality. Mr. W. J. G. Winn, H.M. Inspector of Schools, reports that "the cost of maintenance was chiefly borne by the Fresh Air Fund, but contributions were obtained from the parents of the boys wherever possible. Equipment for the boys, such as water-bottles and clothes-bags, was lent by various organisations. They went into the Forest about 9.30 a.m., and returned about 4.30 p.m. I went with one section during the morning and listened to the instruction. The boys were called on to notice different kinds of trees and flowers, the courses of streams and various considerations arising therefrom, the position of the sun, the temperature at different times of the day, differences of soil and many other miscellaneous points. They carried notebooks in which their observations were recorded. Most of them were keenly interested. I am of opinion that the undertaking was successful, and that the experience of these boys will prove a valuable basis for future teaching. Much credit is due to the headmaster, Mr. H. Kendall, for the trouble expended on the arrangements."

Another important attempt to solve the vacation problem was made at Leeds in August, 1906. A proposed Vacation School had been elaborately discussed, but it is a significant fact that when the original proposals came to be carried into practice many important modifications were found necessary. These proposals were briefly as follows:—"That the school should meet for three weeks in the August holiday, from 10 o'clock to 12 in the morning, and from 2 o'clock to 4, or 4.30 to 6.30 in the afternoon, and that the two hundred children should attend in two batches of one hundred

each morning and afternoon." The boys were to be from six to twelve years of age. The school was to be managed by six trained teachers at 20s. a week each. Each child was to pay 1d. or 2d. a week, and £50 was expected to cover all expenses. The proposed curriculum was as follows:—Nature lessons, drawing and painting, cookery, housewifery, clay modelling, sand-digging, doll-dressing, story-telling, sewing-cords, ball-making, bead-threading, kindergarten brick-building, songs, games, and dancing. The children were also to be taken by tram-car to the parks for open-air games.

The wisdom of the Leeds Education Committee and private benevolence caused this scheme to be modified. The committee placed at the disposal of the scheme a much better school than was anticipated—the Victoria Council School—an admirably fitted building on high ground, in good surroundings, near the public recreation ground. The children chosen were those "whose homes had least to offer them in the holidays," and careful visiting of the homes preceded the selection of children. The age of the children was from seven years without any fixed higher limit, which, in fact, reached thirteen years. A very attractive letter of invitation was sent to children from fifteen schools—namely, to 57 boys and 63 girls from Council Schools, 30 boys and 37 girls from National Schools, and 15 boys and 5 girls from Roman Catholic Schools—in all 102 boys and 105 girls. In order to secure the children who most needed the holiday, lists were examined by the school committee in conjunction with the attendance officers, and the final list from each school was settled by the head teachers. Two principles in the details of selection were followed. The younger children were taken from among children who lived near the Victoria School, and brothers and sisters were kept together where it was possible. Experience shows that too large a range of schools was chosen for selection. Much disappointment and work was involved in selecting 207 children from 15 schools. The proposed payment by the children was abandoned except one penny a week for tram fares. The generosity of Dr. W. Hall in providing a free meal for the children daily involved an important modification in the scheme. It was, in view of the meal impossible for the children to attend in two batches. "It was decided to have a mid-day meal for the children, and to open the school to the whole 200 together from 11 to 3 o'clock." This, of course, was a convenience to the staff, but it also necessitated an increase. Eight teachers at £2 a week were necessary for the work—(five mistresses, including a Cookery and Laundress instructress, and three masters, of whom two were Woodwork instructors)—in addition to Miss Haselden Brettell and Miss Rhoda Haselden Brettell, who, with special London experience in settlement work, superintended the whole scheme. Mr. Cooper, the Headmaster of the Victoria School, gave special help in the way of supplying time tables and advice as to division into classes, and drawing up lists of necessary apparatus. Experience shows that in these holiday schools, success depends on intimate exactitude in matters of detail. The Education

Committee allowed gas, coal, and school stores to be used, and these stores were generously supplemented by a local firm. Gifts of 50 dolls to dress, with packets of stuffs and kindergarten material were also given. Local interest, in fact, contributed largely to the success of the school.

It is very important to notice the actual working of the school, as it is only by experiment that these schools can be made really efficient. The school, when it opened at 11 o'clock on Monday, July 29th, was brightly decorated with flowers. The boys were on one side of the hall and the girls on the other. After an opening hymn and prayer and an explanation of the objects of the school, the children were marched to the class-rooms, in sets of 25 according to age and sex, with one teacher for each set. It was found that the attendance in the older sets was not quite equal to that in the younger sets.

"But this was an advantage in some respects, as the Cookery, Laundry, and Woodwork teachers, who only had children over ten years old, were not able to deal satisfactorily with quite so many as twenty-five in a set. In appointing teachers the Committee had allowed one paid teacher to each set of twenty-five . . . . Two teachers, or a teacher and a voluntary helper, to each set of twenty-five are really required to do the work satisfactorily. The Committee was fortunate in its staff of teachers, many of whom were enthusiasts in their own subjects, but if additional teachers could have been appointed it would have been better, and they should have included specialists in drawing and nature study for the older children."

This practical note is very important. It will be noticed that experience here does not coincide with experience in the case of Mrs. Humphry Ward's Vacation School. There it was found that one whole-time teacher could take 30 to 31 children. The difference is noticeable, and is to my mind explainable by the fact that London children are duller, less troublesome, and more susceptible to routine discipline than children in smaller towns. *Accidie* is more deadly in London than anywhere else.

The original curriculum at the Leeds Vacation School for the most part stood the test of experience. Housewifery and dancing were deleted—"on the whole dancing is not appropriate to the August holidays"—while Swedish drill, Woodwork, and Laundry work were added with great success.

The Report on the school contains a significant note on the *kind* of teaching necessary in Vacation Schools—a note that is a severe but familiar commentary on current methods of teaching in county and borough schools. "This kind of teaching is very different from ordinary class work. It gives great opportunities to an energetic and original teacher, because the aim is not to obtain definite results, such as could be tested by examination, but rather to draw out the children's powers and interest them at the moment—to make the most of the present rather than to lay foundations for the future. It may be an experience of great value to the teacher, especially to the conscientious teacher who is inclined to sacrifice everything to the orderly working out of his method."

A good deal of time was spent out of doors by the children, and was occupied in games, excursions, and garden parties. On the last working day the school was thrown open to visitors, who saw the classes at work and the objects made by the children, such as baskets, dressed dolls, brush work, knitted articles, and some ingenious wooden toys, made in the workshop.

The school seems to have been most successful. As a result of the course and the meals (we are told that the children took kindly to brown bread and milk), the scholars improved in cleanliness and general appearance during the three weeks. They greatly enjoyed themselves, and there was no difficulty in getting them to attend. There was some doubt as to whether the result was unsettling for the next term's work. The teachers were of opinion that it was not unsettling. If it tended to unsettle the system of teaching for "results" indicated above the fact need not be deplored. The total cost of the course was about £60, or, say, six shillings per pupil. This sum was expended on teachers and tram fares. The children contributed £1 12s. 0d., or about two-thirds of the sum asked from them. Girls contributed more regularly than boys. The cost worked out at about three shillings per week per child, in addition to the wear and tear of school premises, the cost of coal and gas, the provision of apparatus and material and, of course, the provision of the free meals. This experiment was on a much smaller scale than that promoted by Mrs. Humphry Ward, and was different in many ways—especially in the provision of free meals—but it is probable (apart from the question of meals), that the out-of-pocket costs were much the same. There seems every reason why these experiments should be repeated in the various great centres of industry, including, if voluntary subscriptions can be raised, the provision of the mid-day meal. On the whole it seems better to have the whole school sitting together than to have two separate schools in the morning and afternoon. A single sitting is indeed essential if there is to be a meal, and it is probable that the supply of meals would not be impossible, even in London. Meals for which pupils pay are now supplied without difficulty at some very large secondary endowed schools (as, for instance, the Roan School for Girls at Greenwich), and the simpler free meals contemplated could be arranged with very little difficulty if the funds were forthcoming. The children might indeed be asked to pay something towards these meals. Experience shows that 1½d. or 2d. a head will suffice for an ample meal where there is no rent to be paid for the dining room, and even very poor parents would in most instances contribute 1d. Voluntary contributions would have to make up the deficit.

The Leeds experiment was repeated in 1907, but the centre itself was moved out to Cross Flats. Each of the two hundred poor children who attended had to walk at least three-quarters of a mile, and many of them arrived before the school opened at 11 a.m. and lingered after it closed at 3 p.m. The school buildings which are occupied in term time by a well-to-do class of children, are practically in the country. They adjoin a public park (a

portion of which, large enough for several games of cricket as well as other games to be played at the same time, is set apart for children) and beyond the park are fields and farms, where the children are welcome to wander. Occasionally the farmers were kind enough to give milk to parties of the children, and as certain Leeds shopkeepers also gave for the use of the children, or sold at a very low rate, bags of cakes, country picnics were possible. Each day soon after noon the children were given a meal "consisting chiefly of brown bread and nut butter and a banana and plum cake." Grated cheese and grated nuts were sometimes added. Miss Elizabeth Oakeshott, the honorary secretary of the Centre, also tells us that "a part of every day was spent out of doors. The children were in the playground for half an hour after dinner, and later on played games or went for a short walk, coming back with their arms full of wild flowers. It is almost incredible what a large amount of work had been done when the school came to an end, considering how much time had been spent out of doors. Dolls had been dressed, baskets made, high-flyers, photograph frames, tea-pot stands, bread and plain cakes, and I think the work had been enjoyed as much as the play. We were fortunate in finding an excellent Director and Staff for the school."

The Walworth Holiday School, started in July, 1904, for the poor children of Southwark, shows us a modification of the methods of the Passmore Edwards Settlement School. It was organised by the Browning Settlement. A circular, stating the facts as to the proposed school and the need of personal service or of help in the way of money or goods, was issued by Miss Ethel Lancaster, of 3, Sutherland Street, Walworth, S.E. The teachers in the local schools were asked to select the poorest children who would not get a country holiday that year. Seven hundred names were sent in, of these three hundred were selected, and Miss Lancaster sent to the fortunate children cards of invitation and admission. The London County Council granted for the purposes of the school the King and Queen Street Schools and made a special reduction of the tram fares to Tooting Common. The Southwark Borough Council admitted the children to the Newington Baths at specially reduced rates. The Holiday School was open 16 days in 4 weeks from July 25th to August 17th. All the teachers were volunteers. There were 19 occasional and 9 regular helpers.

"There were classes in the mornings in musical drill, games, clay modelling, drawing and painting, singing, stencil-cutting and story-telling. In the afternoons 577 visits were paid to the Newington Baths for lessons in bathing and swimming, and 1,050 visits were paid by tram to Tooting Common, six miles away, where the rudiments of Nature-study were implanted. The daily average attendance of the children was 231. The numbers could easily have been trebled had the requisite staff of teachers been forthcoming. Up to the last the children excluded were clamorous to be admitted. The improvement in the appearance of the scholars during the sixteen days was very marked in cleanliness, tidiness, and interest in the School. A very large number of the children had never been in either bath

or tramcar or in a park before. They were loud in their expressions of appreciation of the School, and the enthusiasm of their devotion to the teachers was touching to witness. Thanks to the entirely honorary nature of the help given by teachers, the total cost of the School was £30 11s. 2d., which was met by voluntary subscriptions. This figure works out almost exactly at an average cost per head of 2d. per day, 8d. per week, 2s. 8d. per four weeks." The success of the Browning Settlement School at such a cost is remarkable. It shows what can be done in the poorest neighbourhoods with very small means. The original experiment in 1902 at the Passmore Edwards Settlement, in Tavistock Place, led, however, to various other experiments beside the schools at Manchester, Leeds, and Walworth. "At Woolwich a very successful school was started, to which the London County Council lent school furniture, allowing the organisers to buy materials for the various classes at cost price. The numbers were limited to 240. At Stratford, E., a Vacation School was opened in buildings provided by the West Ham Town Council, consisting of a pupil teacher's centre, with a manual training centre, and a large garden. Great use was made of the lantern to illustrate talks about plants and animals, and biographies of great men."\*

The weighty memorial to the London County Council, from which this quotation is taken, was not without its effect. The Education Committee of the Council reported in June, 1905, to the Council† that they were advised that Vacation Schools could not be carried on or supported in any way by the Council under its powers relating to elementary education. But by the joint operation of Sections 2 and 22 (3) of the Education Act, 1902, it could carry out the suggestions of the memorialists. The Committee also reported that the then period was inopportune for a grant, but that they recommended the giving of facilities for such schools in twelve County School buildings. The Report laid down the very necessary principle that no teacher permanently employed in any of the schools for the maintenance of which the Council is responsible, should be permitted to teach during his or her holiday, unless an arrangement were made for such teacher to receive a compensatory holiday for the time given in such school, the salary of a teacher "on supply," during such compensatory holiday being paid by the Voluntary Association organising the Vacation School. The Report went on to suggest that in recognition of the facilities afforded by the Council, the Council should be entitled to ask of any Association desiring to take advantage of these facilities, that the subjects to be taught should include—manual training, needle-work, Nature-study, gymnastic and musical drill, kindergarten, games, drawing and brush work, stories from history or mythology, fairy tales, singing, dancing, clay modelling, and use

\* *The Times*, March 23rd, 1905, Memorial to the London County Council in favour of Vacation Schools.

† *The Times*, June 13th, 1905.

of libraries; and that they should be asked to make great use of school play-grounds, of neighbouring parks, of organised excursions to open spaces in the neighbourhood of London, to museums and other places of educational interest. Mrs. Humphry Ward, in a letter to *The Times* of July 31st, 1905, drew attention to this Report, and stated that in the Vacation School (organised by the Passmore Edwards Settlement) then about to be re-opened, there would be 1,000 children enrolled at the opening, out of 1,550 applicants—500 in the morning, from 10.0 to 12.30; and 500 in the evening from 5.0 to 7.30. There would be 18 or 20 teachers under the capable head-master, Mr. E. G. Holland, who had had charge of the school from the beginning (1902). The cost of each child would be from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 9d. per week—5s. to 7s. per head for the whole period of four weeks. The Bishop of Hereford (Dr. Percival) in a letter to *The Times* of August 5th, 1905, criticised the cost of this school in view of the experience of the Vacation School at Hereford. "In Hereford it has been proved by the experience of two successive years, that such a school can be conducted in a thoroughly attractive and efficient manner at a cost of 8d. per week, for each child attending four mornings in the week, or at about half the cost of the London School. In 1903 we had 512 children in regular daily attendance, and the total cost for three weeks was £50, or rather less than 2s. for each child." The low cost was secured by drawing up an interesting curriculum and advertising for teachers "who were glad to spend three or four weeks of their holiday in Hereford, and to earn a little money by teaching their favourite subject for about eight hours each week." Mrs. Ward's reply\* showed that in fact (if the schools had been open the same number of hours) the Hereford school would have cost £2 1s. 3d. per hour for 500 children, while the London school costs £2 14s. for the same number—a comparatively small difference. She went on to plead for the public control and support of Vacation Schools as the only method of dealing with half a million of children, and urged that the teaching method suggested by the Education Committee of the London County Council, in the Report of March, 1905, would supply a considerable amount of the teaching power, practically at no extra expense to the public.

It is desirable to make some fuller reference to The Hereford Holiday School of 1903, which was opened on the advice of the Bishop of Hereford. "The object of the Holiday School was to provide pleasant recreative instruction (no bookwork) for boys and girls, as a counter-attraction to the streets, during a part of the summer vacation . . . . The summer holidays cater, to a large extent, for the hop-pickers, and extend six weeks, although the first half of those weeks is spent by many children in the streets." The Scudamore Schools were selected for the school, and the head master, Mr. J. W. Rider, was appointed by the Local Education Authority Organiser, with a free hand

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\* *The Times*, August 8th, 1905.

subject to the cost not exceeding £50. "Arrangements were made for opening the Holiday School, and providing instruction for 200 boys and 200 girls over seven years of age." In fact, "the number of children was so large, that an alternative scheme was introduced. The younger boys came on alternate mornings. Every Elementary School in the city of Hereford was represented on the roll of the Holiday School." The numbers enrolled were:—Boys, 461; Girls, 382; total, 843. The average attendance was:—Boys, 255; Girls, 257; total, 512. This average would have been nearer 600 but for the plan of making the younger boys attend on alternate mornings.

The following notes as to the staff and curriculum indicate the character of the work done:—

*Organiser—*

- (1) Mr. J. W. Rider, Headmaster, Scudamore School, Hereford.

*Colour work and singing (Boys)—*

- (2) Mr. C. Challis, Head-master, Salter's Lode School, Norfolk.  
 (3) Mr. T. Parker, Assistant-master, Scudamore School, Hereford.

*Experimental Science—*

- (4) Mr. Leslie Scott, Inter : B.Sc., Science master at an Intermediate School in Anglesey.

*Nature Study and Lantern lectures—*

- (5) Mr. T. Williams, Head-master, St. Martin's School, Hereford.

*Gardening—*

- (6) Mr. J. Yeates : Professional Gardener.

*Games—*

- (7) Mr. A. Brookes, Instructor in Cricket, and three Monitors.

*Nature Study, Colour Drawing, and Fancy work—*

- (8) Miss Rodway Barnes, Grammar School for Girls, Worcester.

*Singing and Colour work (Girls)—*

- (9) Miss Margaret Brearley, Head-mistress, under Walthamstow School Board.

*Games, Fancy work, Colour work—*

- (10) Miss Gertrude Brearley, Head-mistress of Country School near Walthamstow.  
 (11) Miss B. Rowberry, Assistant-mistress, S. James' School, Hereford, and six Monitresses.

The school opened on Monday, August 17th, for three weeks, meeting on Mondays, Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays from 10-12. Wednesday is market day in Hereford. The boys undertook colour drawing of common objects (*i.e.*, a yacht) and simple designs. Boys who had colour boxes worked at flower painting. The girls did simple designs, and colour drawing from nature (such as clematis spray, ivy-leaves) for bigger girls. This subject was *unusual* and very popular. Songs were taught by ear. "Tunes were played and afterwards accompanied by the piccolo." Rambles proved very attractive. The elder girls brought specimens back to school and pressed them between blotting paper, and in the third week mounted them in books and named them. The younger children were merely taught the names of the flowers that they gathered. Artificial flower-making was undertaken by the IVth Standard girls, who made

poppies, daffodils, and sweet peas. The flowers when finished were taken home by the children. Crochet work and crewel work had a great fascination for the elder girls. Visits were made to places of interest. Two batches of boys visited the Corporation Gas and Electrical Works and Sewage Farm, where the works and the processes were explained. The *Hereford Times* Printing Works were also visited. The manager showed the working of the Linotype machine, and how a large weekly paper is produced. At the Herefordshire County Council experimental fruit farm the County Council lecturer gave lessons on grafting and budding fruit trees. There were also visits by the junior boys to the Museum. The senior girls visited the Cathedral twice, conducted by the Dean of Hereford and were taken over the Bishop's Palace by the Chaplain. All girls visited the King's Acre Nurseries with the extensive gardens and conservatories, while the junior girls paid two visits to the Museum. Children in regular attendance were allowed to enter for the sports on two afternoons in the last week, when 200 prizes were offered by the Hereford tradespeople for walking matches, running and cricket competitions, among the boys, for skipping, tug-of-war, and other contests among the girls. To all children making a perfect attendance a special certificate was given. No less than 265 such certificates (123 to boys, 142 to girls) were awarded. In fact, half of the children in average attendance made a perfect attendance.

The religious instruction was undertaken by two local ministers of the Church of England and one Nonconformist minister. "Short prayers, Bible stories, and simple lessons for every-day life were given each morning and lasted fifteen minutes. On fine mornings the religious opening of the school took place in the play-ground."

"The discipline was excellent in every respect, due chiefly to the skill and enthusiasm of the teachers. The children were kept constantly employed, and had no time for talking or inattention. Considering that children from every school in the city were enrolled, it was very satisfactory that no 'scenes' occurred after school between scholars from different schools. This is evidence of the good fellowship which prevailed."

It is of course very difficult to compare schools and scholars in London and Hereford, or any other provincial town. Experiments must be based on a wise choice of the material supplied by earlier experiments. The higher rate of average attendance in London seems additional evidence that the London child does not know what to do with himself or herself in the vacation, and gladly seeks light and leading if offered. There are, in fact, more attractions to interest the mind of a child in the country, despite the usual opinion as to the variety of interests available in town life.

Mrs. Ward, in an article in the "Commonwealth" for October, 1905, dwelt further on the value of the work done in Vacation Schools, with special reference to the Tavistock Place Vacation School. The singing and dramatic class "did wonders in the

hands of an experienced and ingenious teacher." Nature-study, drawing and clay modelling and kindergarten were all equally successful. This article was written after the school for 1905 had closed, and the results are given. Perhaps it should be explained that the average daily attendance of 930 was divided into two schools, the "White" and the "Blue," the White attending in the morning and the Blue in the evening, and *vice versa* week by week. Each school opened with a hymn, the Lord's Prayer, and the Beatitudes. The staff consisted of the Director, the teachers, and three accompanists, and the sum spent on salaries during the four weeks amounted to £226 6s. 0d. The total expenditure works out at about 1s. 6d. per child per week, a little more than last year; but a special sum was spent on drawing in order to test the Philadelphia system, and we shall have a larger amount of stores left over for next year than was the case on the last occasion. The amount spent in materials, were the whole amount charged to this year, would come to 8d. per child per month."

The Vacation School has not yet taken any very noticeable place out of London. I have already mentioned the Leeds School and the Hereford School. Some references must be made to the Vacation School held at Sheffield in 1906.\* Mrs. Humphry Ward visited Sheffield in May, 1906, and suggested the formation of a school on the model of the Tavistock Place School. Miss Barron, a certificated kindergarten mistress on the staff of the Sheffield Girls' High School, was chosen as the superintendent of the school formed in consequence of this suggestion. Despite her want of previous experience in this kind of work the school was a complete success. "A list of children in the immediate neighbourhood (of the Croft House settlement, where the school was held) was made up, drawn from those in attendance at the day schools, the Sunday schools, and various institutions associated with the Settlement. These were visited personally, names were filled in of those who accepted, the forms being left to be brought as the "open sesame," whilst a duplicate was retained for registration. Four classes were formed—a girls' major and minor and a boys' major and minor, the minors being from four to seven years of age, and the majors from seven to eleven. These were taught by the same teacher for the whole of the time, the two ladies being certificated (Froebel) mistresses, whilst one of the men is an assistant master in a boys' private school. The children assembled every morning in the gymnasium, and after the singing of a well-known hymn, such as "Onward, Christian Soldiers" and the repetition of the Lord's Prayer, were drafted to their respective class-rooms, whilst a march was being played on the piano. For the first half-hour a story was told in each class, for the second there was some kindergarten occupation, for the third there was another occupation for the seniors, whilst the juniors went to their games, and *vice versa* for the last half-hour.

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\* See "The British Congregationalist," September 6th, 1906.

The occupations comprised clay modelling, graphic representation, crayoning, paper-folding, bead-work, cake-work, brush-work, wood-work, etc., and called forth some really remarkable specimens of originality and skill." The games "consisted of a sand heap, with spades and buckets placed in an adjoining yard, rocking horses lent by friends, skipping ropes, balls, nine pins, puzzles, etc." The attendance on the last morning was 170, which was 40 in excess of the limit.

The lesson to be drawn from the scanty available material seems to me to be the need of concerted action between the Board of Education, the local education authorities and voluntary associations in order to secure a rapid multiplication of Vacation Schools in crowded areas. Regulations for such schools might well be issued and some regular system of organisation and inspection instituted. Such regulations could also deal with Holiday Country Schools and School Journeys so as to correlate these new branches of a national system.

#### IV. COUNTRY SCHOOLS FOR BACKWARD TOWN CHILDREN.

It is at this point that I must say something of the "Open Air School" held at Osea Island, in the estuary of the Blackwater on the Essex coast, not far from Maldon, in June and July, 1906. "The Homerton Residential School for Deaf Children is set apart by the London County Council for the reception of children who, in addition to being *deaf*, are also mentally and physically weak, and on that account require special care and treatment from the educational, medical, or domestic point of view."\* It was decided early in 1906 "to transfer the whole of the Homerton School, consisting of 46 residential and 24 day scholars, the teachers and domestic staff, from the dingy surroundings of Homerton to the green fields, blue skies, and breezy beach of Osea Island." Of these 70 children "some are entirely deaf and dumb, and so defective that after several years of patient trial, they have been found to make little or no progress by the methods employed in the ordinary deaf schools; some are partially deaf and suffer from defective speech, coupled with aphasia, word-blindness, and defects of a similar nature; some are blind; some partially blind, and practically every child presents a little psychological problem of its own. The object of the proposal to transfer the children was to try the experiment of living in the open air, amid beautiful surroundings, with open-air lessons, to generally increase the interests and intelligence of the children by combining the delights of novel and pleasureable surroundings with the advantages of physical exercises, sea-bathing, and a constant supply of health-giving ozone."

Osea Island, a mile from the coast at high water, but accessible by cart at low water, is just the spot for such an experiment. "There are four miles of clean shingly beach, surrounding the green fields of a well cultivated farm, and a closer acquaintance

\* See "Child-life," October, 1906, pp. 197-202, for the full details of this experiment.

with its shady nooks, its profusion of wild flowers, the teeming varieties of animal and plant life, in addition to the pervading peace and quietness, only serve to increase the attractiveness of the place."

The question before the promoters was to find funds for a scheme which deserved the approval that it found. The island possesses a "camp" that can be hired "consisting of five good huts, each containing sixteen bunks with a splendid supply of clean bedding, a dining hall capable of seating about two hundred people, good cooking and sanitary accommodation, and a plentiful supply of water from an artesian well." The money available was a grant of £20 from the London County Council and voluntary subscriptions from parents and others amounting to £50. The camp accommodation costs 6s. a month for each child. The accommodation and maintenance of 24 children (day scholars at Homerton) fell entirely on the voluntary fund, as well as all expenses (such as transport) that were incurred in the expedition. The Council, of course, paid for the maintenance of those children (46) who were maintained at Homerton. But we may take it that the whole cost of accommodation (£21) fell on the Fund. The sum raised (£70) paid for all these additional expenses, so that at an average cost of £1 per head seventy children obtained their school by the sea. It is difficult to estimate the exact figures, but it would appear, roughly, that if all the children had been day children and therefore all maintainable out of voluntary fund, the school could have been kept going at a cost under 10s. per week per head for all expenses. The results of the "Open Air School" were valuable beyond all comparison with the minute cost. The fact that the weather was almost continuously fine no doubt was responsible for some of the gain, but the good results were mainly due to the entire change of environment and the skill with which the School was conducted. The daily routine was as follows:—

- 6.30. Rise, clear up sleeping huts, wash, etc.
- 7.30. General parade for marching, running, or physical exercises.
- 8. 0. Breakfast.
- 8.30. Washing up, making beds, clear up the camp generally.
- 9. 0. Parade for breathing exercises before school.
- 9.15. School lessons in the open air (language).
- 10.30. Bathing, or drill, or recess.
- 11.15. School work (arithmetic).
- 12. 0. Recreation, lay dinner.
- 12.30. Dinner.
- 1.15. Clear up, washing up, etc.
- 2. 0. School work.
- 3. 0. Observation walks, wading (or bathing).
- 4. 0. Staff tea.
- 5. 0. Tea for teachers and children, evening organised games.
- 8. 0. Supper and bed.

The peculiar difficulties of out-door classes were carefully met. The children had "blocks" with stiff backs, instead of copy books, and black card-board sheets and wall sheets were affixed to a tree or wall for blackboard purposes. The system of "Mixed" classes was not adopted so that re-classification was

unnecessary when the turn for bathing and wading arrived. The school was divided for teaching purposes into six groups, five of which were taught in "some shady spot either on the farm, in the fields, or on the beach." The remaining group of little ones (including a blind-deaf child) had their lessons, interspersed with plenty of play, in the camp quadrangle. Botany lessons were very frequent and each child gathered its own specimens. The lesson was nearly always taken from the environments. For instance, take the following case: "a plunge through a narrow path overhung with thick foliage brings us to a cosy corner, where we find another class seated on a sort of natural gallery facing the sea. More than a mile away the mainland is almost lost in the warm haze, and the lapping of the tiny waves on the bright clean shingle gives this class room a delicious coolness, even on a hot day. Again the lesson will be found to take its origin from the surroundings, the names of the varying objects of the sea and shore, with some simple language appropriate to the subject and the intellectual capacity of the child being given by the teacher, written on the blocks, and accompanied by sketches of varying degrees of merit."

Bathing and paddling followed the morning "language" lesson, and then followed other classes before dinner. In the afternoon, the lessons were shorter and included drawing and needlework. "Part of the time, at least, was given to a ramble through the fields or to exploring some of the never-ending wonders of the beach." There were evening romps, and by 8.30 p.m. the children were "all snugly tucked into the comfortable bunks in their respective huts. The doors and windows of the huts were generally kept wide open both night and day; so that the children practically slept as well as played and worked in the open air the whole time they were away." All Saturday was spent in recreation, and "the whole life of the island was so full of interest that not the least trace of weariness was ever shewn by the children." The farm was an endless joy. Indeed the experiment was an absolute success. "Even the dullest and most apathetic of the children showed a little keenness about the doings of the animals, the rising and falling of the tide, and the movements of the boats as they passed, and one most defective child, whose power of expression was limited almost entirely to 'signs,' volunteered the remark to his teacher one day, when he had grasped some new fact hitherto undreamt of in his philosophy, that 'there are many, many *new* things, here in Osea.'" In this exclamation we have the greatest tribute to the success of the experiment. The dumb spake. I must make one final quotation from the charming report which seems to me to indicate the spirit in which the experiment was undertaken and the cause of its success!

"Sunday was usually one of the most delightful days of the week, as one did not in the least object to a complete rest after the week of constant activity in some shape or other. There

being no church, service consisting of a little Scripture narrative and the lessons to be deduced from it, some children's hymns, and prayers, suited to the capacity of the children, was taken morning and evening either in the fields or on the shore. Perhaps the most touching incident in this connection happened at evening service on the first Sunday at Osea, when Baring-Gould's hymn, 'Now the day is over' was being spelled out to the children. When it came to the couplet—

' Birds and beasts and flowers,  
Soon will be asleep.'

the master told one of the boys to find a daisy. The flower was brought, and the children were shown that it had closed its eye and gone to sleep. The whole of the little congregation was over-awed in the presence of the little sleeping flower, and the wonder on their faces was a study."

Certainly, the Osea experiment is to be recommended to other schools, residential or day schools.\* As the writer of the Report points out, "there are plenty of volunteer camps scattered up and down the length and breadth of the land lying idle for the greater part of each year, which could be easily adapted for such a purpose. I should not recommend 'canvas' for children, though it is delightful for the adults of the party, and several of our lady teachers slept out the whole time, including two bad stormy nights we experienced. But the officers' messes, and wooden canteens standing at such places as Conway, etc., would serve such a purpose admirably." It may be added that the various hulks round the coast would also serve perfectly for the purpose of housing the children, and have, I believe, on various occasions been used in that way. The cost of providing food in the case of day schools could, as the writer of the Osea Report points out, "only be met by some such arrangement as that in connection with the 'Children's Holiday Fund,' into which the children pay a little weekly throughout the year, and the amount is supplemented by donations and subscriptions. We were fortunate in having very low contracts for our food, and were able to take a month's supply of dry goods with us. The provisions were got locally, cheaply, and the meat came down from London, also cheaply and in good condition."

The open air School at Bostall Woods, Plumstead, for 100 anaemic or otherwise unhealthy children is, I believe, the first school of this type organised by an English Local Education Authority. The beautiful wooded grounds, 20 acres in extent, were lent for the purpose of the School by the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society, Ltd. The cost of organisation, £400, and a further sum of £400 for maintenance, was met by the London County Council. The school was opened on July 22nd and remained open till the middle of October, 1907. It was attended

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\* "Camp" schools for normal children have been dealt with above in the section dealing with work in Manchester. It has been suggested by Professor Findlay that there should be a permanent "camp" school affiliated to each school in thickly populated neighbourhoods. If this were secured every child would get a country holiday in the course of the year.

from 9.0 a.m. to 7.0 p.m. each week day except Saturday, when the hours were 9.0 a.m. to 1.0 p.m., by children from Woolwich, Greenwich and Deptford, selected by the Medical Officer with the consent of the parents.

It will be found useful to compare these open air schools with a similar attempt made in Germany to help sickly children. I refer to the Charlottenburg Forest School.\* In the summer of 1904, the Charlottenburg Town Council established as an experiment in the forest of Westend, in the neighbourhood of the Castle of Ruwald, a "Forest School," as a place of daily recreation for children who are sickly, but still capable of instruction and sufficiently healthy to serve pedagogic purposes. On the estate there were school buildings, baths, and wash-houses, and a hall, open to the weather on one side, with wooden floor and overhanging roof. The school barrack is a balustraded building containing two class rooms, two smaller rooms for the teacher, and a common entrance hall. The rooms are well lit and ventilated. The class rooms are fitted with tables and chairs in different parts of the rooms, suitable to the various grades of children. The school is open to children of all creeds, and is intended to take 100 to 120 children. It was opened on April 1st, 1904, with 95 children. On August 16th (when the summer school vacation began) there were 104 children, and by September 15th the number had risen to 120. The selection of the children is made on the recommendation of the school doctor. The choice falls upon children who show early symptoms of heart, lung, or similar organic complaints, in the shape of green sickness, anæmia, or general weakness, without the children being incompetent for instruction or entirely bed-ridden. Children, convalescent after acute sickness, are also eligible, but no case of infectious illness or of tuberculosis is admitted within the school. The children who are admitted are of course continually under the eye of the school doctor. As far as possible the children spend their time in the open air, and take their meals and spend the break in the middle of the day on invalid chairs, of which every child has one as well as a woollen rug. The school is divided into six classes, which correspond to the six higher classes of the seven-class Charlottenburg Municipal School. The School is too far off to allow children of the first year (the seventh class) to join. In each class there is on the average twenty scholars. There must not be more than 25 save in exceptional circumstances. Boys and girls are taught together except in the giving of gymnastics.

The school has been a great success, and of extraordinary benefit to sick and languishing children. The children are brought each day to school, under sound medical and hygienic appliances and surroundings. The fresh air, the irradiation of sunlight, the giving of salt baths, the careful restriction of the amount of instruction given, and the number of scholars taught, have had the most beneficial effect. The

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\* See *Centralblatt für das gesamte Unterrichts wesen in Preussen*, Oct., 1905.

feeding of the children costs the Institution about sixpence (50 Pf.) a head. It is good and ample. The children, on their arrival, between seven and eight in the morning (and again at ten o'clock), receive about half-a-pint ( $\frac{1}{2}$  litre) of milk, with bread, and at noon have a little over three ounces (100 grammes) of meat, with a "plentiful supply of vegetables." At four in the afternoon they again have half-a-pint of milk with preserved fruit; and in the evening, before returning to the town, warm soup, bread and butter. A week in the woods has extraordinarily favourable results. The children are bright, merry, and attentive; and their appetites become keen. It is found that after ten to twelve weeks the sick children have become strong and healthy. The school (including fifteen children who had recently joined) showed after the period an average increase in weight of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. Eleven children had increased 10 lbs., or thereabouts in weight, and two children 14 and 16 lbs. respectively.

The Charlottenburg Forest School was so notable a success that in 1906 the Kultusminister, on the special instructions of the Emperor, issued a circular advocating the multiplication of schools of the same type, and inviting reference to his department on any point relating to the question. On May 28th, 1906, the Gladbach School was opened for fifty children. The building comprised a class room, a small room for the teachers, a large covered hall, and a cellar for storing materials not in use. Thirty yards from the main building was a small building containing the lavatories and *necessaria*. The large class room was completely furnished for school purposes. On the walls were hung pictures from fairy stories. The bulk of the instruction was, however, given out-of-doors, and all the gymnastic apparatus was kept out-of-doors. It was proposed that school work should be limited to two hours a day, that the children should be chosen by school doctors in the town of Gladbach, that their school work should be inspected by the usual school inspectors, and their health watched by the doctors at a neighbouring convalescent home. It was estimated that the cost *per diem* (including the journey to school) would be 50 pf. (sixpence). The school opened with thirty-eight children. It aimed at taking children in weak health suffering from anæmia, headaches and scrofula and mild cases of eczema, lung and heart trouble. Tubercular and serious heart and lung cases and cases of an offensive character are excluded, but are for the most part treated in the *Ferien Colonien*. The children remain for periods varying from four months to less than one month. The time is, unfortunately, as Dr. Grau fully realises, dependent rather upon funds than necessity. The results, however, are very striking, and it is found that body and mind advance together. If the children are there in school

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See *Zur Eröffnung der Waldschule der Stadt M.-Gladbach*, von Dr. Schaefer, Direktor der Heilstätte M.-Gladbach (Bonn, 1906); *Ergebnisse und Bedeutung der Waldschule*, von Dr. H. Grau, II. Arzt der Heilstätte M.-Gladbach (Bonn, 1906).

vacation no school work is done. At other times the curriculum consists of religious instruction, German, arithmetic, history, singing, Nature-study, and gymnastics. In the course of the week eight lessons of a half-hour each are given in German, six lessons in arithmetic (for this work the school, which is normally divided into two classes, is sub-divided into six classes), and two lessons each in religious instruction, history, gymnastics, singing, and Nature-study. Between each lesson there is a quarter of an hour for recreation. Dr. Grau insists that more time should be devoted to Nature-study, which he declares is supremely important and cannot be taught properly in towns, where the children are most ignorant as to natural phenomena. He also declares that gymnastics are necessary, and should be combined (in the case of children who have been carefully selected with a view to heart trouble) with ordinary games. Dr. Grau points out that girls are fond of gymnastics and should in *all* schools receive a gymnastic training. All teachers should be able to give instruction in gymnastics, and should understand how to vary the instruction to the needs of each particular child. There should be no hard and fast rules of instruction. The Gladbach School has had the most gratifying results in its effect on the mental and bodily health of the children. Despite the fact that some children were able to stay for quite a short period, the average weight increased was from one to two kilogrammes. It was found that scrofulous children rapidly improved in health, and that such cases received benefit from the "soul-bath." Although the time, was often too short for complete cure, everything was done to induce health. The school day began at 8.45 a.m., and four classes were held, lasting with the intervals till 11.30 a.m. Play and meals followed. From 1.0 p.m. to 3.0 p.m. the children lay down to rest, and it was found that most of them enjoyed refreshing sleep during this time. Hygienic instruction, including the cleaning of nails and teeth, was given to all the children with good results. There is every probability that this movement will spread throughout Germany, especially as the cost is low. The Gladbach School cost (apart from site) in capital expenditure 16,200 marks (£810). The school opened with thirty-eight children, and the whole attendance in the year was 118 children, with an average attendance of forty. The daily cost was 60 marks (£3), of which 10 marks was due to the daily transit of children from and to home. This cost was partly borne by the parents and partly by what we should call here the Poor Law authorities. There is a yearly deficit, but in all cases it is small. The sense of the necessity for such schools is growing. On 28th July, 1906, a circular was issued by the Dusseldorf Education Authority urging an increase in their number. Cologne, Aachen, Dusseldorf, Barmen, Elberfeld, Solingen and Mainz either have, or have in immediate contemplation, schools of the Charlottenburg and Gladbach type, and Dr. Grau believes that most great commercial towns will soon have them. Such a school means from the financial point of view an initial capital expenditure of £20 for each child in average attendance, together with an annual

expenditure of about £7 10s. for each child. Such a price is small when we consider the increased vitality for the community that it will secure.

These German Forest Schools are, perhaps, not more important than the Holiday Colonies organised in the neighbourhood of Zurich by the Rev. Dr. Bion. This Pastor was the pioneer of this type of work. His colony system was started more than thirty years ago and has benefited great numbers of anæmic, weak-lunged and nervous children. Every summer eight to nine hundred children are distributed among twelve stations in addition to the *Erholungs-station* (Convalescent Home) which is also open in the spring and autumn. The total cost of the work is about £2,000 (50,000 francs) a year. There are still a thousand children who stand in need of "Colonial" treatment. The needs of these poor children are partially met by what is called the "Milk-cure," especially started to supplement, though inadequately, the Holiday Colonies. The "Milk-cure" consists in giving the children fresh milk and bread daily in the country outside Zurich. The teachers also organise for the children who stay at home for their holidays what are known as "*Ferien-horte*" (Holiday Retreats). In 1906 thirty of these Retreats were organised. The children are brought together five or six times a week from 2 p.m. to 6 or 7 p.m. In fine weather they go for walks or sight-seeing, or watch the bears, play games or bathe. In wet weather they play indoor games or are read to in the schoolrooms. On the walks they are given bread and cheese or tea and bread. In the schoolroom they are given milk and bread, while on the whole day excursions, which take place occasionally, a simple dinner is provided. At first 2,084 children (1,621 boys and 463 girls) joined these parties. Later on 888 children (485 boys and 403 girls) were added, making in all 2,972. The expenses for the season amounted to 7,075 francs (£283); of this sum 1,121 francs was raised, apparently privately, while the deficit of 5,954 francs was chiefly met by the town. The organisers consisted of 44 gentlemen and 25 ladies, for the most part teachers in the schools. The average cost was probably under five shillings per head—a remarkable achievement. Of course all services were given free and special terms were secured from steamers and railway companies. The experience now obtained has suggested the following improvements. The number of parties should be increased. Thirty parties give sixty children to one party, and this is far too many. English experience shows that twenty-five is ample. The start should be made early in the day and the outing should last all day. The food should be supplied by local inns, and in districts where they are not available "Forest-Homes" (*Waldheime*) should be built at the public expense. They should contain one large room to hold 150 to 200 children, a kitchen, a store room, (*Vorrathskammer*), and lavatories. The tramway system would be of assistance to the scheme. It is suggested that the parents should contribute towards the cost of the food where possible. The "Forest-Homes" have already proved their usefulness in various parts of Germany.

An experiment in boarding children out in cottage homes near Zurich was made in the late autumn of 1906 with six boys and six girls between the ages of ten and thirteen years. The children helped in their hosts' work. The holiday lasted for a fortnight and was in every case a glorious success. The total cost was very low. One of the teachers writing of this country cottage holiday said, "Man muss es in ihren Augen leuchten und flimmern gesehen haben, all das Glück der verlebten Ferientage, das frohe Geniessen der Landfreuden. Diese Augen erzählten von einer liebevollen, verständigen Umgebung, wo sich die Kinder wie eigen fühlten, ferner von der Lust und Liebe, welche man den ländlichen Arbeiten entgegenbrachte. Eine Ferienverlängerung wäre allen nur zu willkommen gewesen. Unsere Hörtilinge kamen uns in den kurzen vierzehn Tagen wie ausgewechselt vor. Ordentlich luft und sonnengebraunt waren die Gesichter, die Bewegungen viel lebhafter. Alles atmete Leben und Sonnenschein."\*

We may compare the Charlottenburg Forest School with the Children's Village at Humbie, in Haddingtonshire, founded and organised by the Voluntary Committee of the Edinburgh Children's Holiday Home Fund. This Committee has been at work since the year 1887, boarding out poor Edinburgh children. "Each cottager with whom the little holiday maker is placed, receives 10s. per fortnight, and the additional expenditure for clothing, railway fare, &c., amounts to something like 2s. The average cost per child is between 11s. and 12s."

In 1902, Mrs. Stirling Boyd, the Honorary Secretary of the Fund, who had been connected with the work for eighteen years, "conceived the idea of founding a Children's Village, where children, weak and ailing, though possibly not unwell enough to secure admission to the Children's Hospital or similar institutions, might be sent to recuperate. The idea commended itself to the Committee, and now the latter are the owners of eleven acres of ground at Humbie, which they purchased from Lord Polwarth, one of the vice-patrons of the Fund. Two anonymous donors and other subscribers built the first two cottages of the Colony; a third was erected with money collected by Miss Chalmers, the founder of the original Holiday Home, with which scheme the Edinburgh Holiday Fund is now amalgamated; and the matron's house and the school are now (1905) in course of erection. It is the intention of the Committee to add to the village as funds permit. The cost of each cottage varies in proportion to its size. The intention of the Committee is to have about a dozen cottages erected at Humbie, each holding from ten to eighteen children, and the cost of this scheme, including ground, water supply, &c., is estimated at about £12,000. Large though the amount is, the Committee are thoroughly convinced that, with the generous

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\* *Neue Zürcher Zeitung und Schweizerisches Handelsblatt.* August 16th, 1907.

help of the public, careful management, and strict economy, it can be obtained.”\*

Miss Balfour, of Whittingehame, laid the foundation of the Village School building on June 24th, 1905, and the community makes steady progress. “The colony is conducted on the ‘family’ principle, and the entire village is supervised by a matron—who . . . served for some time in the Children’s Hospital—and also is responsible to a Local Committee, and through them to the Central Committee in Edinburgh.” The school has been built to secure a continuity of studies for the children sent from the town to the country life. The work, under a resident teacher, has been most successful, and the children on returning to school life in Edinburgh show an improved quality of work. The site has been chosen so as to secure the maximum of advantages.

“The village is about two miles distant from Humber. Standing about 600 feet above the sea-level, it is situated in the heart of a pretty piece of rural scenery. Through the sloping meadow-land purchased by the Committee runs a ‘burn’—a most fascinating part of the rural playground it is, too—and the whole picture presented to the visitor—the wide expanse of open country, the neat little cottages, with their ‘harled’ walls and red tiled roofs, each surrounded by a trim plot of well-kept garden ground—is a very attractive one.” The excellent account from which this description is taken concludes as follows:—“The holiday, however, in many cases is not quite free, and this is one of the most interesting features of the scheme. Not infrequently do the Committee find the parents displaying a lively appreciation of the benefits conferred upon their children by the fund, and many of them contribute towards the cost of the holiday according to their ability. Even though the contributions are small, in the majority of cases at least, they are valued by the Committee, more especially as they are voluntary. Much of the value of the children’s colony lies in this—that in many cases it affords weak and ailing children a fair chance to throw off what in all probability would develop into serious illness. It would indeed be difficult to estimate the value of the preventive work accomplished through this agency. If more of our slum children could be sent annually for a fortnight’s holiday in the country, where they would be properly cared for and nourished, less might be heard of the deterioration of the race.”

The Health Colonies and Vacation Schools of Holland, however, supply the best, or at any rate very important, evidence and precedents for the guidance of similar institutions in England. Herr A. C. Bos, the Secretary of the *Centraal Genootschap voor Kinderherstellings-en Vacantie-Kolonies*, in his volume entitled *Gezondheids-Kolonies* (published in 1899 at Egmond aan Zee, the proceeds of the sale being devoted to the Dutch Teachers’ Convalescent Home) traces in useful detail the gradual adoption in many European countries of Health Colonies for the benefit

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\* *The Evening Dispatch* (Edinburgh), June 21st, 1905.

of ailing children, and shows the high value of such institutions under great varieties of social conditions. The system of Health and Vacation Colonies was started in Amsterdam in the year 1883, under the superintendence of Mr. A. Kerdijk. It was a voluntary movement. In 1884 the subscriptions amounted to £225, and in 1885 to £350. In the first year 179 children, in eight groups (three composed of girls and five of boys), were sent for three weeks to Austerlitz and Wijk aan Zee. At Austerlitz the children were lodged in an inn, while at the seaside (Wijk) a building belonging to a bathing company was available. Before the children left Amsterdam, on their return, and again three months later, their chest measurements, etc., were taken. The children who had been at the seaside gave the best results. The following questions relating to the children received satisfactory answers after the experiment was over: (1) Has health improved? (2) Has school attendance improved? (3) Can improvement be noticed in mental outlook? (4, 5 and 6) Is the child more orderly, more lively, less troublesome, and less dissatisfied with its surroundings? (*Bespeurt gij, dat het kind ontevreden is met zijne huiselijke omgeving?*)

Subscriptions continued to increase, and were supplemented by profits of entertainments given by children. In 1885 one hundred and eighty children were sent to the Colonies. In 1886 rooms were secured in part of an orphanage at Zeist, where 122 children were housed. This was found to save about sixpence per head *per diem*. In 1887 about £3,400 was obtained for the work from the proceeds of a "World's Fair," organised at the Paleis voor Volksvlijt, and a villa was bought at Zandvoort by the sea. One drawback to this big windfall was, that it tended to check subscriptions. Henceforward, however, 300 children were sent to the Colonies. Four groups of 60 children were sent to Zandvoort, and three of 30 children to Austerlitz. The holiday for each child lasted three weeks. Children most needing the rest had more than one holiday. The work ate into the capital, and in the year 1896 the yearly subscriptions had fallen to £260. In 1897 it was impossible to provide holidays for more than 180 children. The Jewish community in Amsterdam, in 1896, began to work on their own account, and started a colony at Wijk aan Zee for 16 children. Another colony, privately maintained, was opened at Egmond aan Zee in 1897. It was for the restoration of health, on the lines adopted at Zurich. The house was only five minutes from the sea, and had a garden. The aspect was south. The doctors declared that the results secured at Egmond could not have been obtained at the Amsterdam Hospital, even with the greatest care. Convalescents recovering from diseases such as neurasthenia, malaria, eczema, croup, scrofula, tuberculosis, skin, eye, and bone diseases, were cured in one to two months. The patients were found to have good appetites and to sleep well. The season at Egmond is from May to October, and during that period 30 adults and thirty children (between the ages of six and twelve years) are admitted for five weeks each.

At Middelburg a wealthy widow, Madame de Bruin, has given her castle and grounds, known as "Westhoven," for the use of 20 children between the ages of six and twelve years. This home offers a long rest of three-and-a-half months to serious cases. The children are carefully selected, and the help is given to children of the most deserving parents. The patients must bring their own boots, but are supplied with clothes. It is a model of a home for the betterment of childhood, but is rather a sanatorium than a School Health Colony. The coach-houses have been turned into playgrounds, while the large reception-rooms have been converted into bath-rooms. The children are periodically weighed and measured. The parents can visit them once a month. The scheme is perhaps open to criticism, on the ground that it removes the children almost entirely from the environment and ideas of their normal life. This home may be compared with the Yarrow Convalescent Home for children of the better class founded and endowed in 1895 at Broadstairs in Kent by Mr. Yarrow. It is "for the benefit of children recovering from illness who may be expected to derive permanent benefit from a temporary stay at the seaside." It accommodates 50 boys and 50 girls, the children of parents "who are obliged to maintain a respectable appearance on very limited means." The boys must be between the ages of 4 and 12 years and the girls between 4 and 14 years. In a limited number of cases the age may be increased two years for both sexes where there is a prospect of permanent benefit after serious illness. No incurable cases are admitted, or cases of convalescence after infectious or contagious disease until three months have elapsed. "Each child must be provided with a brush and comb, two pairs of boots, a pair of indoor shoes, an overcoat or cloak, and an entire change of clothing." The Home is a model of organisation and the children live under conditions best calculated to give perfect rest to body and mind. Homes for poorer children have much to learn from this institution. The parents pay 5s. a week and can visit their child once a week—on Saturdays.

The scheme of School Colonies was begun in Rotterdam in 1885, when 19 children were sent to Ulvenhout and 21 children to Oost-Voorne for three weeks each. To-day Rotterdam has two holiday homes of her own, each taking 40 children. That at Ulvenhout forms a regular household, while the home at Oost-Voorne is supplied by contract. In 1897, at the latter place, 24 boys and 26 girls were supported at a cost of a little under 30s. per head for three weeks. At Ulvenhout the cost was much lower; for 65 boys and 90 girls the cost worked out at about 22s. 6d. per head for three weeks. The former, however, gave the better results. At Oost-Voorne, by the seaside, the average gain in weight in three weeks was about 4 lbs., while at Ulvenhout it was about 3 lbs. A longer stay gave better results. The children were closely watched after their return home for a period of four to six months. This seems a most important point. The results secured in 169 cases are given by M. Bos and seem very valuable. Fifteen children were absolutely

cured. These children stayed six weeks. One hundred and ten children were greatly improved in health. Their stay varied from three to six weeks. Thirteen children obtained permanent but only partial benefit. One of these stayed six weeks and the rest three weeks. With 20 children no permanent results were secured. Of these, one stayed six weeks and the rest three weeks. One child subsequently suffered from typhus fever. One child (who had been six weeks in the colony) died, and nine could not be traced. It is clearly an important matter for similar English colonies to adopt this careful method of tracing the subsequent history of cases. It says much for the Dutch methods that only nine children out of 169 should have disappeared. The same results could hardly be obtained in England.

We must note that the revenue of the Rotterdam Association for the year 1897-8 was about £393, exclusive of £500 devoted to the building of the home at Oost-Voorne. Active members of the association pay annually about 8s. 4d., while the minimum subscription of an honorary member is about 16s. 8d. Parents can subscribe if they like, and in 1897 they contributed the sum of £5 15s. 3d. Besides this institution there are two smaller associations in Rotterdam with the same end in view—the Jewish and the Old Catholic Associations. The former, starting in 1895, was able to spend in 1896 £106, and to close their account for the year with a reserve fund of £60. Twenty-eight children were sent to the Jewish colony at Wijk aan Zee, and one to Dieren. This association hopes soon to have a building of its own. The Old Catholic Association took six children to Scheveningen at a cost of about £17. This, however, does not exhaust the efforts made for the many child-sufferers in Rotterdam. In 1896 the number of children sent to the Sophia Children's Hospital was 301, while 58 were admitted to the Loosduinen Hospital. No less than 2,751 applications for help were made, of which 2,450 had to be attended at home. Among these applications were 375 cases of children suffering from insufficient feeding, 264 cases of complaints of the stomach and bowels, 201 cases of affected respiratory organs, 76 cases of scrofula, 59 of anæmia, 20 of chlorosis, making in all 995 cases of children urgently needing the curative forces of the sea or open country. There were other cases of an even more serious character. These 2,751 applications were for hospital treatment. It is clear enough that there were many more to whom a sojourn at the seaside or in the woods would have been a Godsend. Prevention is always better than cure. Rotterdam has realised this fact and in sending 320 children in need of such help to the seaside or the country and in doubling the holiday where the need was apparent, that city stands first among the cities of Holland in this noble form of social effort.

The Dutch doctors have been much impressed by the benefit bestowed on the community by the School Colonies. Dr. J. Kouwenhoven declares that, in view of the results obtained, every doctor ought to play a part in assisting these colonies.

He points out that the work of the Vacation Colonies is much assisted by walks or School Journeys which bring the facts of nature before the minds of the children without the effort of regular school work. It is found that history can be taught by direct observation during these walks, besides practical work, such as surveying the Colonies, and they are found to have a valuable effect on child morality. The children living together on equal terms become, on the one hand, self-reliant, as they have to help themselves, but on the other hand they learn also to depend on one another and to realise the meaning of brotherly love, of manners in the old sense of the word, of generosity and of obedience, by force of example and environment. They lose, too, that evil practice so prevalent among the very poor children in England as well as in Holland of living on sweets instead of buying food with the money given them by their parents for their dinner. The purchasing of sweets by children instead of food has become a regular habit among the very poor, and is responsible for many of the illnesses caused by mal-nutrition. In these homes the children are led to prefer simple good food to sweets. The small courtesies of life are instilled into the little people. We have in this book an account of the birthday of two children at the Health Colony. All hands were set to gather a plentiful supply of flowers, and to make simple bright decorations for the festival. This kind of natural life is found to have an important moral effect on poor little stubborn children who are brought to see the brighter side of life and to know how to laugh and sing. The children, however, are not only taught how to enjoy a holiday. All the minor deficiencies of life are brought home to them and made into habits. They are shown how to wash themselves and to like doing it, how to be tidy in the folding of clothes and other matters. The general ideas of cleanliness and neatness are impressed on their minds and it is found that the children leave the home with quite an altered outlook on life. They are taught also the folk-songs that can only take a real meaning in the country, and thus they carry back into town life songs that perpetuate the memory of their country holiday. One folk-song is quoted here that certainly has the rural ring:—

“ 't is morgen, 't is morgen, de haan heeft gekraaid,  
De vogeltjes zingen, de morgenwind waait,  
O zie, hoe de dauwdrop op't klaverveld praalt,  
O zie eens, hoe prachtig het zonnetje straalt.”

[“ It is morn, it is morning, hark ! the cock crows,  
The birds are all singing, the morning wind blows.  
Oh, see how with dewdrops the cloverfield gleams,  
See how the sun scatters its beautiful beams.”]

M. Bos truly says that a song like this sung by town children who do not know the country can hardly be understood. But sung in the country by town children and carried by them back into the town it has a value that cannot be adequately expressed. This method of making town children learn country songs in the country and so bringing the country back with them into the

town might well be imitated in England. The children who go on School Journeys should learn many such songs and bring them back to London and Manchester and the other great centres of industry. Folk-songs might well prove a small but living link between town and country life.

The Country School or Village Home is really a conception that combines the advantages of all the various educational schemes considered in this Report. It brings the children into continuous contact with nature, it recreates a love for natural things, it brings back both physical and mental health, and checks the wastage, moral, mental, and spiritual, almost necessarily involved in continuous town life. If it were the law that every town child must spend one term of every school year at some Country School the bulk of our modern educational difficulties would vanish. At present, however, the School Journey or the School Expedition must give town children the necessary taste for rural life. I have pointed out elsewhere in this Report that it would not be impossible for arrangements to be made for children to be boarded out by some voluntary association during one school term and to attend the Country School. This would, of course, involve special arrangements between the various education authorities concerned, and it would have the additional advantages of raising the standard and scope of teaching in Village Schools, and of drawing town dwellers back to the land. Village "camp" Schools affiliated to Town Schools would probably answer the same purpose.\*

#### V. SCHOOL JOURNEYS.

Before considering the stage of development already reached in the English school expedition, it will be useful to examine briefly the theory and practice of the school journey in Germany, its original home, where it is regarded as an organic part of school life. It is very difficult to arrive at anything like a definite conclusion as to the value and efficiency of the school expedition in the curriculum of the average German school. No doubt in great educational centres, such as Jena, the expedition is generally planned and carried out with German thoroughness. On the other hand, pupils are to be found who have recently left school in Germany and who declare that the expeditions are perfunctorily carried out without preparation. I have had school journeys described to me that were a mere caricature of the real thing, and must have been really harmful to the pupils. Such cases are, no doubt, extremely rare, but that they exist is certain, and they must be guarded against in the development of the school journey as part of the English curriculum. It will be interesting here to note some of the points upon which Dr. Rein,† of Jena, the great German

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\* See Country Schools for Town Children (Contemporary Review, May, 1907) by the present writer and Professor Findlay's views (*p. 22 above*).

† See generally as to Dr. Rein's views on school journeys his *Encyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*, Band vi., pp. 486-505, and *Aus dem Pädagogischen Universitäts-seminar zu Jena*, Heft 3, 5, 8, 10.

educationalist, lays stress in connection with school journeys. Preparation for the school journey, he tells us, can be regarded in a wider or a narrower sense. In the wider sense this preparation comprises the whole school life. The school journey is then an organic part of the school plan. If this is so it is easier to prepare for the actual journey. The preparation should form the connecting link between the various parts of the school work. The scholars, Dr. Rein thinks, should not be aware of the organic part played in school life by the school journey, and the preparation for it.

In the narrower sense, preparation begins a few weeks before the actual journey. A few hours every week is given to it by the teachers who are to conduct the expedition. They divide the work among themselves by arrangement. Both the object and the actual form of the journey have to be considered. The object of the journey includes the learning of the geography, the plant and animal life, and the grouping of the inhabitants of the district visited, and their work and industries. Then the scholars have to consider the history of the area; that is to say, the part that it has played and still plays in the social, political, and spiritual life of the country, and what it has done for religion, art, knowledge, and organised trade. The sociable side of the journey has to be considered beforehand and involves the selection of suitable songs, poetry, stories, and games in addition to conversation, to avoid tedium. The journey plan must show how the destination is to be reached; notes in the journey book will indicate the things that have to be looked for or thought about on the journey. The children are to be made clearly to understand how they are to behave on the journey, how and when to march in order and so forth. A log of the journey must be kept. It will be found useful not to talk, while walking, of subjects that are not in some way connected with the journey. If these various precautions are taken, it will be found that the children will rapidly understand the various things now first *seen*, but which they have already learnt about in school.

The children must be trained (by means of gymnastics) in order to secure good marching power and the power to run and jump. The children should march in fixed order at the beginning and end of the journey. The company of students should be divided into sections, each of which should elect a leader from whose decision there should be an appeal to the teacher, and who should place all cases of need or difficulty before the teacher. In good time before the start is made a list of necessaries for the journey should be given to each scholar. Two or three days before the journey there should be a rehearsal, so as to ascertain if the various duties assigned to the scholars can be carried out. There is also the important preliminary work of determining the cost of the journey, and of interviews with hotel-keepers about night accommodation. Trouble is, of course, avoided if private accommodation can be secured. Notice has to be given to the railway. A school box must be provided for collecting fares. Thought must be given to the

care of needy children who should go on the journey but can afford little or no money. Funds for such cases and for general expenses can be raised by the giving of school theatricals.

When the morning of the journey arrives there should be prayers and a hymn before the start is made. The children must enter the train quietly and must take turns to look out of the windows,\* so that none should be tired. The teacher should describe well-known objects. In order to avoid tedium the children should be allowed to sing or play or ask and answer riddles. They should also get into the way of receiving suggestions from the teachers. Strict marching order should only be ordered in public places. If the children become tired they should sing under the leadership of the teacher. The children should be allowed a little rest after two or three hours walking. They must have no alcohol, but may have a little water or milk or lemon juice on sugar. If possible, there should be half a day's rest after three or four days' marching. The chief meal should be in the evening (not too late) and should be hot and plentiful. In the daytime the children should have cold food, unless very tired, when they should have coffee or good soup. The teachers should have their meals with, and keep with the scholars. After supper there should be songs if the place is suitable, and they should be followed by prayers. Bed should be quite early, after bathing the feet and rubbing them with tallow. The teachers in the evening should do the shopping for the next day. On Sundays the children should be taken to church. Postcards should be written to the parents. Presents should be bought that will recall the journey, and the pupils should be encouraged to talk among themselves about the journey, to make notes and sketches, to use the Journey Card and the compass and to measure distances.

After the journey is done the teachers engaged should have a consultation as to the conduct of the journey, as to the sights seen, and as to the behaviour of the scholars. In serious cases of misbehaviour the question of punishment must be very seriously considered, as everything depends on the maintenance of discipline. The leader of the journey should keep a Minute as to the results of this conference for reference later on. It is always to be remembered that the preparation for the journey, as well as the journey itself, must be an organic part of the school life. After a school journey, the leader should spend a few hours in the effort to get a clear registered impression of results. There is little opportunity to do this on the journey itself. During the following period of school life the teacher ought to go back to the experiences of the expedition. These experiences will be found of value in teaching history and geography, and in lessons on Nature-study and singing, and the

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\* In fact this is a very questionable suggestion. The quick motion of the train causes the eyes to move too rapidly and continuously with the result that eye-strain and headache are induced. The fatigue that arises from railway travelling generally arises from this habit of looking out of the window.

scholars also will be found to realise the use of the journey. The teacher should give his pupils a short account of the educational value of the journey. The journey will be found to bring together important material for teaching purposes and to supply special pedagogic and didactic experiences. Moreover, one journey will supply material and experience for the next journey, and will show how the educational idea of the school journey may be extended.

Herr E. Scholz, of Jena, in his paper on the School Journey,\* goes over much the same ground, but he gives us some further details as to preparation that may be quoted with advantage. The children should have a complete set of clothing in good condition. They should have strong shoes, but not new. Lace shoes are the best. Each child should carry in a knapsack one or two shirts with collars, two pairs of stockings, two or three handkerchiefs, slippers, preferably of leather, a towel, washing flannel, soap, tooth-brush, comb or hair-brushes, grease for the feet, † overcoat in case of violent rain, shawl or plaid (an umbrella is not of much use). In order to lessen the amount of luggage each division should take one clothes-brush, two shoe-brushes, shoe-grease and rags, needles, thread, buttons, and a drinking vessel. For the whole party there should be one small medicine chest containing remedies for upset stomachs and accidents; telescope, compass, tape measure, small plant press, insect-bottles, geological hammer, and sometimes an aneroid and pedometer. A horn is useful to collect the children, but drums and musical instruments are troublesome. The start each day should be both early and strenuous. A slack start makes a slack journey. The leaders must be first on the spot. Notes of the previous day's journey should be made before breakfast. Before the start the disposition of baggage (especially of the day's food) must be made, with arrangements as to carriage by different divisions of the party. The principal part of the day's work should ordinarily be done in the morning.

It will be generally admitted that many or most of the ideas and suggestions here made by practical German teachers are of value, though doubtless some modifications are necessary when the journey is made in other countries. If we now turn to the suggestions of the pedagogic theorists to actual school expeditions, we shall understand more fully the value of the suggestions of the practical teachers, and as this is the case we shall understand more fully the value of the suggestions of the practical teachers.

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as will be found I propose to deal with it here. Miss Dodd tells us:—

“Every day in the German schools, particularly in those professing Herbartian principles in Middle Germany, one finds classes of children in the garden, by the river, in the slate quarry, or rambling through the forest. These excursions are not taken at haphazard, they are closely interwoven with the whole course of instruction. If the boys are studying Luther, they visit Eisleben, the Wartburg, and Wittenburg, and history becomes a reality to them, as they see the ink-stains on Luther's table, and the church door to which he affixed his propositions. Before they are permitted to use any general geographical terms, the concrete realities must be perfectly clear to them. Real rivers, valleys, and hills are carefully studied before maps and definitions are used. No opportunity is neglected of giving the children real knowledge of things and events which they may see and think about for themselves. Short excursions are daily occurrences, and are to be found on every time-table, but the school journey proper is a systematic and serious event, which lasts from two to fourteen days. The school journey begins in the third school year, when the boys are eight years of age. A boy of fourteen who has completed his eighth school year has probably made five journeys during his school life.” Miss Dodd in 1897 “accompanied the boys of the third school year on their first school journey, which took place at the end of September.” Preparatory to the journey a geography lesson was given on the Galgenberg overlooking the Saale and the valley in which Jena lies. The children pointed out the features of the neighbourhood. The district to be visited, the Unstruthal, was described in class with a blackboard. The children were instructed how to observe churches and castles. Boys of the fourth year told their experiences to the boys of the third year about to start on this journey. A general geography lesson on the district to be visited dealt with its towns, rivers, railways, manufactures and products. On the day before the journey there was a knapsack drill.

“The boots and clothes of the boys were carefully examined by the master, and all useless items were discarded from knapsacks. At 6.30 in the morning we started by rail from Jena. Our party consisted of about fifteen small boys of eight years, the Head Master of the Jena Pedagogical Seminary, and two students of pedagogy and philosophy. One was a Servian, whom we all called “the little Pestalozzi” because of his affection and tenderness towards children, and the other was a buoyant Bulgarian. Both these men were studying Herbartian principles of education in Jena, with the intention of organising similar schools in their own countries later.”

The party discussed the journey and sang in the train until Grossheringen was reached at 7.30 a.m. Thence the party walked to the confluence of the Elbe and the Saale. Questions were asked as to the different colours and rates of flow of the two rivers. A talk followed about the Slavs and the defence organised against

them by knights and by means of fortified castles. The children were told that the Servians and Bulgarians were Slavs. A war-game followed. The children tried the echo on the way up to the Saaleck but apparently it was not explained to them. A talk followed about ravens and autumn leaves and fruits. The party reached Rudelsburg at 9.30 a.m., and bought at an inn coffee and black bread, and also post cards for the parents. Here was a war monument to students who fell in the war of 1870: "war monuments are the chief things in Germany," one child exclaimed. The party descended again into the valley and along the Saale and watched the manure being spread upon the fields, and a talk followed about the preparation for the spring crops. The troop now reached the beech avenue to the Bucken Halle. Here they rested from eleven to twelve, and then moved on along a chestnut avenue. From the highway they saw groups of women in the fields gathering potatoes and burning weeds. On reaching Kösen the boys had their dinner of black bread and sausage. Miss Dodd here left the party and rested, rejoining them at the railway station at 3.0 p.m. Here the train (third class) was taken for Naumburg to visit the twelfth century cathedral. In the cool crypt the boys took off their packs and sang a hymn. They then passed on to ascend a tower while the exhausted Miss Dodd sped away for a cup of tea. Seven o'clock found the travellers still at work. A little later they all partook of a meal at an inn where the boys were served with "soup, beef-steak, potatoes, black bread, stewed fruit and wheat-beer," for seven pence a head. They ate, we are told, in orderly fashion, and said grace before and after the meal. They then resumed their journey arriving at Freiburg by train at ten at night. It was a star-lit night and as the boys trotted along the quaint cobbled streets to the inn they made out the chief constellations. Miss Dodd adds: "Some of the boys had bedrooms, but most of them slept in a large room above the stables in improvised beds, the Servian slept with them. I assisted at the undressing of the boys, and attended to bruises and cuts, while the landlord and stablemen held the lanterns to give me light. The next day was less fatiguing and more interesting. I considered the physical strain upon the boys too severe the first day, but when I made this objection to the master he urged that German children are accustomed to long days out of doors, and further that the school journey aims at training the boys in endurance." Certainly the school journey described by Miss Dodd has few points to recommend it from the point of view of English scholars. A seventeen-hour day for children of 8 years filled with very tiring physical and mental exercise is absolutely indefensible from any educational point of view. There is nothing humanising, nothing of the spirit of any of the great English, French, or German educationalists in such an experiment. The principle of wearing the children out is, however, definitely accepted in Germany, and no protest is likely to affect any change. There is, fortunately, no probability of these excesses being adopted in this country where the new tendency is to adapt the educational system to the individual, and not to make a Procrustes

tean bed for the children of the land. Of course much depends upon the type of children who are the subject of an educational system. The German children who were the subject of the Jena experiment described by Miss Dodd certainly were peculiarly well suited to the test. We are told that "the boys behaved well during the whole time, there was not the least trouble with them. Their obedience was perfect, they did as they were told promptly, and they always asked permission before they attempted to do the slightest thing that might interfere with the harmony of the party. There was a touch of military discipline about the regulations of the school journey, but it was tempered by much geniality and kindness on the part of the masters. The German has infinite patience and tenderness in dealing with children; that is why he makes such an admirable school-master.\* There is something very human in the treatment of children which strikes the visitor on entering German and Swiss schools, and one no longer wonders that Froebels and Pestalozzis arose in these countries. We have elaborate time-tables and we teach many things in our schools, but we too often miss the humanising element. If children are to become right-thinking, right-acting human beings, we must put them into proper relation with mankind and with their environment. The school journey is one means towards this end, and if we could induce our school teachers to spend some part of the school time out of doors with their classes, we might produce more intelligent and thoughtful men and women."

The German system as described by Miss Dodd, however, is scarcely defensible taken as a whole, though an analysis of its various parts gives us some admirable results. But no formal educational method can be applied for seventeen successive hours without producing obedient dulness and all the other evils of the barrack system of education. Miss Dodd, in the beginning of a paper on a school journey in Derbyshire, quotes the following passage from Pestalozzi's journal in 1774 in which he records his little son's education: "Lead your child out into Nature, teach him on the hill top, and in the valleys. There he will listen better, and the sense of freedom will give him more strength to overcome difficulties. But in these hours of freedom let him be taught by Nature rather than by you. Should a bird sing, or an insect hum on a leaf, at once stop your talk; bird and insect are teaching him; you may be silent." It can hardly be said that the German method follows Pestalozzi's ideas, which were to bring the child unconsciously within the educative influence of Nature and to let Nature do her work.

In an unpublished paper from which I have been allowed to quote, Mr. F. D. Acland, who spent five months in Jena in 1899 (two years later than the journey described by Miss Dodd), throws a great deal of light on the best German methods. The conceptions of Dr. Rein and the Herbartian school of thought that he represents are probably nearer to English educational

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\* It will be noticed that this view is definitely challenged below.

ideals than the theory that underlies the work of the average German teacher. But it must be remembered that what we learn at Jena is not characteristic of all Germany or even of all Middle Germany. We are learning of a great and practical thinker, not of a nation. "The main lesson to be learnt from Rein's organisation . . . is this, that the existence of an adequate number of well-educated, well-trained teachers, not only interested in their work but willing to work at their work, lies at the root of every educational problem both in the primary and the secondary sphere . . ." But "Rein and the German Herbartians do not see that certain essential points of good character, though gained at school, cannot in their very essence be gained through instruction." It is not true that the formal end of education can be gained through instruction. Pestalozzi, as we have seen, knew this well enough. In Jena, however, there is "neglect in the theory of the non-instructional side of training." "The school garden, the school journey, and the celebration of national festivals, though placed most excellently in the Herbartian theory with a view to knitting together and engraving on the pupil's mind the particular interest matter that he has acquired, by no means replace the many and varied methods in which English children are helped to stimulate their own and each others thoughts, actions, and characters."

Even in the hands of the teachers from Dr. Rein's Practising School the German school journey does not attain the objects aimed at. We have seen the journey that Miss Dodd accompanied. It will be useful to compare our ideas of that journey with the ideas that the writer just quoted had of the Jena journeys in 1899. The school journeys at Jena have been for some years most interesting studies. "The appropriate instruction is planned out for each step of the way. The number of minutes to be given to a formal listening to the murmuring of the brooks is elaborately settled beforehand. The school journey is meant to put the apex upon the instruction of the year in every subject, and certainly does so if only the children are not starved when they come to the critical points. But from the side of the German teacher at any rate there is no endeavour either to let the boys range and find their own interests, or to help them by talk and encouragement to a full enjoyment of the occasion. The march is like that of a little army, the boys are to notice what they are told. There is little sympathy or real friendliness, little of the helping of character by character in which an English school journey conducted by good masters would be so rich. The very postcards written home must be *viséd* by the teacher, and must be made grammatical. It appears that the German teacher turns his efforts too much to the production of the average type and neglects the individuality of the unit."

The German teacher's reply is that this is the fault of the State, which demands the evolution of a high average type rather than the cultivation of genius and individuality. Certainly in the matter of school journeys there is much to be learned in England from the facts as to German school journeys. State

control and organisation are as necessary here as in Germany, and the school journey can never become general and efficient until it is the subject of special control and organisation, but there is certainly no need to imitate slavishly even the best German methods, though we must remember that Dr. Rein and others place at our disposal suggestions which, taken in detail, are of the greatest value. The spirit of the system must be English and not German. There is, however, an immense amount to be learned from the material collected by the various German specialists. One instance of their thoroughness will suffice. In all the English literature that I have read on the subject of school journeys I have seen no note on the problems of hygiene that are necessarily related to such excursions. Yet it is obvious that the dangers of contracting serious diseases are not slight; in strange inns and boarding houses germs of every kind may lurk. The picture drawn by Fräulein Wilhelmine Geissler in her exhaustive monograph on the subject\* is gruesome but not exaggerated. One may contract fearful diseases by drinking from an unwashed glass. This monograph might usefully be translated for the use of leaders of school expeditions. Meantime it is necessary to impress upon all who are organising school journeys the necessity of scrupulous care in all questions relating to possible contagion, whether arising from the use of linen, towels, glass, crockery, and food, or connected with the sanitary arrangements in the places visited on the march. The most ordinary precautions are often overlooked. Probably few organisers carry with them a supply of disinfectants. Yet such a supply is a necessity, and should be used freely in all lavatories that are at the disposal of the children.

Miss Dodd, who has had useful experience of school journeys in Belgium and Hungary and England, as well as Germany, evidently bases her idea of what a school journey should be upon the methods recommended by Pestalozzi, despite her praise of the methods of Jena. It will, therefore, be interesting to be taken by her on a Girls' School Journey in Derbyshire.† The expedition was organised in June, 1902, by twenty women teachers, who were being trained at the Owens College, Manchester. The children (including two boys) were drawn from the Owens Practising School, and were from eight to twelve years of age.

The map of the road from Hayfield to Glossop was drawn and studied before starting. The children were told what luggage to bring, and the student-teachers were given full instructions. Some were to lead and find the way and so help to carry out the programme. Others were to form a rear-guard to encourage stragglers, and even carry them if tired. Others were caterers and were to find places for lunch and rest. Others were nurses, with needle, thread, lint, and plaster for accidents. Others were

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\* *Pädagogisch-Hygienische Betrachtungen für Schulausflüge.* (Neue Jahrbücher für Pädagogik. B. G. Teubner. Leipzig, 1907.)

† "A School Journey in Derbyshire," by Catherine I. Dodd. (*National Review*, August, 1902.)

teachers, with special information on the subject matters that would arise on the journey. Others were reporters and critics. Others again were 'ladies-in-waiting and ladies-of-the-bed-chamber.' "The latter supervised the washing and dressing operations of the children, and were responsible for the neat appearances of their charges, and the proper changes of pinafores and blouses."

In the train the party talked about mile-posts and the country passed through. On arriving at Hayfield, the caterers collected the luggage and found a carriage for it to Park Hill; the leaders started to find the way, while a short lesson was given about the Great Central Railway. The party then marched through the village along the highway, and then along a stream to "a wooded hillside close to the moors and mountains." All the natural objects and birds and flowers were talked about. After resting, the rubbish brought by the children was burnt to prevent the leaving of litter. The school-song was then sung, the farm visited and milk drunk, and then the children rambled away into the wild country to a place where sheep were waiting to be washed. Here the children sat down on the hillside and ate chocolate. A march along a moor, with a lesson about the moor, followed this, and three miles took the party to Park Hall (which had been acquired by the Co-operative Holiday Association), where all were to be lodged and fed. Very special terms were made for the entertainment of the party, and the cost of the whole expedition (three days), including fares, was less than 9s. a head per child.\* At 6.30 p.m. children and students sat down together to a hot meal, and then, after the children had written post cards home and had filled up their records of the journey and had gone to bed, a conference was held at 9.0 p.m. discussing the events of the day, and by 10.30 p.m. all were in bed. On the second day breakfast was at 8.0 a.m., and the children assembled before this hour in the garden and sang a hymn. The march began at 8.30 a.m., and, despite the rain, the day was a success. "A day's walk together does more to establish relations than six months in a class room," observed one student. "Yes," replied another; "and you feel differently for ever towards a child after you have washed it." An antiquarian friend joined the party, and gave much information, and this was supplemented by talks on botany. "Everybody was wet and weary when Charlesworth was reached." Refuge was taken in the chapel, and a lesson was given on the history of the place. Lunch was eaten in the vestry—"Piles upon piles of bread and butter, hard-boiled eggs, and cheese."

Then the party marched on to the Roman Camp and Quarry. "The Romans must have lived, or they couldn't have made a camp," observed a girl of eleven. After lunch the march was resumed to Glossop, and after tea a visit was paid to the paper mills. Logs from Norway were examined with interest. Wagonettes took the whole party back to Park Hall.

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\* This is heavy compared with the cost of the journey in the same district next described.

On the third day school was held on the moors in the morning, and the lessons of the previous days were recapitulated and revised, and some attempt was made to arrange the material accumulated on the journey in the children's note books, and (which was more important) in their minds. There was also a very successful singing lesson on the moor. After the midday meal there was a ramble in the grounds, and at tea the children were joined by parents who visited the party and returned with them to Manchester in the evening.

It will be useful to compare this account of a girls' school journey with the boys' journey in the same district presently to be described.

It is unnecessary here to deal at length with the school journeys organised from 1877 to 1900, by Mr. Joseph H. Cowham, of the Westminster Training College, as the Board of Education have already issued a competent monograph by Mr. Cowham dealing in detail with these journeys.\* It will be sufficient to quote Sir H. Evelyn Oakeley's report† on these journeys. He says:—

"The study of geography at this college (Westminster) has for twenty years been supplemented by a 'School Journey' from Croydon to Godstone, under the guidance of the Master of Method (Mr. Cowham). Before it, maps and plans of the district are drawn, and the general arrangement of the geological formations is studied, viz., the flat clay district of Norwood, the undulating chalk areas beyond Croydon, and the picturesque district of Caterham, due to the presence of sands and gravels in the midst of and upon the chalk. The value of thus connecting the facts of geography with their causes, and of exercising judgment and reason in place of a mere remembrance of names, is obvious. This is the best way to teach geography, and I am glad to learn that some teachers who have been at Westminster have taken groups of their scholars in a similar manner."

Mr. Cowham, out of his long experience, summarises the advantage of the School Journey as follows:—

- "(1) Accurate first-hand knowledge of a given limited and readily accessible area is formed. This first-hand knowledge—full, accurate and permanent—gives a possession of high value for purposes of gaining clear notions of districts which cannot be similarly visited.
- "(2) The power to observe is quickened, and, at the same time, ability to concentrate effort upon a few well-defined objects in the midst of great profusion and variety of material is gradually acquired.
- "(3) A few truths, strikingly illustrated, and capable of wide application, are established in every journey. The accumulation of many isolated facts is avoided.
- "(4) The power to apply knowledge in possession to the acquisition of further knowledge, provides both a means and a stimulus for the exercise of self-effort.
- "(5) Besides being of direct service in the acquisition of reliable knowledge, the participation in a few 'School Journeys' enables the pupil to use his after School rambles and exercises rationally, and with pleasure to himself and others.

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\* The School Journey (London to Caterham) made by Students at the Westminster Training College, 1877-1900. See Board of Education. Special Reports on Educational Subjects. Vol. 3, p. 625 ff. (Cd. 635. 1902.)

† See Report of the Committee of Council on Education (England and Wales) with Appendix 1898-99, p. 354. (Cd. 9401. 1899.)

- "(6) In some accounts it has been deemed advisable to limit participation in the 'School Journey' to those deserving of prize or distinction. No such limit is advised here. Frequently the dull and indifferent boy in school and bookwork proves both active and interested in the outdoor effort. This activity, aroused by the outdoor exercise, reacts upon the scholar's effort in the school.
- "(7) Lastly, the social and æsthetic advantages are not overlooked. A love of nature is engendered. Teacher and scholar display mutual sympathy and regard. School work is intellectually benefited and school life is morally elevated.'

Mr. Cowham's work, of course, was with students approaching adolescence and not with children, but he certainly went to the root of the matter if we may judge from the work of Mr. G. G. Lewis, one of the thousand or more English teachers who have accompanied Mr. Cowham on the Caterham ramble and learnt his methods and ideas.

Before considering the admirable work of the Kentish Town Road London County Council School, under Mr. Lewis, it will be found convenient to refer to certain other school journeys to some of which the Kentish Town journeys are largely indebted.

A scheme of school journeys adopted by the Barnsley School Board in 1899\* was certainly a very considerable contribution to the practice of school journeys. It was a scheme of six organically connected visits to various places at stated intervals, each visit occupying one day. "There are great advantages in allowing intervals of school work, because not only will the scholars more thoroughly assimilate previous instruction, but be efficiently prepared for the next journey by collecting, comparing, and arranging the various branches of information bearing upon that district." The preparation for each journey was, of course, a matter of vital importance. A time-table of outdoor instruction had to be drawn up, the exact route had to be studied beforehand; maps had to be prepared by the children with times and distances carefully noted. It was a definite rule that not too much was to be attempted either in distance or instruction. The expenses of the journey are paid by the scholars. This is arranged as follows:—Six months before the scheme took effect parents were told and invited to allow the children to contribute small weekly payments. The idea was taken up with great enthusiasm, and more was contributed than was needed. The children took their own provisions with them on their day journeys, which occupied the school hours of the day. On the appointed day they assembled as usual, and started as soon as the register was marked, returning in time for the school dismissal in the afternoon. This practice was adopted at the Central Higher Grade School, Barnsley. Mr. J. Matthew England, the organiser of these walks, attributed the following benefits to the system:—

- (1) It suggests a return to more natural methods of acquiring knowledge, and a revolt from that dependence on books which saps the power of acquiring knowledge by means of personal selection at first hand.

\* Three School Journeys in Yorkshire in 1899. See Board of Education, Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vol. 8, p. 605. ff. (Cd. 835. 1902.)

- (2) It gives a physical and moral training. "For a race of explorers and colonisers this is much better than a fortnight's military drill at a boys' camp. The organiser of the journey can utilise the varied physical and intellectual powers of his company, assigning to each different duties and researches according to taste and ability, and combine all their work so as to achieve a definite end, like a leader of a great scientific expedition."

It should be noted that in the scheme of each visit are described the place visited, its natural features, geography, botany, natural history, historical associations, and industries.

An interesting journey (noted in the same report) was that on July 20th, 1899, of eighteen boys from Thornhill Board School, Rotherham, led by the headmaster, Mr. Joseph Wollman, and Mr. W. J. Flamank (a certificated teacher). The start was made at 9.40 and "we had timed ourselves to be at the various halting places so as to be able to keep up a speed of not more than three miles an hour, and this plan worked excellently." An excellent itinerary of this journey is supplied. The journey was to Roche Abbey, Sandbeck, and Firbeck. It was, we are told, a long climb from Wellgate to Broom (A.S. "brum" = healthy) and then on to Wickersley with the traditionally haunted grange. The architecture of the church was discussed. Then the party passed on to Bramley and across a little stream to Maltby. A spring of very cold unfailing water out of rocks by the road was noted. In a village called Market or Butter Cross (cf. Charing and other crosses) an old cross, with steps and mouldings, was noticed. Very lovely scenery from Maltby, with view of the village was observed. One boy wished that he was an artist. The party went on through Norwood Glade and were there told the history of Roche or "Rock" Abbey—a Cistercian House of the twelfth century. No plans are known of this lovely Abbey with its beautiful tracery. Stone coffins were noticed. An effort was made to recall the actual life of the monks. In the village of Stone cave dwellings in the rocks containing fireplaces were noticed. In Sandbeck Park attention was called to the deer. Firbeck Hamlet was reached at 2.30 p.m., and the return journey was made by way of the fields to the Abbey, and on as before through Maltby, where refreshments were taken. The party arrived at Rotherham at 6.45 p.m., having walked twenty miles.

The third Yorkshire journey was made on 13th July, 1899, by fifteen boys from the Doncaster Corporation School. It was a half-day journey and the boys started at 2 p.m. in showery weather. They had been told to bring light waterproof coats, if available, or umbrellas, a copy of "Ivanhoe" with marked passages, a bag for specimens, and a note book. The whole of the arrangements were carefully planned beforehand, and the leader of the party had made himself acquainted with the district to be traversed. The route to Conisboro' was selected because it is interesting and attractive, and supplied historic associations that appeal to boys. It is, moreover, rich in botanic specimens, and is connected by train with Doncaster. The actual route taken was the valley of the Don to Conisboro' by way of Balby, Sprotboro',

Levitt Hag, and "The Cliffs." The party first passed through Balby, a suburb of Doncaster. Here the Quakers met under George Fox. This fact gave the opportunity for a discussion of the term Quaker. The valley of the Don was part of the great forest in which Robin Hood roamed. Its appearance in the time of Ivanhoe and the changes that have since come were described. Sprotboro' church, with its "stone sanctuary chair," of which there are only three in England, was visited. The boys also saw the site of the old boat house where Sir Walter Scott wrote "Ivanhoe." Levitt Hag is a limestone district, and here the limekilns could be seen and certain chemical processes, as well as important fossils. The wooded cliffs supplied a valuable botany lesson, while Conisboro' Castle afforded a variety of information. It is an ancient site—Caer Conan (British), Conan Brygh (Saxon),—on a height between the town and river. The attention of the boys was drawn to the moat and drawbridge, to the courtyard with its Saxon walls, to the cylindrical Norman keep. The boys returned by train, reaching home at 7.30. It is to be noted of this journey that frequent attention was drawn to the beauty of the landscape and of the flowers seen on the way. Each boy wrote out an account of the journey of which the best, an excellent essay, was printed. The boys were bright and intelligent. There was no apparent restraint and conversation was encouraged, yet complete control was retained. The total cost of the trip was 20s. or not much above 1s. per head.

It is quite clear that journeys of this sort can and should be taken in every part of England. There is no part where there are not places full of historical associations within a short distance, where, in fact, all the advantages of this Doncaster journey cannot be obtained. This is particularly the case in London where, in the vast majority of cases, boys and girls are entirely ignorant of the historical significance of their surroundings. Even in Greenwich, the most historical spot in England, the children are generally profoundly ignorant of the history of the place. The present writer has led several school journeys of very poor children in Greenwich Park with gratifying results. Short journeys to Greenwich Park, Greenwich Hospital, Blackheath, and Eltham might well occupy the attention of all the school children in South London instead of a mere handful.

As we shall see directly, admirable work is done by some schools on the other side of London, on Hampstead Heath.

For the moment I wish, however, to refer to longer journeys by London children. The excursions from the Bellenden Road Higher Grade School have now become notable facts in the progress of education in London. The excursion this year was the twelfth that has been organised out of London. At Easter, 1906 (Saturday, April 14th to Saturday, April 21st), the journey to the Wye Valley was carried out. There was a large party of 55 individuals in all, composed as follows:—

Boys :	4th Standard	...	...	6
	5th	"	"	7
	6th	"	"	15
	7th	"	"	4 and a bugler.
Ex.	7th	"	"	11 and 1.
Ex.	"	"	"	3
				48
Organisers	...	...	...	2
Leader (Mr. W. T. Hazlett)	...	...	...	1
Head Master and House Master	...	...	...	2
Visitors	...	...	...	2
				55
				—

Each boy is asked to take

- (A) Grocer's "Empty" with lid, pasted over with brown paper, containing—
  - (1) Clothes—better suit for Sunday, cricket shirt or warm jersey and cheap boot brush.
  - (2) Comb and brush, soap, towel and slippers.
- (B) On his person—
  - (1) A Guide book.
  - (2) Note book, pen and pencil.
  - (3) Overcoat (absolutely essential).
  - (4) Compass, if possible.
- (C) Lunch for Saturday, April 14th, in satchel.

Pocket money is to be entered in the Pocket Money Account at the end of the Guide and to be initialed by parents. Accounts must be made up and checked every day. The boys were definitely instructed not to go near the river on their own account, nor to leave the hotel without permission.

The Guide gives a clear idea of the Journey. The programme was as follows:—

- Saturday, April 14th.—Peckham Rye station at 7.0 a.m. Depart Paddington 9.0 a.m. Lunch after leaving Swindon (11.5 a.m.). 1.15 p.m. Gloucester Cathedral. 3.30 p.m. Gloucester station. 4.25 p.m. arrive Ross. 5.0 p.m. tea. Bed early.
- Sunday, April 15th.—11.0 a.m. Divine service. 1.0 p.m. dinner. 2.0 p.m. walk. 6.0 p.m. tea. Letters home in evening.
- Monday, April 16th.—8.30 a.m. a walk. Home 5.0 p.m. for dinner.
- Tuesday, April 17th.—Depart Ross station 8.15 a.m. Day out. Home 5.0 p.m. for dinner.
- Wednesday, April 18th.—Day in brakes, leave 9.0 a.m. Home, dinner 7.0 p.m.
- Thursday, April 19th.—Leave on a visit to Tintern. Dinner 5.0 p.m. At 6.30 p.m. visit to the Vicar of Ross.
- Friday, April 20th.—Start 10 a.m. for day out in brakes. Lunch at noon. Dinner 5.0 p.m. Pack up and label luggage.
- Saturday, April 21st.—Luggage finally packed. Trip by steamer up the Wye at 10 a.m. Dinner at 2 p.m. Leave Ross station 4.45 p.m. Gloucester station 5.45 p.m. Paddington 8.30 p.m. Peckham Rye 10.17 p.m.

The Guide goes on to describe Ross, with map of the district, shewing the various excursions. The description of the Railway Journey is important; we have next an account of Gloucester, with a sketch plan of the Cathedral and sketches of arches in

the four styles of English architecture. Then comes a description of Tintern Abbey, with a sketch plan and other sketches showing the chief characteristics of English architecture. There are full maps and descriptions of the excursions (scale: 1 mile to the inch). Following this are (1) "The romance of a river and a retrospect" tracing the life of past ages on its banks. (2) "Some names and their meanings," the great value of studying place names is dwelt upon: "try to get into the habit of never passing a place without trying to think of the meaning of its name." (3) Historical, scientific, and botanical notes. (4) Notes as to drawing maps in relief and how to obtain direction. A place for report and marks (100 for conduct, 40 for cleanliness, 160 for knowledge) is given; also grace, an evening hymn and a place for accounts. Prizes were offered to the boy who obtained the greatest number of marks. The written accounts of the week's work were to be brought in by 7th May, 1906.

The excursion in 1904, in the Chepstow district, on a similar plan, of 53 boys from the same school, was equally instructive. This expedition largely devoted itself to geological work, and made some interesting investigations into questions of fossils in the Forest of Dean and other places. The same school has done interesting work in the way of day excursions. An excursion to Greenwich and Woolwich was of considerable value. The boys took their lunch with them, railway cost 6d. each, and the tea cost the same sum. The preparation for this journey involved an elementary knowledge of geology and general knowledge of the London geologic basin. Train was taken at 8.45 a.m. from Peckham Rye station to Greenwich Park station. The Park and the Observatory were visited and described. The party next rambled over Blackheath and learned something of its history. Then the water spring in Westcombe Park was visited, and the party walked on to Charlton to the quarries, observing there the four geological strata.

- (1) Blackheath pebbles.
- (2) Woolwich beds.
- (3) Thanet sands.
- (4) Chalk with lime and flint.

The party reached home about 8 p.m. This was a long day for an English school journey. It was noted that when tired "the boys cover the ground with less of apparent effort when keeping step than when they saunter along in loose order." Each boy was expected to bring a hammer and satchel, small boxes for fragile shells, note book and pencil and a copy of the guide prepared at the school.

Another journey takes us along a river bank in Lancashire under the guidance of Mr. Thomas Crawshall. We are told that this type of school ramble is intended to "illustrate and enlarge the teaching of the class room. \* The school ramble should aim at supplying first-hand and direct knowledge of a variety of geographical facts sufficient to enable the scholar to acquire the

general notions which the geographical terms imply." It provides a fund of knowledge common to all. Careful preparation for the ramble is necessary. Country with well marked features should be chosen. The ramble should be carefully studied and rehearsed by the teacher. It should not be too long, but should be capable of being walked in three hours. Each scholar should have a sketch map of the district, drawn from the Ordnance map, and a pocket compass (of which he has been taught the use). In order to test the water movement of the country and to take samples, the children should take bottles with tightly fitting corks. Photographs should be taken on the journey. The observations of the children must be tactfully kept within the designed limits. It is to be noted by the children that the direction of water flow is told by the compass and the general flow should be compared with ripples and eddies. The whole river movement should be explained. It should be shown by throwing in corks that straight rivers flow fastest in the middle, because of the friction at the side, but that at a bend the river flows most quickly on the concave side where the water is deeper and there is least friction. The examples will teach children to suspend their judgment and think. Next, pebbles should be collected and classified. The river has rounded them, the shape tells part of their life history. When a mill is reached its uses must be explained; when an old village is entered its history must be told. In one place it is found that a wall which once ran alongside the river now lies partly across the river. The river bed has changed. A winding river causes fertility. Take a sample containing sediment of sand. Where does the sand come from? That can be told from its character. Where does it go? Partly to the sea and partly to overflowed lands. The river becomes precipitous. A stone and mound of the ice age is pointed out. The historical associations of the neighbourhood are described. During the Pilgrimage of Grace the last abbot of the monastery of Whalley was executed near the abbey. The last scene of all is from the high land whence the river can be seen winding its way to the sea, the valley resembling a huge dish. This is the "river basin." Tea is taken among the ruins of Whalley Abbey and then comes an evening march of five miles home with songs. "The account would be incomplete without a passing reference to the sympathy which every school journey develops between teacher and taught. The moral result is of the highest value, it softens the relationship between master and pupil throughout the entire range of school work."

I turn now to a group of the most valuable and interesting of the London experiments—those made at the Kentish Town Road London County Council School by the Headmaster, Mr. George G. Lewis. Mr. Lewis had been trained by Mr. Cowham and adopted some of his ideas and methods.

Here I propose rapidly to trace the three varieties of outdoor work done in connexion with the school in order to show how this type of organised nature study can be brought into organic union with school-room work. First came the open-air lessons

in school time—at least one per week and more in summer. The places visited for the purpose of these lessons are :—

- (1) Parliament Fields.
- (2) Hampstead.
- (3) Highgate Woods.
- (4) Golder's Hill.
- (5) South Kensington and Jermyn Street Museums.
- (6) Zoological Gardens.

In the case of (1) and (2) the boys walk—a mile distant—and take the tram back if they choose. In these cases the party leaves the school at 2.40, and the lesson lasts from 3 to 4.30. In the cases of Highgate Woods and Golder's Hill the boys bring their lunch in the morning and the party starts at mid-day. The lesson lasts from 2 to 3.30. The train brings the boys part of the way home. Each boy in the Kentish Town Road School has from ten to twelve of these journey-lessons in the year. I print in Appendix B. Mr. Lewis' scheme of open-air lessons, but I feel compelled to mention here one important note made by him. He says, "I am a great believer in the value of trees as a Nature-study. Hardly a school in the kingdom is unable to get to a tree, and one tree alone will supply heaps of lessons. It is a big thing, and trains children to observe big things as well as small."

Of course the work varies with the district. As Mr. Lewis says, "Some schools will have quarries at hand, others will be near the sea, whilst others again may be surrounded by a wealth of plants and animal life. In any case, however, it will probably be wise to call the first two or three sets experimental. This will give a considerable amount of freedom, and preserve the teacher from criticism if one or two mistakes should be made in these earlier attempts."

The Saturday excursions are more ambitious, and, moreover, cost something in the shape of money. Being out of school hours both pupils and teachers "feel that pleasure rather than instruction should occupy the first place," and the instruction, though valuable, is usually of a disconnected nature. There are about four of these excursions in the year. The Kentish Town scholars have visited Kew Gardens and River Thames (at a cost per head of 5*d.*); Richmond Park—pond dipping (at a cost per head of 7*d.*); Epping Forest (at a cost per head of one shilling for tea and railway fare); and Greenwich and Charlton.

The third class of outdoor educational work done in connection with the Kentish Town school is the Easter Educational Trip organised by Mr. Lewis and his colleagues, Messrs. C. J. Rose and F. Wilton. The excursion lasts eight days, and Chepstow or Abergavenny are taken as the centre. The cost of the excursion is fixed at 22*s.*, but as it was found that the boys had each several shillings pocket money, an extra trip was arranged at the cost of fourteen pence. The expenditure per head was as follows:—Board and lodging 11*s.*; railway fares to Chepstow and back, 6*s.* 3*d.*; excursions to Tintern, Forest of Dean, Abergavenny, 3*s.*; extra teas on journeys, 10*d.*; admission to Tintern and Gloucester Cathedral, 5*d.*; cartage of luggage and tips, 8*d.*;

maps, guide books expenses, 6*d.*; sundries—medicine, postage, 3*d.*; balance voted to photographic souvenirs for managers, etc., 3*d.*; total, 23*s.* 2*d.*

Thirty-one boys joined the Chepstow trip. Of these twenty paid the full amount while eleven boys were helped out of a fund of £6 15*s.* contributed by managers and friends. The Guide Book placed before the boys a scheme of the journey, which in elaboration and attention to detail challenges comparison with the methods of Jena. The only omissions are the absence of any references to a tooth-brush or boots. Each boy is directed to take in his box a better suit for Sunday, extra shirt, stockings, collars, slippers and light shoes, brush and comb, soaps and towel, hammer and satchel, two tins for specimens. On the person were to be carried an overcoat (absolutely essential), if possible an old umbrella, the Guide Book, note book and pencil. The boys were recommended to wear a warm jersey, and to reserve collars for Sunday.

The start was made early on Saturday, April 14th, 1906, when the boys met Mr. Rose and Mr. Wilton at 6.0 a.m. inside the booking office at the Kentish Town Midland Station and made their way by train to Paddington—each boy carrying his box through the subway from Praed Street. Reserved carriages from Paddington at 7.30 brought the party to Chalford by 9.55 a.m. The day was spent in this country district and the train journey was resumed from Chalford in the Cotswolds at 5.53 p.m. Chepstow was reached at 8.30 p.m., and a hot supper at 9.0 ended a long exciting day. The week that followed has no day so long with the exception of Saturday, April 21st, when the start was made at 7.30 a.m. and home was not reached till after 9.30 p.m.

Mr. C. J. Rose summarised \* the results of the excursion as follows:—

“ Physical improvement has, of course, been attained by eight days' out-door life, and the brown faces of the boys and pleased remarks of parents on arrival home, testify to good results. The mental part—which the teachers tested daily by means of a *viva voce* examination—was provided by walking excursions along the banks and cliffs of the Wye and Severn, visits by rail to Tintern Abbey and the Forest of Dean, winding up with an excursion to Abergavenny and an ascent of the Sugar Loaf Mountain. Space does not permit to tell how every day was spent, but historical, geological and geographical knowledge and general nature study of plants and animals were assimilated by the children as heartily and happily as they ate their meals. Great kindness was shown to the party by ladies and gentlemen of the country. On Sunday the grounds and magnificent cliffs of Penmoel were explored, by kind permission of Mrs. Price, who also assisted with the Abergavenny trip; Mr. H. Clay, of Piercefield Park, gave permission to pass through his grounds on the way to the Wyndcliff, thus providing the boys with geographical and

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\* *Gloucester Citizen*, April 25th, 1906.

Nature-study observations. A profitable time was spent at Sedbury Park, where Colonel Marling, V.C., showed the party, among other interesting things, relics of the siege of Lady-smith, and fossil remains from the cliffs, afterwards personally conducting them to Offa's Dyke and Ledbury Cliff. The party is also indebted to Mr. George, the estate agent, for the trouble he took to make the visit agreeable. His Grace the Duke of Beaufort generously granted free admission to Chepstow Castle, while the party were extremely fortunate in having such a competent authority as Mr. Philip Baylis, Crown Surveyor of the Forest of Dean, to conduct them over the grand old ruin of Tintern. Add to this that a day was spent on the Cotswolds on the outward journey by detouring at Chalford, and nearly six hours were spent in examining the unique features of interest connected with the fair city of Gloucester and its Cathedral on the return to London, and it will be seen that the boys had an ample week's education, thanks to the energy of the organiser, Mr. G. G. Lewis, supported by Mr. C. J. Rose and Mr. Wilton, the treasurer, while Mrs. Lewis gave unobtrusive yet no less valuable help by acting as mother to the party.

"Fully to appreciate the moral results, it is almost necessary to spend the week with the boys. Acts of kindness one to another; daily converse with teachers and comrades; the necessity of helping themselves; and the partaking of pleasure without an admixture of hooliganism, did more than years of ordinary school life would do in fastening habits of good fellowship, self-reliance and unselfishness, and taught the children how to spend a holiday intelligently and happily."

The Guide Book was a great help. It contained "maps of Gloucester, Newnham, Chepstow, Forest of Dean, and a contour map of the Wye district, plan of Gloucester Cathedral, Tintern Abbey and Chepstow Castle, notes on coal, river, and valley work, stratification, rocks and hill outlines, while sketches of the fossils to be found in the coal shales and limestone rocks were given. . . . In addition a relief contour plan, showing each rise of 50 feet, was taken in a box made by the boys at the manual training centre." The Headmaster of the Tredworth school and his scholars met the party on Saturday, 21st April, at Gloucester, and took them over the town, while on the Thursday at Tintern the party met another school expedition from the Bellenden Road School in South London. It will probably be more frequent in the future for School Journeys to intersect than it is now.

The success of the 1906 excursions justified a further experiment. Messrs. Lewis, Rose and Wilton, and Mrs. Lewis, in the first week of April this year, took a party of 42 boys, including two aged seven years, to the Abergavenny and River Usk area. The journey was broken at Great Malvern and the Beacon climbed. The River Clydach was seen on Easter Monday; on the Tuesday the boys climbed the Sugar Loaf; on the Wednesday Raglan Castle was visited; on the Thursday, Table Mountain, and on the Friday Blackavon coal mines and ironworks were

explored. The journey was a success in every possible way and showed every sign of the most careful organisation.\*

Mr. Lewis,† writing of School Journeys, declares that it is better to take London boys to mountainous or fine scenery than to the sea. At Malvern, Chepstow, and Abergavenny, "the children are introduced to scenery of an entirely different kind from any to be found near our east and south coast seaside resorts." Easter and Whitsuntide "will be found preferable to the midsummer holiday. Accommodation is easier to find in the former holidays, walking and climbing is not so tiring, and the teacher's own summer holiday is not interfered with. In twelve years' experience of Easter trips the average *wet* day has not been more than one in eight, a proportion that will compare very favourably with any week in July or August. Probably Whitsuntide would be better still, where the week is available." I do not feel sure that Mr. Lewis is right on this point. No doubt the reasons he adduces are strong, but on the other hand, almost without exception on the Continent, the School Journey is taken in the summer, and there can be little doubt that there are lessons to be learnt in late summer and early autumn that can hardly be taught in any other part of the year. There appears to be no conclusive educational reason why the journey should not be held during the school session so as to enable the children to see the gathering in of one or other of the great harvests of the hay, cereals, or hops. The objections to the School Journey in the form of a walking tour instead of a series of excursions from a fixed centre are summed up by Mr. Lewis as follows:—"The risks of health, the difficulty of nursing a boy who is unwell, combined with the great amount of anxiety concerning catering and fresh lodgings each night, make such walking tours inadvisable in this country, especially when educational work of any kind is contemplated." This, however, is scarcely the case if the tour can be taken in a dry week from late June to early September. The exact course of the tour will have been followed out by the organiser and definite arrangements as to catering and lodgings made in each village and town where the organiser decides that the mid-day rest or the night is to be passed. The walking tour may be dangerous to health in the spring, amidst treacherous winds and weather, but, if well arranged, ought not to present any great difficulty of health or management in summer or early autumn.‡ School journeys of this type in fact have been carried out with great success in Derbyshire since the year 1900 by boys of the Bank Meadows School under the management of the Manchester, Salford and District Schools' Athletic Association.§ The boys in this school belong to really poor families, but the money

\* See The Guide Book and *St. Pancras Gazette* of April 12th, 1907.

† *The Teacher*, November 17th, 1906.

‡ The question of food and hygiene has particularly to be considered in autumn excursions. The use of fruit should be carefully watched, while sausages and rabbit pies are certainly to be avoided.

§ *The Teacher*, 17th November, 1906. See also Appendix A below.

difficulty is surmounted by means of the School Bank into which the boys pay small sums such as 2d. and 3d., etc., from the first week in December. Mr. Leigh, the master in charge of the journey, regards the holiday as one definitely for the poorer boys, and does not encourage those who can afford to go away with parents. Thirty-two boys and four teachers formed the expedition (which lasted one week) to the High Peak in the Summer of 1906. The boys paid 8s. 6d. each and the teachers a guinea each. The preparation for the journey is the chief difficulty to overcome. Mr. Leigh adopts the following method of preparation :

"I walk the route proposed at Whitsuntide and arrange proper places for field-talks, and find paths over the moors taking care to avoid all main roads. I arrange with landlords or landladies of hotels for the accommodation of the party and leave a menu card for them to work by. As it is a walking tour we have dinner when we arrive in the evening, and when we depart after breakfast we take a lunch with us and drink water by the way. At lunch time we have a field-talk (previously arranged) by some teacher with us. These field-talks are on limestone, sandstone, flowers by the way, fish, historical associations, etc. We got a special permit to go through Chatsworth and Haddon Hall free."

The menu card left at each inn was as follows :—

Beef or mutton	...	...	...	...	17 lbs.
Potatoes	...	...	...	...	40 lbs.
Cabbage (or peas)	...	...	...	...	20 heads.
Bread	...	...	...	...	44 lbs.
Tea	...	...	...	...	1 lb.
Sugar	...	...	...	...	6 lbs.
Rice, tapioca or sago	...	...	...	...	3 lbs.
Milk	...	...	...	...	10 quarts.
Eggs	...	...	...	...	48
Bacon or Sausages	...	...	...	...	8 lbs.
Lunch :	3 dozen large fruit pasties or 7 lbs.				
	of roast for sandwiches.				
Jam	...	...	...	...	4 lbs.

It was arranged that the party should have tea, bread, bacon and eggs and jam for breakfast, beef and mutton, with two vegetables, rice, sago or bread pudding for dinner, beef or ham sandwiches, or fruit pasties for lunch. Before bed each boy was to have a cup of milk. The provisions proved ample. Each boy was supplied with a haversack and a water bottle (borrowed by the organiser).

"We issue a card to the boys the week before we start. It gives names of places we put up at each evening, so that parents may readily communicate if necessary, and also advise the boys to come in old boots, well-mended and oiled or thick with dubbin; to bring a macintosh (cyclist) or a stout umbrella; to visit the barber; to turn *off* all taps in the house we stay in, whether water is on or not." The tour in 1906 was through the loveliest part of England.

Monday.—Train to Hayfield. Walk to Chapel by way of over Kinder Scout, Mam Tor and Chimley Moors. (Sandstone.)

Tuesday.—Chapel to Castleton by way of Cowburn Hill, Lose Hill, and Winnatta. We went into Speedwell Cavern and mine. (Limestone.)

- Wednesday.—Castleton to Eyam by Bradwell Moor and Eyam Moor. (Druid's Circle and Eyam Plague.)
- Thursday.—Eyam to Bakewell by Calver and Chatsworth. (Birds and Fish.)
- Friday.—Bakewell to Bakewell. A circular route taking in Haddon Hall and Lathkil Dale. "Wild flowers in the dale." (The story of Haddon.)
- Saturday.—Bakewell to Buxton. By the dales, Monsal, Millers, Chee Tor and Ashford ("A swim in Monsal Dale"). Train home to Manchester.

It will be noticed that the expense of the trip per head is considerably less than the expense of the Chepstow trip, even after the difference in the railway fares is taken into account. The excess of eightpence a day per head in the case of the Chepstow party is easy to account for. In many ways the London boys had the advantage of their Manchester fellows. But the fact to be noticed is that a school holiday of the most delightful character in the midst of "charming scenery, beautiful hills and pleasant valleys, moor, stream and crag," in the midst, in fact, of the incomparable mountain charm of the High Peak, can be taken at a cost for six days of less than eighteenpence a day for each child, including the railway fare from Manchester. Surely similar walking tours can be taken by London boys. In order to attract such tours the Railway Companies would almost certainly grant special terms to the High Peak. Any school that could organise a Chepstow or Abergavenny expedition could do the same with respect to the Peak of Derbyshire. It is of course the natural playground of Manchester, but its spacious moors and dales will take as many London children as London, ever parsimonious in the wrong direction, will afford to send. The Northern towns have of course the additional outlets of the Yorkshire Moors, and above all the Lake district. It would take two years saving in the School Bank for a London party to go to the Lakes. The excursion would be worth two years patience—but there are many closely packed centres of population that could without difficulty arrange tours in the Lake district. The finding of money is less difficult than would at first sight appear. In the case of the Chepstow Excursion it is not found that the total cost of 23s. for the week is beyond the power as a rule of the children.

In most cases the boy himself is expected to save his pocket money, and the mother makes an allowance from her house-keeping money, whilst the father, or brothers, or friends supply the rest. A majority of the schools, however, would find this quite beyond their means, but the teacher in a school where scholars are sent to the country by the Country Holiday Fund, who wishes to reap the advantages of the long distance school journey, might be able to arrange with the Country Holiday Fund Committee to send his children to one place. He could then take lodgings near them, and arrange perhaps to have the use of the village school or club, as a day-room for his boys. By adopting this method the teacher has no financial anxiety, he need only concern himself with the educational work."

One of the most interesting school journeys that has come before me was that taken by 15 boys (varying in age from 11 to 13 years) of the St. Giles' Voluntary School, Reading, under their Headmaster, Mr. Albert Smith, and one other adult, Mr. Leslie, an expert botanist, in July, 1907. A full and illuminating account of the preparations for the journey and of the journey itself, by the Rev. R. W. Carew Hunt, Vicar of St. Giles', Reading, based on the Headmaster's very careful notes, is printed in Appendix A to this Report. The account is very detailed, and should prove most useful to schools meditating an excursion of this type. The journey had certain characteristics that may be mentioned here, so that the reader may contrast this excursion with others that I have analysed. It should be noticed that the cost per head (almost half of which, *i.e.*, 4/- was paid by each boy himself), if certain deductions for capital expenses are made, was practically the same as that of the Derbyshire walking tour undertaken by Manchester boys referred to above. But there the likeness ends, save that the Reading boys were of as poor a class as the Manchester boys. A different and more elaborate scheme was in the minds of the promoters. The educational value of the Reading expedition it would be difficult to over-rate. Physical geography, Nature-study, geology, botany, and entymology vied with history in securing the attention of the party. For six months the boys were preparing for the journey, and in consequence hardly a moment of the precious eight days was lost. This fact was due to the enthusiasm of the Headmaster, and the special knowledge of Mr. Carew Hunt, who has lived in Germany and is perfectly familiar with the German educational use of the school journey. But this school journey had an individuality of its own. Little money was spent on sleeping accommodation. "Three of our sleeping-places were in barns among straw, two in stables, one in a loft, and one on the bare boards of a disused school room." This cost (for straw, labour, etc.) under threepence per night per head. This is to some extent the German practice. The boys despite much wet weather suffered no harm. The possibility of chills was carefully guarded against by the changing of damp clothes and the rubbing down of the body. But Mr. Carew Hunt and Mr. Smith fully realised, as the German authorities have never realised, that it is undue and unnecessary fatigue that chiefly induces chills and other ailments. They therefore introduced a precaution that I have not noticed in any other school journey—a period devoted to sleep after the mid-day meal. Mr. Carew Hunt draws attention to the importance of this: "*Nota bene.*—This mid-day rest is a very important thing for the lads on a 'school journey.'" The other characteristic of the journey was the fact that with the exception of milk, butter, bread and sugar, all the food for the journey was carried by the party. This food consisted of cheese, bacon, smoked sausages, biscuita. Tea tabloids were also taken and proved most effective. On the road they paid 13s. 5d. for bread, 5s. 1d. for butter, and 7s. for milk, or less than threepence a day per head. All other food

was carried. At the start the party carried 16lbs. of cheese, 10lbs. of bacon, 16lbs. of smoked sausages, and 7lbs. of biscuits. A further supply of sausages was sent to the party three days after the start. The provisions were distributed among the various boys, whose ruck-sack (water proof) with all impedimenta packed, weighed about 4lbs.

Mr. Lewis considers that the best results on a journey "are obtained with a party of from 20 to 30 boys, supervised by three teachers . . . . The work of the teachers should be divided and specialised. One will have his time fully occupied in organising the excursion, writing to parents, securing lodgings, arranging with the railway company, and obtaining facilities for visiting places of interest. The domestic arrangements will claim the attention of another. . . . The third master might take entire charge of financial affairs—no slight matter.

. . . . Whilst the organiser and treasurer were balancing accounts and making arrangements for the next day, the house master was putting the boys to bed and turning out lights. He brought the boys to the station and saw them into the train while the treasurer was getting tickets or tipping porters."

One further note on School Journeys must be made. The question of the health of the scholars is of the first importance. No doubt it would be wise to have the children examined by the doctor the day before the start is made. Mr. Lewis, however, has found the risk of illness slight. He says:—

"One or two boys are almost certain to be sick through the effect of railway travelling or of eating too much. A wet day will find out decayed teeth and weak chests. These minor ailments can easily be dealt with. If caught in the wet, we take the earliest opportunity of giving each boy a cup of hot coffee. When they get home, clothes are changed, and spirits of camphor (on a lump of sugar) administered. Camphorated oil will generally relieve a cough and we are always prepared for one or two cases of toothache. With careful supervision accidents will be rare. During twelve years I have had to call in the aid of a doctor only twice, and I have dealt with over 300 different boys. In the one case what we feared might be scarlet fever proved to be only a congested throat; and in the other, a boy had crushed his finger in a railway carriage."

#### VI. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

The School Journey, whether it be long or short, depends for its success on three factors; ample preparation and foresight, extending from general principles that make the journey an organic part of the school life, to the consideration of minute details relating to the physical conditions and impedimenta of the journey. Nothing can be left to chance. Every possible contingency must be provided against, and every possible advantage must be taken of the opportunities offered by a journey which has been primarily selected because of such opportunities. The School Journey, in fact, must be thought out in elaborate detail. This leads to the second factor; the selection of leaders and boys (or girls). Those responsible for the

conduct of the journey must have all the qualities required to carry the preparation into action—a grasp of the general principle coupled with a grasp of detail, human sympathy, humour and good humour, unselfishness, and infinite patience. The pupils must be selected with equal care. This is a difficult task. Perhaps the most difficult. It is necessary to have children who will mix well, who have as a rule approximately equal physical calibre (though an occasional giant is useful), who are capable of helping one another physically, mentally, and morally, who are susceptible of discipline.

Difficult cases should only accompany a journey when it is well known that the defects in such cases are absolutely out-balanced by qualities in the other boys. It is often found that so-called difficult cases develop new and fine qualities in the course of the journey, and one aim of the journey should be to deal with these cases. The last factor is the question of money. The sum per head required is not large—varying from, say, sixpence for the shortest to 25s. for the longest school journey. But it has to be remembered that the class of boy and girl that most require these journeys are least able to provide or find the money, and certainly it would be a good thing if a central charitable fund (possibly increased by a State Grant in Aid) could be created, that would sparingly supplement the sums saved by the children. For this purpose it might be possible to make collections in the richer schools for the poorer schools. If it were brought home to boys and girls of the richer class belonging to famous schools and possessed of considerable pocket money that by contributions to a central fund they would enable their poorer brothers and sisters to have a yearly holiday, it is almost certain that a very considerable sum could be raised annually for the purpose of organising School Journeys in very poor schools. But such help should, I think, be very sparingly used. Even very poor schools can, as we have seen, help themselves, and the saving by the poorest scholars for a definite purpose has an endless economic and social value. There is a good deal of waste among even the poorest; indeed much dire poverty is due to this very fact. It is found that saving is possible among the very poorest; that, by means of school banks, the poor children who went on the High Peak journey did manage to collect and save something like 8s. 6d. each in six or seven months—to collect and save between 3d. and 4d. a week. There are very few schools in London where this could not be done. The money question is not, therefore, the fundamental determining factor in a discussion of school journeys. The schoolmaster now, as always, contributes the element that determines the possibility and the success of the School Journey. If he is a chastened enthusiast, possessing both infinite patience and a broad grasp of principle, a passion for detail, and a sense of discipline, if he both feels and inspires enthusiasm, then all other things (including money) will be added unto him, and the excursion or journey, or trip, or tour, or whatever it may be called, will be a profound success; especially (and this is a matter of moment) if the

schoolmaster's wife accompanies the party as matron. Hers will prove a saving grace that will animate the whole undertaking, and save every parent from even a passing pang of fear.

In the foregoing pages only instances of Vacation Schools and various types of Holiday Classes and Journeys have been referred to. Many most interesting experiments have been made in various parts of the country of which no account is given here. I have been compelled to refer only to types of experiment. The return to nature is practically universal in modern English education. Nature study is to be found in every school, in every stage of efficiency and inefficiency. Sometimes the results are little short of astounding. To give one minute instance. In the autumn of 1905 I offered a small prize to the pupils of a little countryside school at Winster, in Westmorland, for the best collection of flowers made in the forthcoming year. The results were, as I said, astounding. Five children went on through the whole year. Of these five the first collected and pressed and named 297 specimens, the second collected and pressed and named 223, the third and fourth respectively collected and pressed and named 107 and 104 specimens, while the youngest, aged eight years, collected, pressed and named 70 specimens of wild flowers. These results were achieved through the long-continued practice of the mistress of the school, Miss E. Moore, who takes the children for regular rambles through the summer time, and conveys to them her great and practical botanical knowledge (*see Appendix D.*) Many other such cases might be quoted. I give this little instance out of my own knowledge. The rapid increase of the movement back to Nature is shown by the vigour of voluntary effort at the present moment. The report of the Ragged School Union and Shaftesbury Society for 1906-7 shows that no less than 7,109 poor children spent a fortnight's holiday during the year at one or other of the society's seaside and country homes. In 1892 Mr. C. Arthur Pearson started a "Fresh Air Fund" for the assistance of children in the East End of London. Sir John Kirk, the Secretary of the Ragged School Union, in a recent letter to Mr. Pearson, stated that the idea had now extended throughout the United Kingdom and had been adopted by "forty of the largest centres of population." Sir John Kirk and Mr. Kessell, the honorary secretary of "Pearson's Fresh Air Fund," have made arrangements for the extension of the movement this year to Burnley, Huddersfield, Middlesbrough, Northampton, South Shields, and Stockport. Mr. Pearson bears the entire expenses of management. "Every penny subscribed goes to the children in food or fares." The day's outing for each child costs ninepence. "£8 2s. pays for a complete party of 200 with the necessary attendants."\*

It was stated at the sixty-third annual festival of the Ragged School Union and Shaftesbury Society, the Council of which works in conjunction with the Fresh Air Fund, that the Fund

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\* See the *Daily Express*, May 3rd, 1907.

enabled 101,375 children to enjoy, during the year, a day's outing in the country.

One object of this report is to bring home to all English schools some of the main educational principles underlying Vacation Schools and School Journeys, and to draw attention to the more successful experiments in these directions. The school journey and the vacation classes appear to claim a definite place in the future life of English schools, and that place can only be fully determined by careful and numerous experiments. To augment the number of such experiments, while indicating the form that they should take, has been, of course, the ultimate goal of this report. To bring such experiments into mutual relation and to make the return to nature a fundamental principle in English education can, of course, only be secured by some general superintendence of the movement by the State.

#### VII. NOTE ON FOREIGN TRAVEL.

By way of postscript some brief reference must be made to School Journeys or Educational Expeditions to foreign lands. It is obvious that excursions of this type have great value as tending to diminish narrowness of outlook or insularity of mind, and to take the bitterness out of national prejudices. Experience shows that the journeys are quite feasible and that the boys are welcomed in the new country. I will first notice a London Journey of a party of pupil teachers from the Russell Road Pupil Teachers' Centre, Custom House, London, E. Mr. G. F. Burness, the Head of the Centre, visited France at Whitsuntide 1905, with a view to arranging excursions. He had introductions to various school officials at Lille and saw the working of three Primary and two Higher Elementary schools. The Director of the largest Ecole Primaire Supérieure, in the north of France, "received me very cordially and offered to make arrangements for a visit of my pupil-teachers in the summer." This offer had to be refused as the school was in the depths of the country, but eventually further introductions enabled Mr. Burness to obtain another offer, this time from M. Thélu, Director of the Ecole Primaire Supérieure and Pensionnat of Montreuil-sur-Mer. M. Thélu wrote to Mr. Burness: "Je ne ferai pas de cela une question d'argent; mais je suis moi-même très partisan des voyages scolaires; j'en organise avec mes élèves et je serai aussi heureux de vous donner mon concours que je le suis de celui qu'on me donne dans le même cas." A visit of two weeks in August 1905 was arranged, and the children were told to save their money.

"Early in July fourteen girls and eight boys gave in their names; with Miss Crow, Miss Collins, and myself our party therefore numbered twenty-five. I secured reduced fares from the South-Eastern Railway; for 13s. 6d. return tickets from Charing Cross to Boulogne were granted us; another 1s. 6d. took us from Boulogne to Montreuil, so that the complete fare was covered by 17s. For board, etc., M. Thélu charged four francs a day (M. Gombert of Fourmes (Lille) asked only three francs a day); for

this we had three splendid meals daily; we were more than satisfied with the food and the arrangements made by M. and Mme. Thélu for our comfort. The school and its appointments were exceedingly clean; M. and Mme. Thélu were so thoughtful and kind that we immediately felt at home. We had no fixed programme, but generally we spent the mornings in long walks, M. Thélu, his son, a lad of fifteen, and some of the boys of the school usually accompanied us; in the afternoons it was a case of go-as-you-please; our boys and girls strolled about in twos and threes looking at the shops and seeking for opportunities to produce their French. In the evenings we had the use of a large room which contained a piano; you can imagine the use we made of this; impromptu concerts, games, etc., were indulged in; we tried to teach the French boys who came in our National Anthem; they were no less eager that we should learn the *Marseillaise*. "The trip was most successful; it had a noticeable effect on the study of French at the Centre." Best of all, I think, is the fact that our pupils got on splendidly with the French boys, and that misconceptions on both sides were found to be based on ignorance. M. Thélu told me that he was astonished at the way our pupils enjoyed themselves without letting liberty degenerate into licence. He said that the English boy and girl would be to him something quite different from what he had imagined them to be. What astonished him most, I think, was to see our boys and girls talking and discussing things together quite naturally."

In Easter of the same year, an experiment of a somewhat similar type was made by Mr. F. G. Harner, the headmaster of the Leeds Church Middle Class School,\* with a number of senior scholars in the school. Three days were spent at Rouen, and then the party passed on to Honfleur, where the night was spent, then to Trouville, where another night was passed, and then on to Havre, and home next day. The children were well received. At one large school that was visited the Master considered it would be possible for English boys to go to this school and occupy it during the vacation. The results of the brief expedition were of distinct value. The idea of the French derived from the ordinary history book was definitely modified and the general outlook of the travellers was enlarged. "The lads had seen something of the historical monuments remaining in the larger Norman towns; had seen the art treasures stored in the museums; the picture galleries, and had learnt a little of the history of these things. They were particularly fascinated with the memorials of Joan of Arc." Too much was probably done in the time.

In August, 1907, a party of eight girls belonging to the VI. Form of the Roan School for Girls at Greenwich, with two friends and two mistresses in charge, spent ten days at Cherbourg. The second mistress at the Roan School is a personal friend of the Directrice of the Lycée for Girls at Cherbourg, and the latter arranged for a lady who receives boarders attending the Lycée to

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\* See the *Yorkshire Post*, March 30th and May 5th, 1906.

board the party. This lady planned and conducted excursions to the inland country and along the coast, a visit to a theatre, and to a concert, and various picnics. The cost was heavy compared with the various excursions detailed above. The lady who took charge of the party made an entirely inclusive charge of 8 francs a day for each person. The return ticket from Waterloo to Cherbourg was £1 11s. 6d. a head, so that the total cost of the excursion for each member of the party was £4 18s. 2d., or rather less than 10s. a day. The trip was most successful, and has reacted well on school work.

Some reference must be made to Miss Bunting's excursion to Paris with six London work girls in August, 1906. The party consisted of two tailoresses, two carpet sewers, an envelope bander, and an ironer from a dry cleaning establishment. The money for the excursion was raised in part by subscriptions and the party was also entertained in various friends' houses. Mademoiselle de Pratz helped Miss Bunting in the various excursions. During the week's visit the sights of Paris were with hardly an exception visited and described. The Parisian shops, of course, excited a great deal of attention, but La Sainte Chapelle and the Parc de St. Cloud called for unstinted admiration. "The statuary, pictures, and architecture of Paris," says Miss Bunting, "made a deeper impression on the imagination of the party than had been at all anticipated. . . . The statuary was greatly appreciated. . . . The fine buildings were also very impressive; the Gothic arches of the Cathedral of Notre Dame, the great dome of the Panthéon, and the highly decorated spires of the Sainte Chapelle were in striking contrast. We learned to know the look of them from different points in the city." The account of the trip written by one of the girls is extremely good, and shows that London life does not necessarily destroy the power of observation. The brief descriptions of Notre Dame and Sainte Chapelle are indeed quite striking. The girls were quick to see the weak side of social life in Paris; "what struck me as being very bad for a civilized country was making the men work on Sundays. They always seemed over-worked and tired to me. . . . I think it is a great pity they haven't a Dumb Friends' League in France. The men seem to see whose horse can wear the heaviest collars, great heavy things with fur all round, this weather." The Louvre Picture and Sculpture Gallery proved particularly attractive. "I think I could have stayed there all day. . . . we all greatly admired the Venus de Milo, many were the guesses we gave as to what she was doing." This journey was, of course, not a school journey, but it is noted as having a close relationship to that type of expedition in its organisation, preparation, carrying into effect, and educational results. All journeys are indeed school journeys if they are to answer any effective purpose whatever.

J. E. G. DE MONTMORENCY.

## APPENDIX A.

SCHOOL JOURNEY OF THE ST. GILES' VOLUNTARY SCHOOL,  
READING.*Origin.*

The Vicar of St. Giles', The Chairman of the School Managers, suggested to me at the beginning of the year, that it would be well if a "School Journey" could be organised for the summer holidays. Having lived for some years in Germany, and having studied to some extent the educational system of that country, he had become familiar with the part played by School Journeys in the education of German boys. In a letter in the "Parish Magazine," written for the purpose of enlisting the interest and help of the parish in the venture, the Vicar summed up his experience of School Journeys in the following words:—"They establish a pleasant relationship between the master and the boys; they help to widen out the minds of the lads; they certainly make the lessons in school on history, geography and natural science vastly more interesting and educative, because the intelligence of the lads is quickened by what they see for themselves when on these journeys." He was therefore anxious that we should make the experiment here. I heartily fell in with the idea, not only because I felt sure that such a journey would be of great help to the lads both physically and morally, but also because as we had made a special point of nature study in the school curriculum for some years past, I was certain that an expedition of this kind would aid the lads in the best possible way to train themselves to observe accurately. It has been truly said that "the beginning of all true work is accurate observation: the end and crown of all true work is an accuracy which observes everything, and lets nothing escape." The Vicar insisted from the first that the lads themselves should each contribute 4s. towards the expenses of the journey, and he appealed to the parish to contribute the rest. The Bishop of Oxford, who was warmly interested in the project, sent a contribution towards the sum required.

*General Preparation.*

It was suggested by the Vicar that the district we should traverse should be the Berkshire Downs in especial connection with the history of King Alfred; so in January we started special lessons in school dealing with the life and work of the great king hero, giving general ideas of the social life, and customs, and government during Saxon times, and going into details in regard to the incursions of the Danes and the effect of their settlement in England. As we were intending to visit the Vale of the White Horse, Sir Walter Scott's "Kenilworth" was chosen as the continuous reader, and the boys were encouraged to read "Tom Brown's School Days," and "The Scouring of the White Horse." The physical geography of the district was also carefully studied, and the origin and deposition of the chalk and clay deposits were especially dealt with in the nature lessons. Maps of the locality were carefully drawn, the contours inserted. Nor was the Church history of the district neglected. The earliest scenes in the Christianising of Wessex, with the life of St. Birinus, were dealt with in the lessons during some part of the time devoted to religious instruction. From his experience in Germany, the Vicar from the first laid great stress on the importance of a good selection of songs being learnt to be sung by the lads *en route*, and our later experience certainly bore out the value of this suggestion, for whenever the lads got a bit tired a song or two soon made them forget their weariness.

The actual route was next fixed. It was decided to make a circular journey going from Reading by rail to Wallingford, thence by road through Shillingford, Dorchester and Wittenham into the Vale of the White Horse through Didcot and the Hagbournes: on to Harwell, Stevenston and Wantage, along the Portway to East Challow, thence to Kingston Lisle

and so to Ashbury; thence by the Ridgeway across White Horse Hill to Blowingstone Hill and Letcombe Bassett; then home via Ilsley and Compton to Streatley, and back to Reading by rail.

#### *Special Preparation.*

A great difficulty in regard to a School Journey is the provision of sleeping accommodation. It is of immense importance to keep the expenses down, and therefore no extravagant provision for sleeping accommodation could be entertained. After the route had been carefully thought out, the Vicar wrote to the clergy of the Parishes where we proposed to sleep, asking them to be good enough to provide us with barns and clean straw, or an empty school house in which to sleep, and with only one exception, we found no difficulty, thanks to the kindness of the Vicars of those Parishes, in making the necessary arrangements. As it turned out, three of our sleeping places were in barns among straw, two in stables, one in a loft, and one on the bare boards of a disused schoolroom. It was generally found that schoolrooms were not available for the purpose. The whole party, masters and boys, slept in the same way. Another important problem is the selection of suitable boys. Fifteen of the most advanced boys were chosen, ranging in age from eleven to thirteen. In choosing from a set of boys drawn from one of the poorest districts in Reading, it was necessary to be specially careful that those who were chosen should be those who had been properly fed, and whose parents could be depended upon to see that their clothes and boots (and especially the latter) were satisfactory. We also took into consideration in our selection the question as to boys who would be most likely to be benefited by the journey, and who would be enthusiastic about it. The next important subject for consideration was the commissariat department. From the first it was decided that the staple food should be cheese, and this, with a fair supply of smoked sausages and bacon, and a plentiful supply of milk, butter and bread, was what sustained us. At the end of this report a special appendix dealing with the food supplies will be found. The cheese, biscuits, and sausages were carried by the boys in the waterproof rucksacks with which each member of the party was provided. These rucksacks were procured from Messrs. Gamage, High Holborn, the inside waterproofing being done by a lady in the parish.

On the evening before the day on which we were due to start, the Vicar invited the parents and friends of the boys, and the boys themselves, to a preliminary gathering in the schoolroom. Here they were met by several of the Managers of the School, and by Mr. Pugh, Clerk to the Reading Education Authority. Each boy had to appear in the clothes he was to wear for the journey, and to bring with him one extra shirt, two extra collars, one hairbrush and comb, one towel, bathing drawers, an extra pair of stockings or socks, a cup, saucer, plate, knife, fork and spoon. In addition to these there were provided for common use, boot brushes, blacking and laces. One cake of soap was given to each boy. The medicine chest included a bottle of New Skin, Cascara Tabloids, one bottle of Chlorodyne, one tin of Homoea, and one bottle of Armbrecht's Pyrethrum. To each boy was given to carry in addition—cheese, bacon, sausages and biscuits, making an average weight for each boy of about 4 pounds, including the weight of the ruck-sack, and the additional clothing, etc.

For purposes of natural history we carried with us two butterfly-nets, two killing-bottles, a portfolio for plants, and sundry tins for chrysalides, larvæ, insects, etc. Each boy was further provided with a pocket-book and pencil (contributed by the manager of Messrs. E. H. Smith & Sons), and a small map of Berkshire on linen. All these things were displayed by each boy, a careful inspection was made, and everything was then tidily stowed away in the ruck-sacks. The Vicar then addressed the parents and boys on the objects of the expedition, emphasising among other things the absolute necessity of unselfishness, unquestioning obedience, and careful observation on the part of the boys. He pointed out to the parents that everything which related to the health and safety of their children had

been carefully thought out, and that there need be no anxiety felt on that score. The Headmaster then said a few words in regard to the hopes that he had as to the educational results of the journey. Some of the songs for the journey were then sung by the boys, and the party adjourned to the Vicarage to be photographed. It should be added that we had the great advantage of having with us a friend of the Headmaster, Mr. Leslie, a Fellow of the Linnæan Society, familiar with the ground we were to traverse, who proved a great acquisition to the party.

*The Journey the First Day, July 27th.*

The party met at the Parish Room at the Vicarage at 7.50 for morning prayers, which were read by the Vicar, parents and friends thronging the doorway, and joining in the responses. Then after a final good-bye to the Vicar, who wished us every success, we marched off in orderly fashion with our ruck-sacks on our backs, to the G.W. Railway Station, and took the 8.38 train to Wallingford. After making several purchases at Wallingford, we took the road to Shillingford Bridge, passing the ancient castle, now in ruins, and the boys were reminded here of the part it played in the reigns of Stephen and John. Our maps were consulted as to the direction we were to take which we found partly by the help of the sun and our watches, and by means of the pocket compass. An excellent example of a river basin lay before us, which was commented on, and the botanical section of the party was soon very busy, as were also the entomologists. We soon came in sight of a splendid stone bridge, near which we lunched, and here we found the nest of a reed warbler with three newly-hatched birds and two eggs. This we examined carefully, noting how the parent birds secure their nests by means of the reeds. Here we crossed the river into Oxfordshire, singing our school songs, and keeping step to the music. Arrived at the cross roads we again used our maps and compass to find out our direction. The prominent clump of trees at the summit of Sinodun, our objective for the evening, looked quite close, and soon the tower of Dorchester Abbey came in sight. As we drew near the scene of the baptism of Cynegils, the first important event in the Christianising of Wessex, we sat down on a bank on which grew in great profusion such specimens of Scabious and Greater Knapweed as we seldom see near Reading, and here, with our thoughts on the story of the past, we listened once more to the history of the journey of St. Birinus from Genoa to Winchester and thence to Dorchester. In Dorchester Abbey we found much to instruct and interest us, the peculiar Jesse window, the only one of its kind in existence, the 12th century glass, and leaden font, the uncovered remains of early mural decorations, the Norman doorway, the string course under the eaves with the ball flower moulding, etc. Here also we were shown the first edition of Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress." The boys were greatly interested in the story the Vicar's wife had to tell us of the Abbey. Then on we went on our way, following the course of the river, and passing by some ancient entrenchments, similar to those met later on the Downs. The next point of interest was the confluence of the Isis with the Thame. As we walked along the side of the river, our town-bred lads were much struck by the beauty of the scenery, with the woods on the further bank, and the gorgeous flowers growing along the nearer shore with Sinodun overshadowing us. Arrived at Little Wittenham, we made preparations for our evening meal. Two of the boys were told off for this special duty, whilst the rest of us collected sticks for the fire. The meal consisted of bread and butter, tea (made with Burroughs & Wellcome's Tea Tablets which served us excellently throughout the journey), a plentiful supply of milk, and a great dish of stewed plums. After a swim in the river, we settled ourselves down in the barn for the night. The villagers, especially the younger portion, were much interested by our presence, and amused themselves by peeping through the crevices in the barn, and by making some observations regarding the enjoyment of our unaccustomed bed. Few slept that night, finding evidently more satisfaction in playing small jokes on each other. Little notice was taken of this as it was the first night, and as remorse was certain to follow next day, as indeed it did.

The following is a list of plants which we found during the day:— Bugloss, Agrimony, Avens, Meadow Crane's Bill, Willow Herb (Greater), Bedstraws, Scabious (Devil's-Bit), Yarrow, Sainfoin, Meadow Sweet, Meadow Vetchling, Rest Harrow, Knapweed (Greater), Gt. Yellow Loosestrife and Purple Loosestrife.

*The Second Day, Sunday, July 28th.*

We rose early and bathed in the river just as the sun was rising. After morning prayers, and the singing of a hymn, we made a partial ascent of Sinodun in order to view the Vale of the White Horse on its south-western side. Then we set our faces towards Didcot en route for E. Hagbourne. We breakfasted on the edge of a field, and boiled the water for the tea in a large kettle which we carried in a thick black linen bag, in which was also placed our only other cooking appliance, a large frying pan. Our breakfast was prepared in a drizzling rain which made the bacon in the frying pan sizzle even more than usual. A very welcome sound, for we were very hungry, having had nothing as yet to eat save the one thick biscuit which was always served out before we made our start in the morning. After a short rest, the sky having cleared, we set out for E. Hagbourne. Here we spent a profitable time, there being an excellent Village Cross and a Church of much interest. We had dinner in a quiet spot in the bend of the brook or bourne, on the way to which we found the Hemp Nettle, Succory, and Red Bartsia. From this place we walked to the sister village of W. Hagbourne. Here, and at other places on our journey, we noticed that the scarcity of bricks was overcome by building the walls of mud scraped from the surface of the road, and then roofing the walls with thatch. These curious walls interested us very much. We also noticed here many colonies of peacock butterfly larvæ, with their glistening black spines, which we found congregating on the Lesser Stinging Nettle; and here also we saw for the first time the tiny Dwarf Mallow. We now had a bit of uninteresting country to traverse, and the boys were beginning to feel a bit tired, for they were not yet in training, nor had they had very much sleep on the previous night. However, their weariness was soon overcome by telling the leaders to set a quick step, and by singing school songs. Harwell was our resting-place for the night, and there we lodged in the old National Schoolroom. The Church has a remarkable squint, and double piscina; we had hoped to get here in time for evensong, but unfortunately the service was half an hour earlier than we had expected, so we had our evening service in the school. At night we were so thoroughly tired out that we did not repeat the mistake of the previous night. After prayers the orders were short and to the point: "No talking, plenty of sleep," and without a sound we lay down on the hard boards and were soon asleep. We were all too tired to notice or care about the cockroaches.

*The Third Day, Monday, July 29th.*

We started early on our march to Steventon. Washing facilities being few at Harwell, we hoped to strike a stream in which we could bathe. On our way we captured several marbled white butterflies, and for some distance were much amused by the efforts of a large white goat to include himself in our party, and to accompany us in our singing. However, after some stratagem, we managed to prove to him that he could not pass himself off as one of us, inasmuch as he had no ruck-sack, and so to our mingled comfort and sorrow he raced back to his home. Before reaching the village we were met by two boys who had been despatched to act as our guides by Mr. Roberts, the Schoolmaster. Mr. Roberts himself joined us on the crest of the hill, and as we swung down its other side into the village singing as we went, the village folk came to their doors wondering who we could be.

By the side of a beautiful trout stream, beyond an orchard, we lit our fire, boiled our kettle, and cooked our bacon. Then we bathed in the shallow water, and made for the village. Here the raised causeway constructed by the monks of Steventon with an eye to the floods when the

Gynge brook overflowed, and the beautiful avenue of old elms with the sweet old-world houses on either side of the road, gave us much to wonder at. The Vicar showed us the Church, and spoke of its past glories. After paying a short visit to Mr. Roberts and his school in order to thank him for his great kindness, we set out along the Gynge brook on the way to Wantage, passing through East and West Hendred. At the latter place we had our mid-day meal, and our usual time for sleep. (N.B. This mid-day rest is a very important thing for the lads on a "school journey.") Then by the use of our maps and compass we were able to find our way through bye-ways to Wantage. On our way we had an excellent chance of examining the nature of the land, as we were allowed to look down a deep well cut in the chalk. Later we came across the lynchets which are fairly common on the Down, and are considered by some to be raised beaches, and by others as marking the successive tides of agriculture.

Just before reaching Wantage we were caught in a terrific storm of rain which drenched us to the skin, but which did not damp our ardour. At Wantage we were most kindly entertained to a sumptuous tea by Dr. Loveday, and then we marched on smartly to Challow, where we were to sleep in a barn. The boys were ordered to strip, and after a good rubbing down, they changed into dry shirts and stockings, and then wrapped themselves in warm rugs and sacks borrowed from the neighbouring farmhouse.

*The Fourth Day, Tuesday, July 30th.*

Our next day's journey was to Ashbury on the western edge of the county, and this in spite of occasional thunderstorms, was perhaps the most enjoyable walk of the journey. Much of our route was along the old Roman road, and questions were encouraged about the Romans and their roads and remains. The steep scarp of the Down, especially on the White Horse Hill, was noted and commented on, and later was compared with the gradual slope to the south. Here we found Euphrasia, the Red Campion, and the Helleborine in fruit. The enthusiasm of the boys was very noticeable to-day. As we trudged over the Down in the pouring rain, one of the lads struck up "O, who will o'er the Downs so free." And later, when toiling up a steep bank holding on by roots of trees to reach what was thought to be a barrow, another youthful voice was heard to mutter as he slipped backwards, "Paths of Glory lead but to the Grave." After a long tramp we reached Ashbury two hours late, but the Vicar's welcome was none the less cordial. He provided us with a cold lunch consisting of huge quantities of cakes, sandwiches, and ginger-beer. We went next to Ashdown, past the probable scene of Alfred's victory, and walked through the wood back to our resting-place for the night. Here we found many flowers: the Enchanter's Nightshade, the large clustered Bell-flower, and the Musk Mallow. At our sleeping-place, Idstone, we met with much hospitality, the Vicar of Ashbury having placed a mission room at our disposal, and a farmer his kitchen. We slept again in a barn with a plentiful supply of straw.

*The Fifth Day, Wednesday, July 31st.*

Not so full of experience. The White Horse Hill was visited, as was also Wayland Smith's Cave. At the former we read "Tom Brown's" description of the famous hill. Later, as we looked across the vale, we tried to picture the route taken by Tresillian. From this point we were able to see the fertile Vale of the White Horse laid out before us as in a picture, and in the far distance the glinting Thames nearly at the source, with the Cotswold and the Chiltern Hills, and the beautiful village of Uffington at our feet. In Uffington Castle, a huge earthwork, the lads recited some poems, and we had a long talk about Alfred. Here we found some specimens of the Frog Orchis. Following the Ridgeway, on we went to Kingston Lisle and the Blowing Stone. Here again we read Mr. Hughes' description of the stone, and most of us were successful in blowing the stone. At night we slept at Letcombe Bassett, after evensong in the old Norman Church.

*The Sixth Day, Thursday, August 1st.*

This morning we saw for the first time what was now to become until the end of our journey a common sight, viz., strings of racehorses being taken to train on the Downs. The Vicar of Letcombe Bassett accompanied us to the Castle on the Ridgeway, and there we wished him good-bye. A large grass snake was captured to-day, and we had an excellent opportunity of examining its habits. Along the way we had an interesting chat about the orders of plants, and how to distinguish them. On reaching Scutchamon Knob, where is the barrow of Cuickelm, we had a talk about history in general and Wessex and Birinus in particular. Now we followed a sheep-track to West Ilsley, and passing through that village came upon hundreds of sheep leaving the well-known sheep fair. It was a grand sight to see how these huge flocks were handled, and one shepherd assured us that he knew every one of his four hundred. This we could easily believe, as we noticed how very indifferent the shepherds seemed to be when one flock of sheep mixed with another. At East Ilsley we stayed the night, and our bed quarters in the straw and hay were excellent. Some boys suffered to-day from various slight ills, cut feet, stings of bees, gnats, etc., and much dust arising from the frequent passage of sheep added to their discomfort.

*The Seventh Day, Friday, August 2nd.*

To-day we visited Churn Knob, passing on our way a camp of yeomanry; the lads were much interested in watching their manœuvres. Near Churn Knob we finished our talk about St. Birinus. At Blewbury we visited the Church, and carefully examined the chained books. The boys listened carefully to an account of the early history of the English Bible. On our way to Compton, where we were to sleep for the night, our geologists came in for a fine time, and we had an interesting talk on chalk and flints. We then wended our way to Compton, our last lodging place, and here again we experienced many personal acts of kindness both from the Vicar and from the Schoolmaster.

*The Eighth Day, Saturday, August 3rd.*

After an early breakfast we set out for Streatley, and did an excellent march over the hills in very good time. From Streatley we took the train to Reading, and marched from the station to the Parish Room, where we were met by the Vicar. After a short Service we dispersed to our homes to empty our ruck-sacks.

*Conclusions and Results.*

The schoolmaster who is keen about his work often finds cause to regret the great difficulty of imparting vividness and reality to his lessons on history. But when boys are taken to the very spot on which great events were enacted, where noble lives began, or where deeds which should live in every English boy's mind were done, then even a simple unadorned school teacher may become for the nonce, in relation to his boys, a veritable Macaulay. So, when on our School journey, we found the story of the Roman conquerors, of St. Birinus, and Alfred become very real to us when told at the places connected with their history. The same thing is true in regard to natural science. The difficulty of making a boy of thirteen understand truly what a valley is, or a range of hills, or a precipice, etc., if he has never seen any of these with his bodily eyes, is very great indeed. But take him to the White Horse Hill, and show him from thence the Vale of the White Horse, and he shall no longer have much difficulty in imagining what any valley may be like. So also with nature studies, the field for contrasts and comparisons grows much wider as one traverses a great stretch of country, and when one encourages the boys to ask questions about everything that they see. If a boy found anything the name of which he did not know, he was told to bring a specimen of it. If he wished to know its name, he was told, and, if he wished its order, genus or species he was told, and if he came over and over again with the same plant, he was answered, even though the plant had been named to every individual. In this way we found even the un-

common species become familiar, and many questions as to peculiarity of structure gave rise to very instructive talks. It was, however, in regard to the bearing and conduct of the lads that the value of the journey became most apparent. One boy in particular, who had been somewhat of a puzzle to me because of his peculiarity of temperament, showed himself in glowing colours when on the journey, and thereby an understanding has been arrived at between boy and master which else might never have been. Moreover, a journey of this kind is a great test of a lad's power of sacrificing himself and his own wants for the common good of the whole party.

My firm conviction is that a School journey gives a teacher opportunities which he could not get so well in any other way for bringing out what is highest in himself, which he owes to his boys, what is best and most manly in the boys themselves. It brings the teachers and the boys into a relationship one with the other which is seldom or never possible in the ordinary routine work of school. It quickens the observant faculties of the boy, widens his horizon, tends to make him hunger and thirst after a wider and better knowledge of the world around him, rubs off his angularities, and helps to make him a better and more sociable fellow all round.

We have already begun our plans for our School journey next year.

## APPENDIX I.

## FINANCE.

A few comments may be made in regard to the accounts of the journey published below.

1. The duration of the journey was 7 nights and 7½ days.
2. The party consisted of two adults and fifteen lads.
3. The total cost was £8 16s.
4. Proportion per head was 10s. 4d.
5. The ruck-sacks were returned in perfect order, and will last for two or three School journeys to come, so this item may be taken to represent capital expenditure. We shall not need to buy any ruck-sacks next year unless there is an increase in the number of lads going on the journey.
6. It should be borne in mind that the waterproof lining of the ruck-sacks was undertaken at her own cost by a lady resident in the Parish, and is not included in the expenditure.

<i>Dr.</i>	£ s. d.	<i>Cr.</i>	£ s. d.
Contributions from the boys themselves	- 2 15 1	15 Ruck-sacks at 2s.	- 1 10 0
Donations from Parishioners and others	- 6 13 1	Grocery	- 1 4 7
		200 Tea tabloids	- 0 2 0
		Smoked sausages	- 1 2 4
		Railway expenses	- 1 4 2
		Expenses by the way, <i>s.g.</i>	
		payment for straw.	
		labour, etc.	- 1 4 5
		Butter	- 0 5 1
		Bread	- 0 13 6
		Milk	- 0 7 0
		Frying pan and kettle	- 0 1 8
		Medicine chest	- 0 4 1
		Soap, etc.	- 0 3 9
		Butterfly nets, killing	
		bottles, etc.	- 0 5 4
		Sundries	- 0 8 2
		Balance	- 0 12 2
	<hr/> <hr/> £9 8 2		<hr/> <hr/> £9 8 2

## APPENDIX II.

(a) The total amount of food carried by the lads at the start :

Cheese	-	-	-	-	-	16 lbs.
Bacon	-	-	-	-	-	10 lbs.
Sausages	-	-	-	-	-	16 lbs.
Biscuits	-	-	-	-	-	7 lbs.

N.B. A further supply of sausages was sent to the party three days after the start. Milk, butter, bread and sugar, were obtained on the way.

(b) Average amount carried by each lad :

Cheese	-	-	-	-	-	1 lb.
Bacon	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.
Sausages	-	-	-	-	-	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.
Biscuits	-	-	-	-	-	$1\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

The average weight carried by each boy in his ruck-sack, including provisions, clothing, and the other accessories mentioned on an earlier page of this report, amounted to about 4lbs.

## APPENDIX B.

KENTISH TOWN ROAD LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL SCHOOL,  
SCHEME OF WORK FOR SCHOOL JOURNEYS (1907-8).

- STANDARD I.—Trees.** General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Oak, Lombardy Poplar, Chestnut, Plane. To be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.
- Geography.* Lessons on Lakes, Islands, Capes, Bays, Hills, and Streams. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.
- STANDARD II.—Trees.** General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Elm, Plane, Willow, Poplar. Oak and Chestnut to be recognised when met. All to be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.
- Geography.* Hills and their outlines, Rivers, Tributaries, Valleys, and Watersheds. Use of a Map in finding one's way. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.
- STANDARD III.—Trees.** General outline, bark, leaves, and fruit of Sycamore, Ash, Beech, Larch, Scotch Pine. (Trees taken in previous years to be recognised when met.) To be sketched and described at different seasons of the year.
- Geography.*—Work of a river in excavating valleys and making scenery. Measurement of width and depth of Fleet Brook at different points. Rocks of Hampstead Heath and the vegetation they support. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.
- STANDARD IV.—Study of the trees on some part of Parliament Hill to provide data for (a) map showing position of chief trees, (b) a seasonal chart, showing state of trees at different times of the year. Soils of the Heath and their flora. Worms, moles, etc., as soil makers. Pond Dipping. Estimation of speed of a river. Visits to South Kensington Natural History Museum and the Zoological Gardens.**
- STANDARD V.—General study of the trees of the Heath. Soils of the Heath and the plants they support. Sheep, Haymaking, Clouds. Pond Life. Visit to South Kensington Museum and Zoological Gardens.**

STANDARDS VI. & VII.—The Rocks and Scenery of Hampstead Heath. Recognition of all the Common Trees on the Heath. Tree Map of some special portion. Visit to South Kensington Museum. Visit to the Zoological Gardens.

*Note.*—Mr. Lewis in sending the scheme wrote on October 2nd, 1907, "We are extending it somewhat, for during the last five weeks I have had a class out practically every day."

## APPENDIX C.

ROYAL HILL, GREENWICH. LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL SCHOOL.  
INFANT DEPARTMENT.

SCHEME OF WORK FOR NATURE STUDY AND SCHOOL WALKS,  
1907-8.

GRADE III. (Children aged 5 years).

*First Term. Autumn.*

Tree life in autumn—Colour of leaves—Fruits, nuts and berries. The way in which seeds are dispersed. Falling of leaves. Buds and underground stems in preparation for the winter.

Walks in Greenwich Park.

The weather. Appearance of sun and sky.

*Insects.* Great abundance in the late autumn. How flies, bees, &c., prepare for winter.

*Birds and Animals.* Flight of birds. Empty nests. How rabbits and squirrels prepare for winter.

*Second Term.*

Appearance of snow and ice, if any.

Tree life in winter and spring. Budding of trees, unfolding of leaves, colour. Beginning of life with regard to grass and flowers, *e.g.*, snowdrop, crocus and primrose. Bulbs and how to grow them. Specimens growing in school. Germinating seeds.

Length of day and night. More sunny days as spring advances.

*Insects, Birds and Animals.* Appearance of worms and snails. Birds come back to us. Building of nests. Little lambs in fields. Baby chickens and ducks.

Farmers' work in spring. Ploughing, sowing seeds, sheep-shearing, &c.

*Third Term.*

Abundance of leaves on trees in summer. Use of this to birds and people. Shapes of leaves.

Summer flowers—wild and garden.

Summer fruits, *e.g.*, cherry, strawberry, &c.

*Insects.* Housefly. Bees. Silkworm—life-history and work.

*Birds and Animals.* Singing of birds. Food of birds. Growth of animals, *e.g.*, sheep, cows, chickens, &c. Life-history of a frog.

Sunshine. Summer-showers. Long days and short nights.

Visit to the seaside.

Visit to a farm-house.

Walks in the park to study river and hills.

GRADE II. (children aged 6 years.)

*September.*

Trees, flowers, fruit (in autumn).

Harvesting (outside observation). Weather observations.

A visit to the seaside.

*October.*

An autumn walk. Autumn flowers. The spider.

Nature preparing for rest. Oak trees and acorns.

*November.*

Rabbit and robin (outdoor observation).  
Preparation for spring (ploughing and digging).  
Hips and haws. Planting of bulbs.

*December.*

A winter's walk (bareness of trees ; absence of birds).  
The neighbouring park. Ivy and holly.

*January.*

Winter tree life.

*February.*

Snowdrop. Rain and wind.

*March.*

Crocus and tulip.

*April.*

Spring—tree life—birds—primroses—earthworm and snail a sign of  
spring. Study of tadpoles.

*May.*

Birds and nests—the swallow—blue-bell. Study of tadpoles.

*June.*

Wild flowers brought by class.  
Study of silkworms and caterpillars.

*July.*

Summer fruits. Summer trees.

Class will keep a nature calendar, upon which is recorded day by day the children's observations of any natural or local phenomena, such as :—

1. Records of outdoor and indoor nature experiments—dates of sowing seeds, &c.
2. Weather records.
3. Observations of birds, *e.g.*, migration and first arrivals.
4. Observations of insects—appearance of butterflies, &c.
5. Records of flowers of each month and season.

## STANDARD I. (Children aged 7 years).

*First Term.*

Late Summer—to September 24th. Autumn—to December 23rd.

Weather, rising and setting of sun, length of day, to be observed each day throughout the year.

I.—*Tree and Plant life in late Summer.*

Growth of branches  
Wood.  
Foliage.  
Fruit.

II.—*Tree and Plant life in Autumn.*

Their appearance in Greenwich Park.  
Autumn colours.  
Ripe fruits—berries, nuts, &c.  
Dispersion of seeds.

III.—*How plants prepare for Winter.*

Leaf-fall.  
Buds.  
Cork.  
Evergreens.  
Underground stems.

IV.—*Insect life.*

Great abundance in late summer.  
How caterpillars, spiders, snails, bees, flies and earthworms prepare for winter

V.—*Bird life.*

What is seen in late summer—no young, many full-grown birds, singing and bird sounds.

How they prepare for winter.

VI.—*Animal life.*

Deer in Greenwich Park.

How squirrels and rabbits prepare for winter.

How our tame pets prepare for winter.

*Second Term.*

Winter—to March 21st. Early Spring.

I.—*Tree life in Winter (and plant).*

Absence of plant life (annuals).

Bareness of trees.

II.—*How to know London Trees in Winter.*

Arrangement of boughs and branches.

Bark.

Buds.

III.—*Bird and Insect life in Winter.*

Absence of moving insect life.

Few birds—why robins and sparrows stay here.

*Early Spring.* Signs of Spring.

(a) Tree life. How buds unfold.

How leaves unfold.

Flowers on trees.

(b) Growth of bulbous plants.

(c) Spring flowers seen in Greenwich Park.

(d) Insect life. Appearance of ground.

(e) Bird life. Return from warm country.

Nesting and mating.

Care of young.

(f) Life in ponds and ditches—frog's eggs.

(g) Animal life. Preparation for summer.

Care of young.

*School Garden.*

First Term—Preparation of ground, planting bulbs.

Second " —Planting seeds, thinning out plants.

Third " —Weeding and watering garden.

*Third Term.*

Spring—to June 21st. Early summer.

I.—*Tree and Plant life in Summer.*

Climbing stems.

Grasses.

Colour of foliage.

Work of leaves.

Flowers in gardens and Greenwich Park.

Growth of fruits.

II.—*Bird, Insect and Animal life.*

Their full activity.

*Practical Nature Study.*

1. Gold-fish, frog's eggs, tadpoles, caterpillars, chrysalides, silk-worms, snails, and earthworms; beans in glass cylinders, mustard and cress on wet flannel, tops of carrots and turnips in water, corn and maize seed on wet flannel, bulbs in earth, moss and glasses, and plants in pots to be reared.

2. Walks to be taken in Greenwich Park for observation.

3. Observation to be made in the playground on weather.

4. School gardens; pots in room to be taken care of by children.

5. Nature calendar and weather chart to be kept.

(Signed) E. R. DUDMAN.

F. E. VAN KEMPEN, *Head Mistress.*

## APPENDIX D.

LIST OF WILD FLOWERS, COLLECTED, NAMED, AND PRESSED,  
BY FIVE CHILDREN AT THE WINSTER NATIONAL SCHOOL.  
WESTMORLAND.

[Miss E. Moore, the Mistress of this school, has for a long time past supplemented class work by rambles which, in conjunction with work in school, have given an intimate knowledge of practical botany to a large number of children as well as an informed interest in the varied phenomena of country life. The names of the children who collected the flowers are as follows:—Fanny Chapman, Cicely Moon, Isabella Lowther, Maggie Lowther, Esther Marsden.]

Lesser Stitchwort, Sweet Briar Rose, Guelder Rose, White Rose, Pink Rose, Raspberry, Spindle Tree, Wild Jacob's Ladder, Wild Leek, Palm, Goose Grass, Wild Pretty Nancy, Common Nettle, Kesh (Cow Parsnip), Wild Sage, Double Feverfew, Bladder Campion, Centaury, Single Feverfew, Ivy-leaved Bell flower, Ivy-Leaved Toadflax, Thale Cress, Canary Creeper, Knapweed, Yellow Crosswort, Larger Ragwort, Dead Tongue, Herb-Bennet, Red and White Livelong, Wild Hop, Larged-leaved Spurge, Branched Hawkweed, Wild flower like clover, Bittercress, White Meadow Vetchling, Meadow Vetchling, Pink Common Bugle, Fat Hen, Water Lily, Large Scabious, Variegated Scabious, Bog-Rush (flowering), Figwort, Red Hawthorn, Pink Yarrow, Autumnal Hawk-Bit, Marsh Orchis, White Ling, Blue Gentian, White Polygonum, Cudweed, Yellow and White Stonecrop, Campanula (bell flower), Branched Burreed, Large White Hempnettle, Milk Thistle, White Herb-Robert, White Hairbell, Willow, Yellow Goat's-beard (John-go-to-bed-at-noon), Red Poppy, Wild Tea Tree, Common Valerian, Gipsywort, Toadflax, Yellow Cowwheat, Lemon Mint, Mouse-ear Hawkweed, Smaller Scabious, Common Livelong, Climbing Polygonum, Mallow, Wild Aaron's Rod, Marsh Mallow, Scentless Mayweed, Brown Monkey plant, Marsh Thistle, Wood Betony, White Thistle, Purple Loose-strife, Corn parsley, Double Buttercup, Golden Saxifrage, Water Musk, Moscatel, Larch, Oxlip, Gooseberry Flower, Currant, Cuckoo or Mayflower, Bilberry, Cranberry, Garlick Mustard, Butterfly Orchis, Meadow Cranesbill, Pink Cranesbill, Shining Cranesbill, Wild Pansy, Lesser Celandine, Common Forget-me-not, Marsh Marigold or Kingcup, Boxwood, Dog's Mercury, Mistletoe, Wild Strawberry, Wild Carrot, Anemone, Wood Sorrel, pink and white, Wild Cherry, Blackthorn, White Columbine, Blue Columbine, White Hyacinth, Blue Hyacinth, Red and White Clover, Wallpennywort, Early Vetch, Tufted Vetch, Ox-eye Daisy, Jagged-leaved Cranesbill, Water-cress, Lesser Stitchwort, Twayblade, Hoary Plantain, Common Plantain, White and Blue Violets, Marsh Violet, Balsam, Rue, Wormwood, Foxglove, Barberry, Wild Phlox, Apple, Snow Berry, Pear, Spearwort, Borage, Larger Stitchwort, Wild Shamrock, Plum, Eyebright, Pignut, Sweet Woodruff, Marsh Valerian, Cinquefoil (two kinds), (True Love Knot or Herb-Paris), Mountain Flax, Blue Hairbell, White and Yellow Bedstraw, Scotch Thistle, Woody Spurge, Wild Angelica, Water Dead Nettle, Greater early Vetch, a kind of Polygonum, Groundsel, Mouse-ear Chickweed, Burdock, Plume Thistle, Common Spurge, Evergreen Alkanet, Silverweed, Ground Ivy, White Campion, Pink Campion, Rose of Sharon, Large St. John's-wort, Mountain Everlasting, Small Vetch (name unknown), Broom, Red Rattle, Mountain Globeflower, Cicely, Bramble, Holly, Yellow Rattle, Sunder Thyme-leaved Speedwell, Pepperwort, Water Mint, White Bell-Heather, Butterwort, Lime-tree blossom, Buck or Bog-Bean, Many-headed Thistle, Yellow Pepperwort, White Pansy, Wild Honesty, Sea Clover, Cotton Flower, White Woundwort, Purple Woundwort, Wild Thyme, Hazel Flower, Snowdrop, Potato Flower, Bugloss (common), Vipers' Bugloss, Small White Scabious, Small Purple Scabious, Cowslip, Marsh Pennywort, Sawwort, Lady's fingers (Kidney vetch), Rough Hawkbit, Double Kingcup, Water Buttercup, Heckberry (birdcherry) Wild Mustard, Sycamore, White Hawthorn, Ivy-leaved Lettuce, Chestnut, Black Bryony, Pondweed,

Comfrey, white and pink, Periwinkle, Yellow Pimpernel, Scarlet Pimpernel, Ivy Flower, Dandelion, Coltsfoot, Agrimony, Wild Dead Nettle, Wild Mint, Shepherd's-purse, Yellow Vetchling, Restharrow, Chickweed, Woody Nightshade, Bell Heather, Smaller Bird's foot Trefoil, Water Dock, Goldenrod, Elderberry, Grass-of-Parnassus, Primrose, Meadowsweet, Yellow Monkey Plant, Willow-herb, Lily-of-the-Valley, Red, white, blue, and pale blue Milkwort, Barren Strawberry, White Yarrow, Common Bugle, Whin or Furze, Ragged Robin, Common Dock, Mountain Ash, Lady's-mantle, Burnet or Coffee, Bog Asphodel, Red Shank, Winter Aconite, Whitlow Grass, Yew, Ragwort, Field Lady's-mantle, Daffodil or Lent Lily, Common Sorrel, Everlasting, Smaller Sorrel, White and Blue Speedwell, Welsh Poppy, Common Heather, Common Ling, Brook-lime, June Vetch, Privet, Mezereon, Honeysuckle, St. John's-wort, Greater Bird's-foot, Lesser Trefoil, Pink Hemp Nettle, Easter Ledge, Pink Campion, Sweet scented Dark Mauve Orchis, Tormentil, Bramble, Fumitory, Figwort, Sweet Gale, White Saxifrage, Holly Flower, Weasel Snout, Water Buttercup, Yellow Mountain Pansy, Common Scurvy Grass, Common Melilot, Wall Hawkweed, Wild Marjoram, Spanish Chestnut, Wood Sanicle, Great Mullein, Annual Knawel, Wild Garlic, Hedge Mustard, White Beam Flower, Small Daisy, Bindweed, Broadleaved Mouse-ear Chickweed, Wild Parsley, Oak Flower, White Self Heal, Blue Self Heal, Juniper, Elm Flower, Marsh Pennywort.

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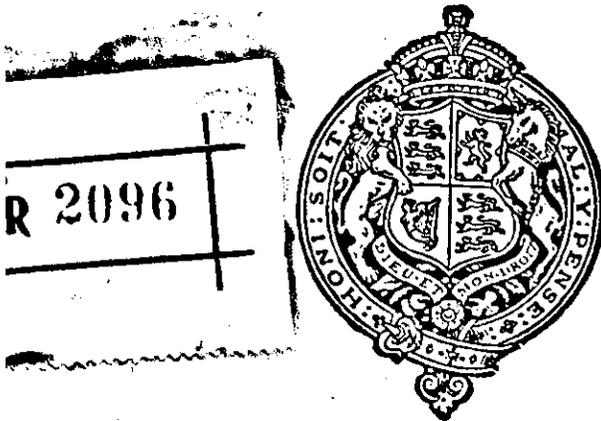
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PREFATORY NOTE TO VOLUME 22.  
OF  
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The reports contained in the present volume deal with the provision made in France, Belgium, Germany and Switzerland for the care and training of young children below the age of compulsory school attendance. They were prepared for the use of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education to whom the question of the school attendance of children below the age of five had been referred. The investigations in each country were made in accordance with a scheme drawn up by the Board's Director of Special Inquiries and Reports, and were conducted in France and Belgium by Miss Bertha Synge, and in Germany and Switzerland by Miss May and the late Mr. T. Darlington, one of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. This mission was the last undertaken for the Board by Mr. Darlington before his untimely death. To the Board's great regret the illness to which he finally succumbed prevented Mr. Darlington from presenting an orderly account of his observations and impressions. Miss May, who kindly undertook to prepare the report with the help of Mr. Darlington's notes as well as her own, would be the first to admit how much the report has lost by the absence of his critical judgment and abundant knowledge of Continental schools.

It is interesting to note that while in each of the four countries the earliest attempts to provide institutions of this nature were made by individuals or private associations, in all of them the pressure of economic and social developments has created a need larger than the efforts of private individuals or philanthropic agencies can satisfy. This has led to wider action on the part of public authorities, who have either aided institutions maintained by private associations, as is largely the case in Germany and in parts of Switzerland, or have themselves directly provided the schools, as in France and Belgium.

One outstanding feature common to all these systems, and retained even where the organisation has been most developed in close relationship with the general school system, is the separation of these institutions for the reception of infants from the schools for other children. It is thus possible to develop the infant school in harmony with its own special functions, and to prevent the stricter organisation of the ordinary school from casting its shadow on what should be the freest and brightest period of a child's training.

Further evidence as to the prevalence of this system is to be found in the material collected under the direction of the Froebel Society, which is printed as an appendix to this volume. That society, convinced of the advantage which would accrue to

the Infant School teacher in this country from a statement of foreign practice, appointed a special Committee to organise a scheme of inquiry. That Committee consisted of:—Miss Alice Ravenhill; Miss M. E. Findlay; Miss E. R. Murray; Miss H. Brown Smith; Miss Hermione Unwin.

In the absence of any funds to defray the expense of an inquiry on the spot the Committee had to fall back on the collection of information by means of a schedule of questions. This method of inquiry from its very nature excludes many matters on which it would be desirable to have information. There are, however, a sufficient number of points which can be satisfactorily dealt with in this manner, as the result of the inquiry shows. This is in great part due to the ready response which was made to the Society's circular, and in particular the thanks of the Froebel Society are due to:—Monsieur Bédorez, Directeur de l'Enseignement Primaire du Département de la Seine, Paris; Herr Nationalsrat F. Fritschi, Zurich; Baron von Pidoll, Vienna; Baron Kikuchi, Japan; Madame van Reenen Völter, Bergen, Holland; Miss Gunning, Amsterdam; Dr. Muir, Superintendent-General of Education, Cape Colony

The report on the material contained in the schedules has been drawn up by Miss S. Young of the Home and Colonial College.

It is of course understood that the Board must not be taken as necessarily endorsing the opinions of the authors; the responsibility for these is theirs and theirs alone.

Office of Special Inquiries and Reports.  
December, 1908

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From Material collected by the Froebel Society of  
Great Britain and Ireland.

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**THE PROVISION MADE IN BELGIUM FOR  
CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY  
SCHOOL AGE.**

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# THE PROVISION MADE IN BELGIUM FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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## 1.—CRÈCHES.

### THE CRÈCHE SYSTEM IN BELGIUM.

The Crèche System in Belgium is not developed as it is in France, nor does there seem (with the exception of Liège) much movement in this direction.\* There is no list of crèches extant, any more than there is in England. Each institution is managed independently by philanthropic committees or societies, some receiving a grant from their own particular Commune, some entirely subsisting on subscriptions or donations. These crèches are mostly carried on in private houses adapted for the purpose; there are few new buildings—none at all in Brussels. In the suburbs there is more movement; St. Gilles has a new crèche for 100 children; Molenbeek-St.-Jean has a splendid building to provide for 150, and there are a few others. Liège is a notable exception. (*See page 11.*)

The chief characteristic of the Belgian crèche is the addition of the *Ecole-Gardienne*, which admits children up to the age of 6. There are very few crèches without this second section, as will be seen in the following pages.

With regard to the apparent indifference to the crèche system in Belgium, this will be best illustrated by naming the few towns which have crèches at all.

In Brussels there are 4 crèches, in the suburbs 12, in Liège 6; Antwerp has 4, Ghent 4, Grammont 2; Mons, Ostend, Beaumont, Chimay, Hensey, Namur, Louvain, Malines, Morlanwelz, Mauremont, Lize, Huy, Tournai, and Willebroeck have each 1. This makes the total number of crèches in Belgium 46. The number of children under three years old in 1900 was 479,488. (*Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique, 1906.*) Most of these crèches are in industrial centres, where women are obliged to go out to work. Many of them are founded by religious communities, in order to bring up children in the Catholic religion, though this remark would apply more forcibly to the private *Ecoles-Gardiennes*.

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\* For full account of crèches in France see page 73.

A few words written in 1906, on the occasion of the 25th anniversary of the Crèche de la Charité, illustrates this. "*Laissez venir à moi les petits enfants*" is the crèche motto. While the idea of hygiene entirely dominates the opening of new crèches in France, the religious ideal still holds sway in Belgium, except in those cases where the Commune has taken them over. "The crèche," says the above-mentioned pamphlet, "is pre-eminently a social institution. Its object is to enable workers—both men and women—to obtain the maximum wages for their work. How many poor households there are in which the struggle for existence obliges not only the father but the mother to seek remunerative work in order to enable them to bring up large families. Often the work cannot be done at home. If the mother is forcibly kept at home by her duty to the children she loses the money she might gain; and this may mean want and misery in the home. If, urged by need, she abandons her home and goes to work, what dangers surround the children; and how many little ones have perished, victims of this neglect! How can we reconcile these conflicting interests? How can we permit parents to work away from home without the children suffering? Here the crèche steps in. It is a substitute for the family hearth, a refuge for children during the day, a place where they find protection and help, where they receive material comfort, where also they receive moral and mental care, good advice, and that religious instruction so often lacking in the home. Later in life, despite possible digressions, this early teaching fills a secret want in the soul—the divine germ of regeneration. This work requires the sacrifice and devotion of a true mother. Materially and morally the crèche should supply the family with a model from every point of view. The ideal Directrice of a crèche must possess a watchfulness that never sleeps, a calm that nothing can alarm, an equability that cannot be upset, intelligence that no difficulties will surprise, energy that never flags, and self-denial that no trials will discourage."

#### INFANT MORTALITY.

But although the Belgian Communes do little for their crèches (Liège always excepted), there has been a movement the last few years to combat infant mortality by means of such institutions as "Laiteries Maternelles," "Gouttes de Lait," etc. This movement has been stimulated by the holding of the Second Congress of the "Gouttes de Lait," in the Palais des Académies, at Brussels, from September 12th-16th, 1907, under the patronage of the Prince and Princess Albert. The first Congress was held at Paris, 1905; the next will be held at Berlin in 1910.

Each year in Belgium 30,000 children under one year old die. A "Ligue Nationale belge pour la protection de l'enfance du premier âge" was formed in 1904, and at once issued their "Instructions to Mothers" (*see Appendix A*). "Consultations des Nourissons," "Gouttes de Lait," "Laiteries Maternelles," and "Le Lait pour les Petits," all with the same object, and slightly varying rules and prices, were started all over the

country (see *Appendices B and C*). There are ten centres in Brussels and suburbs, one at Antwerp, one at Liège, and one at Hodiment.

#### CRÈCHES IN BRUSSELS.

The Commune, under the head of Public Charity, gives a grant of 10,500 francs per annum to the Crèches in Brussels. This is divided among four crèches. The Crèche Mère contains 53 beds; the Crèche de la Société Protectrice de l'Enfance, 50 beds; the Crèche de la Charité, 45 beds; and the Crèche Grimberghe, 26 beds. Total, 174 beds.

1. *The Crèche Mère* (Boulevard du Midi) is the oldest crèche in Belgium, having been founded in 1845 on the model of the crèche founded in Paris the year before. It served as a type for all the others started in the country, other large towns sending to this Royal Philanthropic Society for instructions and plans. The crèche is under medical inspection of the Commission of Hygiene in Brussels, and, though of old construction, keeps its sanitary arrangements up to date. The rooms are warmed by radiators, the food cooked on gas stoves, and the offices specially fitted after an English pattern, and worked with running water. The crèche is always full, often having 60 children ranging in age from 15 days to three years. It is absolutely free, and only open to the children of exceedingly poor mothers, who are obliged to earn their own living. The average expense per child per day is reckoned at 41 centimes. The total expenses for the year were over 6,539 francs, of which the chief items were: Salaries of nurses, 720 francs; expenses of food and clothing for 55 children, 5,500 francs. Towards this the Commune gave 1,500 francs. The King also gave a substantial grant; but this included the Hospital of the Blind and other charities which exist in the same building. This is the only crèche in Brussels that has not an *Ecole-Gardiennne* attached.

2. *Crèche-Ecole Gardiennne* (Rue t'Kint) under the Société Protectrice de l'Enfance de Belgique, was started in two small rooms in 1866 by six philanthropists, two of whom were doctors. It was managed by a Directrice with one servant, but soon out-grew its quarters and moved to larger premises. Unfortunately, quarrels took place between members of the Committee on religious questions, and one day several members went to the crèche to find it empty. Directrice, staff, and children had all gone to establish themselves in another dwelling, where the work could be carried on on other lines than those prescribed by the Committee.

Finally, a certain proportion of the crèche staff moved to its present quarters in the Rue t'Kint, where a large private house has been adapted to its requirements. It is now administered by a Council of twenty members, including a President, two Vice-Presidents, two Secretaries, two Inspectors and a Treasurer. Children are received from the age of fifteen days to three years in the crèche, which has sixty-six children, with four nurses and



who form the Ecole-Gardienne. They are taught, in a small class-room, songs, prayers, games, and Froebel manual work. All children from three to six are fed daily on meat, potatoes, and vegetables, having also slices of bread and jam before they go home. The accommodation is very insufficient for the large numbers present. The fourth section takes children from four to five and a half, who learn the first elements of reading and writing, as well as catechism, arithmetic, recitation, singing, and gymnastics. The fifth section takes children from five and a half to seven.

In 1883 a primary school was started for boys and girls leaving the fifth section of the Crèche Ecole-Gardienne. It was adopted by the Commune in 1893, and now contains 400 children. The whole establishment is under the Directrice, Mme. Van Ingelgem, who keeps the children from babyhood to the age of fourteen under her protection, bringing them all up in the Catholic religion. A large Committee of ladies ably support her, and a Sub-Committee of young girls has lately been added to help in the work of collecting subscriptions. Those who manage to get ten subscriptions of 5 francs each secure the right of calling a cot in the crèche by their own name. So devotedly do these ladies work that every year on St. Nicholas Day every child in the crèche is given a complete outfit, representing an annual outlay of several thousand francs. Most of the parents contribute something. The cost for one child under three, including feeding and part clothing, is 15 centimes a day, for children over three, 10 centimes a day, for children bringing their own food 10 centimes a week.

In 1905 the total expenditure was 30,413 francs, towards which the parents' contribution amounted to 4,000 francs and grants from Commune and Province to 6,000 francs, leaving two-thirds to private enterprise.

4. *Crèche de Grimberghe* (Place de la Douane) has an average of thirty children. The establishment is under the "Société Protectrice des Enfants Martyrs," and includes a refuge for 125 children and a Laiterie Maternelle. The building, which faces the Quay, has been adapted for this purpose, and the space is inadequate for the children. The crèche is managed by a Directrice and two nurses. The children are undressed, washed, and re-clothed every morning on arrival at the crèche. There is a Committee of twelve ladies, who undertake to supply the crèche with all necessary garments, and who in one year supplied no less than 505 garments. The crèche is worked on the ordinary lines of management; it is open from six to eight daily. It is free to most mothers, but the Directrice may, after due inquiry, demand 10 centimes a day if she thinks necessary. A doctor visits the crèche daily. Up to the age of six months children are fed solely on milk; the amount of nourishment is regulated by the doctor. The elder children rest after their mid-day meal on canvas hammocks stretched across narrow piping. While they rest the *femmes de service* take their dinner and clean the crèche. There is no garden attached to the crèche. "*La crèche ne doit jamais sentir mauvais*" was among the rules

printed in a special pamphlet for the use of the crèche. This crèche works in connection with the Laiterie Maternelle which was started in 1897, the first in Belgium. It supplies the crèche with the very purest milk—always sterilised—and sells it to mothers in specially stoppered bottles holding 50 to 250 grammes at the rate of 30 centimes the litre, or 15 centimes the half-litre.

#### CRÈCHE-ÉCOLE-GARDIENNE, ST. GILLES.

The population of this suburb is 60,086 (1905).

It has one crèche, with 100 beds, and will soon have accommodation for another 100 children in the Ecole-Gardienne which is in the same magnificent building. The Commune gives 5,000 francs a year towards expenses, to which is added the parents' fees, and a Committee of Management collects the rest. The crèche with 25 beds was founded in 1870 by a few charitable people. It was intended for children of all denominations; but in 1894 both building and organisation were recognised as defective, and the Commune decided to build a new crèche in a more central position for the working population of St. Gilles. Plans were prepared, and, under the Architect of the Commune, the building was completed on the most modern and approved lines, at great cost. A large and beautifully planted garden is attached.

Throughout the length of the building runs a long corridor, on one side of which doors lead into the play-room, dining-room, and two class-rooms for the Ecole-Gardienne; on the other side into bath-room, kitchens, waiting-rooms, cloak-rooms, etc. On the floor above this is a large room, with 70 cots arranged round the three sides of the walls, and accommodation for 30 older children, from two to three, to rest during part of the day. At the end of each cot is a small chair, and a card above each cot gives an account of the donor and small occupant. A small room leading out of this large nursery, but also accessible from the outside, is set apart for nursing mothers to feed their babies daily. In the centre of the large nursery is a table with chairs, where the *Berceuses* attend to the wants of the small babies, feed them, and change their linen. The room was quite airy and fresh, and sunshine was streaming in. At the fourth side of the room were stretched canvases on iron frames, covered with movable sheets of mackintosh, where the older children rest at mid-day. On the opposite side of the corridor were the Director's rooms, linen room, etc.

*Conditions of Admission.*—Children are admitted from a fortnight old to three years in the crèche, and pass on to the Ecole Gardienne, where they are taught at present in two class-rooms, one for those from three to four, and the other for those from four to five. They are not kept after the age of five. Every child whose parents live in the Commune can be admitted if there is room. On admission the parents must fill up a paper stating

the name of the child, their own profession and home address, also a certificate of birth and a voucher that the child has been vaccinated. The crèche admits neither sick children nor children from an infected house. They cannot be definitely admitted until they have been visited by a crèche doctor.

Payment is required weekly. It is at the rate of 60 centimes per child, 45 centimes each for two children, and 30 centimes for each of three children of a family. The crèche also receives children paid for by the Charity Bureau. In these cases the parents must make a statement when the child is admitted, and produce the certificate from the Charity Bureau. The crèche is open every day in the year except Sundays and feast-days, and other days arranged by the Executive Committee. It is open from 6.30 a.m. from May 1st to August 31st, and 7 a.m. from September 1st to April 30th. It is closed every evening at 8 p.m.

*The Staff* consists of a Directrice, two teachers, nurses and *femmes de service*, a cook, and a concierge. The staff is appointed and discharged by the Executive Committee, which also fixes the salaries. The whole establishment—except the concierge, who receives orders direct from the Committee—is under the Directrice. The Directrice is responsible for all accidents which may happen to children during their stay at the crèche. She has to keep registers of attendance, of household expenses, linen, clothes, etc. She can buy nothing without leave from the Executive Committee, neither can she absent herself without their permission. The Directrice, teachers, and nurses are lodged and boarded at the expense of the crèche.

To the *dames patronnesses* are attributed the usual duties; but the *dames patronnesses* in Brussels do not seem quite so assiduous in visiting as those who superintend the Paris crèches. The whole staff are called on to fulfil their duties with "tact, sweetness, zeal, and intelligence"; they must love the children, and inspire their love in return; they must treat them with the care and attention claimed by their tender age, at the same time maintaining order and discipline. Corporal punishment is strictly forbidden.

The concierge cleans windows, vestibules, court and classrooms, keeps the basement, garden, committee-rooms, and secretariat, as well as being responsible for the lighting and warming of the establishment.

*Hygiene.*—Three doctors are attached to the crèche-écolégardienne; but there is less medical supervision, on the whole, in the Belgian crèches than in the French. They have to certify that the most scrupulous cleanliness has been observed, that the floors are well washed and the windows opened, that the beds have been aired and dried, the offices disinfected, and the baby-linen is irreproachable. To this end it is requested that every child shall be washed before being brought to the crèche. Parents who neglect to bring their babies perfectly clean are warned by the Directrice; and, if they still refuse to follow her instructions, they are requested to remove the child. Every

child is re-dressed in crèche clothes on arrival, and, if necessary, washed. Each has its own sponge, basin, handkerchief, cup, plate, and spoon. When the weather permits, a bath is given to each child at least once a week, under the superintendence of the Directrice. The ventilation of the rooms must be uniform, without children being exposed to draughts. They should be kept at a temperature of 18 deg. Cent. Children should be kept out of doors whenever it is fine enough. They are all fed at the crèche-école-gardienne. Neither flowers nor painted toys are allowed in the rooms used by the children. This is the menu for one week for children over two\* :—

Monday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.

3.15. Boiled rice and milk.

Tuesday.—11.15. Soup without meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.

3.15. Rice and milk.

Wednesday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.

3.15. Rice and milk.

Thursday.—11.15. Soup without meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.

3.15. Potatoes, bread, beer.

Friday.—Same as Thursday.

Saturday.—11.15. Soup, with meat, potatoes, rice, vegetables.

3.15. Semolina and milk.

Every day at 5.30 bread and jam are given, and milk and water. During the day thirsty children are given a decoction of herb tea and liquorice to drink.

The following rules are printed for the Staff of this crèche :—

“Never hasten the little ones unduly; let them crawl on the floor and get up without help when they are able. Never disturb a child asleep. Cover the child lightly. Raise its head slightly in bed. Never let it sit up long in its chair. Do not restrain a child’s movements by its clothes. Scold rarely, and always act with the greatest tenderness. Never raise a child by one arm. Never put a child on your lap and expose it to the laughter of others. Never excite it to anger or tears. In case of convulsions, remove it at once from other children and inform doctor.”

*Time Table.*—The children who pass from Crèche to Ecole-Gardienne observe the following time-table :—

Monday.—9-11. Singing, beads, recreation, third gift, talk.

11.30-3. Weaving, singing, folding, action games.

Tuesday.—9-11. Singing, bricks, recreation, talk, first gift.

11.30-3. Plaiting, singing, 4th gift, action songs.

Wednesday.—9-11. Singing, second gift, recreation, beads, poetry.

11.30-3. Weaving, singing, sticks, action songs.

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\* The Directrice told me she gave less potatoes than prescribed in menu.

Thursday.—9-11. Singing, third gift, recreation, plaiting, talk.  
11.30-3. Singing, bricks, action songs.

Friday.—9-11. Singing, fourth gift, recreation, beads, talk.  
11.30-3. Sticks, song, first gift, action songs.

Saturday.—9-11. Songs, bricks, recreations, plaiting, poetry.  
11.30-3. Folding, singing, talk.

All the children attending the Ecole-Gardienne have a rest after their 11.15 meal. For this purpose there are long benches the whole way round a good-sized room, with wooden backs, and here the children lounge and sleep, in uncomfortable positions. A teacher sits in the room, which is darkened. The arrangement of the benches is not to be commended, though the rest hour is undoubtedly good. A better arrangement for resting the children attending the Ecoles-Gardiennes is given on page 6.

At St. Nicholas large presents of clothes, toys and bonbons are made to children of the Crèche-Ecole Gardienne, especially to those who have been found most deserving.

The cost per child at this establishment was given me by the Treasurer as 62 centimes per head per day. The accounts are not forthcoming.

#### CRÈCHE-ECOLE-GARDIENNE D'IXELLES.

Population 70,649 in 1905.

In inadequate quarters this Crèche-Ecole-Gardienne is carried on vigorously. The average attendance for 1906 at the crèche was 42 per day; at the école-gardienne 87 per day.

The total expenses for the year were 21,291 francs, towards which the Province contributed 608 francs, the Commune 4,000 francs, the King 300 francs, mothers' payments amounted to 2,307 francs, and subscriptions to 2,748 francs.

The Staff consists of a Directrice (newly appointed from Liège), two teachers, three nurses, three servants, and a *femme de service*. Two doctors give their services free. A committee of ladies devote themselves to the children, having collected no less than 2,171 francs to spend on clothes and toys for the children at St. Nicholas.

#### CRÈCHES AT LIÈGE.

In 1847 M. Abry, then Controller of the Liège Hospitals, drew the attention of the Communal Administration to the utility of crèches. He suggested turning part of an old convent into a crèche, and the Administration accepted his offer, appropriating for this purpose several rooms of the disused convent. M. Abry collected the necessary funds, and in 1849 the first crèche was opened at Liège, with accommodation for fifty babies.

In 1859 another generous philanthropist resolved to found a second crèche, in another part of the town. He bought some land and built a new crèche, to hold fifty beds, which was opened in 1861.

A third crèche was built in 1873 by private enterprise. But in 1879 the situation changed, and the Commune undertook the charge of the crèches. A fourth was built under Communal direction in 1893, containing 100 beds, and two more have been opened in 1906 and 1907, containing respectively 100 and fifty beds. These crèches, frequented by some 500 children, cost the Commune annually 55,000 francs.

They are open from 5.30 a.m. in summer and 6 in winter to 8 p.m. They are entirely free, and children can remain to the age of three. A committee of ladies, appointed by the Communal Administration, visit the crèches constantly and contribute greatly towards their success.

At the head of each crèche is a Directrice; her salary begins at 1,100 francs, after five years of service it is increased to 1,300 francs, and after ten years to 1,500 francs. In addition to this she has board and lodging, light and firing. A doctor is attached to each crèche; his salary begins at 300 francs, after five years it is raised to 400 francs, after ten years to 500 francs, and after fifteen years to 600 francs. The *berceuses* and other workers at the crèches receive 600 francs, rising to 750 francs after fifteen years' service.

The general expenses for 1907 amounted to 89,200 francs. One Directrice-Générale, 2,800 francs; six Directrices, 7,950 francs; six doctors, 3,100 francs; *berceuses* and *femme de services*, 32,850 francs; one chauffeur, 500 francs; other expenses, including food, washing, upkeep of furniture and building, 42,000 francs.

This does not include the initial expense of linen or clothes worn by the children during their stay at the crèche. Every two or three years the Commune votes 3,000 or 4,000 francs for this purpose.

The building of the Communal crèche, holding 100 children, cost 139,895 francs, the site 55,000 francs, and the warming apparatus 25,000 francs.

## II.—ÉCOLES-GARDIENNES, OR JARDINS D'ENFANTS.

### GENERAL REMARKS.

The first official recognition of these schools in Belgium dates from 1833, when certain rules were laid down fixing the age of admission for children between two and six, and regulating their instruction. The movement grew rapidly throughout the country. By the year 1881 there were 708 Écoles-Gardiennes, containing 56,408 children. By 1900 the number had increased to 2,310 schools, containing 218,702 children. In 1905 there were 2,771 schools, containing 258,149 children. (In *Appendix D* will be found a table giving the distribution of these schools throughout Belgium, and in *Appendix F* figures giving their total cost.) The *Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique* for 1906 gives the number of children between three and six in 1900 as 446,134; so that, allowing for growth of population, it may be

stated roughly that Belgium has school accommodation for one-half of her children between three and six years old.

These Ecoles-Gardiennes, while receiving grants from the State and being under State inspection, are to a large extent built and managed by the Communes. They are classified under three different heads: Communal Schools; Schools adopted by the Communes; and Private Schools, not adopted by Communes (but which fulfil the necessary conditions for adoption), receiving State grants. In order to receive these grants these Ecoles-Gardiennes must be open to Government inspection, keep a capable teaching staff, receive children of the poor between the ages of three and six free, have suitable accommodation and furniture, and in Communes under 1,000 inhabitants have a regular attendance of 20 children. For schools complying with these regulations the State grant is given according to the following rates. In Communes under 1,000 inhabitants they receive 10 francs for each child. Ecoles-Gardiennes containing twenty to twenty-five children receive 250 francs for one class and 225 francs for each additional class. Those with thirty-six to fifty-three children receive 300 francs for one class, and 275 francs for each additional class. Those with over 51 children receive 350 francs for one class and 325 francs for every additional class. To bring these up to some standard of efficiency a new code of rules was issued in 1890 by the Minister of Public Instruction "to aid the Communes in their task of organising the Ecoles-Gardiennes." It forms the basis to-day for the organisation of all the schools in the country, though a large number of Communes have issued their own rules and regulations.

As the whole modern scheme of the Ecoles-Gardiennes is given later, it is only necessary briefly to sketch the Ministerial propaganda of 1890. The Ecole-Gardienne admits children from three to six. It seeks to prepare them for the future by bestowing on them that care which is required for their physical, mental, and moral development. It strives, above all, to enable them to acquire habits of cleanliness, order, politeness, and obedience; to encourage spontaneity; to inspire them with a love of right and hatred of evil. In a word, to surround them with all those good influences which should be included in an intelligent mother's training. The child is not called to the Ecole-Gardienne to remain impassive during the long hours, to sit still during lessons, to listen mechanically to remonstrances and exhortations. It must move about; it must work, not only its limbs, but its faculties. This is activity. The Ecole-Gardienne must not aim merely at imitation or unconscious reproduction of all that is done; it must be creative. That which it teaches must not arise from an ignorant appropriation of the knowledge of others, of a laborious assimilation of things or words monotonously repeated; it should be an acquisition resulting from the observations, investigations, and little practical experiences. This is spontaneous activity. Games, pursuits, and work should not be

the fulfilment of a sharp command, of an imperious order, of an invitation admitting no reply. They should be, as much as possible, the thing which is wanted, demanded, desired. This is free activity. But, as this child-life has need of outward influence to aid its growth, it is for the teacher of the *Ecole-Gardiennne* to supply this by directing this spontaneous and free activity. She will accomplish nothing if she carries out her methods mechanically, and follows a monotonous routine both in work and play. She must be full of the spirit of the system of infant training, so that she may vary the means at her disposal, and so awaken the child's mind by opening it to all wholesome impressions and fine feelings. To awaken with moderation and direct wisely the activity of the pupil, leaving it spontaneity and liberty, such is the high ideal of the true teacher of *Ecoles-Gardiennes*. The programme should include: bodily exercises and gymnastic games; training in thoughtfulness, speech and learning by heart, in order to awaken the spirit of research and observation, to give birth to simple ideas on the subject of Nature and life and the first notions of duty, in order gradually to enable the child to express itself with ease and clearness. The training will include singing learnt by ear, and manual occupations. The Communal Council can add reading, writing, and arithmetic for the older children if they wish. No single lesson must last over half an hour; there must be constant variety, that children may be occupied without constraint or fatigue. The Communal Council will decide about religious instruction, whether it be Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish. There will be special inspection for religious instruction. (There is no religious instruction, only "moral teaching," in the Communal schools).

The Directrice of the school will keep registers with the names of the children, attendance, administrative correspondence, inventories of furniture, etc. She must see that the building is kept clean and well ventilated, and that the temperature is kept at 14 to 16 deg. Cent. in cold weather. The teaching materials must include: Pictures, collections of Froebel gifts, slates, coloured paper, etc. The Directrice must arrange everything tastefully, to inspire love of the beautiful in her pupils.

With regard to the games for developing the children's physical strength, they should be played out of doors whenever weather permits. They should consist of various movements of fingers, hands, arms, legs, and head; marching, jumping, and running; games to imitate labour and trade; all inspired, encouraged, and watched by the teacher.

Training of thoughtfulness, pronunciation, etc. This must come into every lesson and game throughout the day. Sometimes by means of special little stories about the family, food, clothes, houses; on domestic animals, birds, fishes, insects; on the vegetables in the garden, trees of the orchard, the flowers of the fields; on grains; talks about the seasons, etc. To-day it may be a story of courage; to-morrow a piece of poetry, new and full of feeling. Always it will be impressive words, as from a

mother who feels and loves, who slips some helpful thought into the mind, or right feeling into the heart, at the same time helping the child to express and translate its own impressions, and the result of its observations.

There is a long account of the Froebel system in the code issued by the State. To oblige most of the parents, the teacher of the Ecole-Gardienne has often to teach reading and writing to her most advanced children. Half an hour a day should be enough for them. In arithmetic they will have learnt the first ten numbers by means of little sticks, cubes, etc. These can be taken up to 20; but it will be well to resist the temptation of taking the children on too far, and so losing the character of the Ecole-Gardienne.

At the time of this circular the schools were entirely known as Ecoles-Gardiennes. They are now often called "Jardins d'Enfants." There is no practical working difference between the two, although the latter have been described as "Les Ecoles-Gardiennes perfectionnées."

#### TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR ECOLES GARDIENNES.

A special examination for teachers of these schools was instituted in 1898, and holds good to-day (see *Appendix H*). In this year the Minister of Public Instruction issued the following circular:—

"I have much pleasure in sending you the new rules for the examination of teachers of Ecoles-Gardiennes, instituted by Royal decree, June 17th, 1898. This examination will take place in September, 1899, for the first time. It will include a preliminary test, followed by a Froebelian course at the Training College, and a final test of an essentially practical nature. Those only will be admitted to the Froebelian course and to the final test who have succeeded in the preliminary. The final test will be exclusively on educational methods. The training course will last three weeks; it will chiefly deal with the theory of education and its application to Froebel methods. At the time of their entrance and the examination the candidates must state whether they wish to be questioned on religion and *morale*, or on *morale* only. In the first case they must submit to an examination conducted by an examiner chosen by the head of that denomination to which they may belong, and their certificate will state that this examination has been satisfactory. The candidates taking only *morale* will be questioned by the Committee."

The following are the rules concerning examinations for *certificats de capacité* to be passed by all candidates wishing to teach in Belgian Ecoles-Gardiennes, whether Communal or otherwise, as issued by the Minister of Public Instruction. They strike one as being somewhat extensive for the teachers of children under six years old:—

"All candidates must be seventeen, and healthy. Two Committees will undertake the preliminary tests—one dealing with those candidates who speak Flemish or German, the other with

those who wish to be examined in French. Each Committee is composed of an honorary Inspector of Primary Education, who fulfils the duties of President, and of three members chosen from the staff of the Communal Froebelian Training Colleges. The preliminary examination deals chiefly with *la langue maternelle*."

The general idea underlying the programme is this—that the *certificat de capacité* should supply a guarantee that she who possesses it possesses also a general education as broad and substantial as that possessed by candidates for primary schools; knowledge, both clear and precise, of moral precepts and "savoir-faire" included in the programme of 1885 for training schools; some knowledge of general hygiene and school hygiene; knowledge derived from principles and rules of general educational methods, which may serve as a basis and guide for infant education; and, finally, some practical skill in the teaching of exercises and games, as set forth in the programme of Jardins d'Enfants, August, 1890 (*see Appendix K*).

#### COMMUNAL JARDINS D'ENFANTS IN BRUSSELS.

*Brussels* has fourteen Jardins d'Enfants, free, and not compulsory, containing 3,324 children, while there are twenty-five Ecoles-Gardiennes distributed among the ten suburbs. These are all free, and receive grants from State and Commune. In addition to these, there are thirty-five Ecoles-Gardiennes in the town and suburbs in private hands, either adopted or subsidised by the Commune, and twenty private paying schools, receiving no grant; so that in all there are in Brussels nearly 100 schools for children between three and six. Their object and organisation was thus set forth by the Commune of Brussels in 1902:—

"It is of supreme importance for a town which includes a considerable population of the working classes to have a thorough organisation of Jardins d'Enfants. The Jardin d'Enfants is the foundation of the primary school; without it popular education lacks a basis, and is defective from the beginning. When the primary school is not preceded by the Jardin d'Enfants, it receives only too often a crowd of weakly children, stunted, coarse, brought up in dirty basements, and already corrupted by wandering about the streets.

"The Jardin d'Enfants should supplement both materially and intellectually the inadequacy of those parents who are incapable of watching over the early development, both moral and physical, of their young children. It should help large families, and this help would be much more efficacious than the slender allowances granted by the Charity Bureau. But, so that the Jardin d'Enfants should successfully fulfil its calling, it must be organised according to the Froebel method: that is to say, it ought to be in a place where intelligence, moral sense, and physical powers can be cultivated rationally, and where a close observation of each child is possible. The Jardin d'Enfants has, therefore, to fulfil part of a mother's duty. It is not a school in the

ordinary sense of the word ; it is not for the purpose of teaching but of developing the intelligence of children by calling out their creative faculties and giving them impressions that they could not receive in the sordid and barren neighbourhoods from which they come. By a graduated series of games, exercises, occupations, of talks, both moral and instructive, the children are led to notice, to understand rightly, to acquire correct ideas, to interest themselves in their surroundings ; they are led to observe, to express themselves clearly, and to develop their inventive and creative faculties ; so that it is possible to show them the necessity for order and cleanliness, and to give them a taste for work and love of right, the triple basis of all æsthetic and moral education. The occupations in the Jardin d'Enfants should not be chosen for their value as acquirements, but rather for the means they offer of leading children to observe, to think, and to express their ideas. Children must be drawn out of the intellectual stupor produced by ignorance. Any excitement produced by artificial means must be carefully avoided ; it is not by tickling a child one should produce laughter. Joy, like curiosity, should be the result of natural expansion of the whole being, happiness in living and interest in the novelty of outside things.

"The '*Jardinière*' should try to overcome the natural egoism of the child by giving it opportunities of being kind and good-natured to its companions ; at the same time she will be able to transform the rude ways that it brings from the streets to pleasant and courteous manners. The site should be chosen with a view to the children spending the greater part of the day out of doors during the fine weather, for the most important point of all is to keep the children in vigorous health, so that they may be able to resist the unwholesome influences to which they are too often exposed in home life. To ensure this, scrupulous cleanliness is essential, and parents must be sternly ordered to change the children's linen at least twice a week.

"In order that the Jardin d'Enfants should supply the primary school with well-prepared children, the *Jardinières* should be thoroughly permeated with the spirit of the Froebel methods, so as not to make a confused compromise between the Jardin d'Enfants and the school proper. An intelligent application of this method implies a certain amount of culture ; it is not, therefore, too much to ask of the *Jardinière* that she shall possess the diploma of the primary teacher and that she shall have successfully followed a course of training in Froebel methods.

"The Jardins should not admit too large a number of children, they will be better scattered about the town, so that the children should not have too far to go. The regulations of the Jardins d'Enfants should be very humane, but not enervating ; the children must be taught to rely on themselves, to bear with little inconveniences caused by their own folly or awkwardness ; to manage for themselves. In all these things they should be led with a gentle but firm hand. The pupils of the upper division should work as much as possible for those in the lower classes

so as to acquire the feeling of sympathy and brotherhood that should unite all mankind. They will thus feel the satisfaction of being useful, which all children love; they will taste the joy of work and of devoting themselves to those who are weaker than themselves, a feeling which is at the root of the great law of love and charity, to which we attribute the superiority of modern society to that of ancient times. With the system of small schools, it will no longer be necessary to place a Directrice at the head of each Jardin; the principal *Jardinière* will act as *Jardinière-en-Chef*; she will supervise the whole establishment, maintain discipline among the teaching staff, and arrange the time-table.

"The educational functions will be undertaken by an Inspectrice; she will be responsible for the occupations, for the observation and strict application of the Froebel system. It is unnecessary to add that discipline, cleanliness, and the upkeep of material do not come under her control.

"At intervals decided by the *Echevin*, the Inspectrice will summon the teaching staff to a conference, when model '*causeries*' will be given, and types of exercises performed suitable for the Jardins d'Enfants.

"We hope in this way to keep up a constant spirit of progress among our *Jardinières*, and to prevent them from falling into a mechanical routine of instruction. We shall institute a School Committee for each Jardin. For these we hope to count upon the help of the ladies of Brussels. How can they better employ their time and natural charity than by watching over the education of these poor children? How often will it be in their power to give useful advice to the mothers, and soften the sufferings of ignorance! They should be our fellow-workers in the great scheme of civilisation that we are following; it is above all they who can become links between the rich and the poor, between the ignorant and the educated classes. Our country, happily, knows nothing of those caste hatreds which so cruelly separate the rich and poor of other lands. May all those women favoured by fortune realise that we depend on their charity and devotion to the interests of the people to maintain this happy condition of things."

Such is the introduction to each copy of rules and regulations for use in the Communal Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels. Before giving the regulations of these schools, it will be well to give the general moral principles which are printed for every teacher giving lessons in Brussels.

#### INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS ON THE MORAL TRAINING OF CITIZENS.

The teacher will gain inspiration for the moral training of her pupils from the following general principles. She must grasp every opportunity, and create occasions for drawing the child's attention to the following points in a forcible way, by simple reasoning on homely incidents and familiar deeds:—

*I. Duty Towards Oneself.* — Duty of self-preservation. Hygiene. Cleanliness. Temperance. Happiness produced by

work. Order, economy. Moderation in dress. Saving, moral advantages of saving. Duty of self-instruction and improvement. Power of "self-help." Prudence. Respect of truth. Reverence for the given word. Courage. Personal dignity. Honour.

*II. Duty Towards the Family.*—Family happiness. Economy as a means of procuring funds necessary to start a home. Mutual help. Foresight. Duty of children towards their parents. Filial love; respect; obedience; help; blameworthy behaviour of children who refuse to help their parents. Mutual interdependence of the family. Harmony between masters and servants, between employers and workers.

*III. Duty Towards Mankind.*—

(a) Duties of Justice.—They are included in this fundamental maxim: "Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you." Respect for the life of others. Condemnation of murder. Respect for the liberty of others. Respect for property, monuments, and public gardens. Binding character of promises and contracts. Theft and fraud. Duty of restoring things wrongly acquired, and of repairing the wrong done to another. Respect for the honour and reputation of others. Calumny, defamation, and slander. Respect for opinions and beliefs. Liberty of conscience; tolerance.

(b) Duties of Charity.—The duties of charity are summed up in these maxims: "Love thy neighbour as thyself," and "Do unto others as you would they should do unto you." The duties of charity are binding on each of us according to the measure of our possessions. Well-doing. Begging. Help to poor children (education, work). Devotion and sacrifice. Kindness to animals.

*IV. Rights and Civic Duties.*—Love of country. The nation is a large family. Defence of native land. Reverence for national flag. Respect for the constitution. Obedience to laws; respect due to public authorities. Love of country does not exclude sympathy with other peoples, nor love of Humanity.

ORGANISATION OF JARDINS D'ENFANTS IN BRUSSELS.

The Time Table and educational instructions are arranged by the College of Burgomaster and Aldermen in conformity with the general rules of August 16th, 1879, and the provisions of September 15th, 1880.

*Conditions of Admission.*—Parents who wish to send children to a Jardin d'Enfants must produce a declaration from the *police sanitaire*; another stating the age of the child; its home and the profession of its parents, and a doctor's certificate, stating that the child has been vaccinated. Attendance is free for all children living in the Commune from three to six years old, whose parents desire it. Children before coming to school must be washed and their hair brushed and combed, they must each have a clean handkerchief, and besides this every Monday and Thursday they must put on clean linen. Children remaining to dinner at school must bring a basket with their food and a mug.

*Hours of Opening.*—The Jardins d'Enfants are open from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. All children must be present at 8.45, when the classes begin. Those who remain to dinner are placed under the care of a teacher appointed for the purpose. No child may be dismissed without leave of the College (Burgomaster and *Echevins*).

*Holidays.*—The holidays are: Sunday, Thursday afternoons, November 1st and 15th, Ascension Day, Whit Monday, Holy Thursday (afternoon), July 21st, September 23rd. The longer vacations are arranged as follows:—From December 25th to January 2nd inclusive; from the Thursday before Easter to the second Monday after Easter inclusive; from August 1st to September 15th. (In practice the summer holidays in these schools vary somewhat.) *Classes de vacances* are held in a few schools.

*Staff.*—The *Jardinière-en-Chef* is responsible for the general supervision of the Jardin. She must see that strict order and perfect cleanliness prevail throughout the whole establishment. She must give lessons each day in different divisions of the Jardin. She must keep the following registers: one containing, in chronological order, all the communications addressed to her by the College; a register in which she enters the Christian and surnames of the children, the date and place of birth, the name of the medical officer who has signed the certificate of vaccination; the name and occupation of parent or guardian; the homes of these last; and special observations. Also a register of attendance in which the *Jardinières* sign their names every day on their arrival at the school. This register is checked by the *Jardinière-en-Chef* as soon as the admission bell sounds. She must also keep an inventory of school properties and a book of orders. During the first three days of every quarter the *Jardinière-en-Chef* sends a report on the condition of her school in the preceding quarter to the Bureau of Public Instruction, stating the number of vacancies and any absences or irregularities of her staff. On July 1st each year she must send a report to the Inspectrice on her management, on the attendance of her pupils together with the statement of any interesting facts. Also on July 1st she should inform the Communal Administration of any repairs or alterations that ought to be done during the holidays. She must not be absent without leave from the College (Burgomaster and *Echevins*). She ought to arrive the first and leave the last in the school she rules. The *Jardinière-en-Chef* can, in case of emergency, grant a day's leave to a member of the staff, but she must at once notify the same to the Bureau of Public Instruction. She receives from 2,000 francs to 3,500 francs a year. On retiring she gets a pension consisting of three-fifths of her salary calculated on the last three years of her service. *Jardinières* (1st class) receive 1,700 to 2,000 francs. *Jardinières* of the 2nd class receive 1,300 to 1,600 francs. Assistants receive 1,000 francs to 1,200 francs. Supply teachers receive 1,000 francs.

Except in special cases the salaries rise 100 francs every two years for those receiving from 1,000 to 1,600 francs. The post of *Jardinière* of the 1st class may be obtained, under favourable circumstances, after 15 years of service. The rise of salaries from 1,700 to 2,000 francs is 100 francs every three years. In the 14 Communal Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels there are 14 *Jardinières-en-Chef*, 35 *Jardinières* of the 1st class, 44 *Jardinières* of the 2nd class, and 16 *Assistant-Jardinières*, altogether, with the *Inspectrice*, 110 teachers. The 14 schools when full hold 3,400 children, thus giving the proportion roughly as one teacher to 30 children. But, in these special schools, instead of rigidly adhering to one teacher in each room, there is some interchanging. For instance, for building or plaiting, folding or drawing, several teachers will be drafted into one room, leaving a large number of children to do free games outside under one teacher. Thus perhaps for a quarter of an hour there will be four teachers in one room to 40 children, in order to give individual attention.

The teaching staff is required to be at the school 15 minutes before the classes begin. One of the teachers is specially selected to take care of the children who come at 8 o'clock in the morning. Teachers are strictly forbidden to receive any presents from parents, to be absent without leave from the College, or to do any other work beside the school work. They are each required to take the temperature of their rooms, and notify the same on a card printed for the purpose. From 16° to 18° Cent. is the rule. Every week the card, signed by the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, is sent to the Bureau of Hygiene.

Besides the teaching staff there is a *femme de service* attached to each school. She takes her orders entirely from the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, to whom she owes respect and obedience. She is responsible for the children's physical requirements, for the cleanliness of the children and the school, and she must assist in any accidental emergency that may arise. Before and after class hours she must open the windows to air the rooms, and close them carefully. She must light the fires an hour before the arrival of the children, and keep them up.

The salaries of the whole staff working in the 14 Communal Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels amount to 195,800 francs. This is paid by the Communal Administration of Brussels. The sum is exclusive of concierges, supply, and unattached teachers. The Budget estimate for 1908 for these salaries amounts to 263,300 francs for the Jardins d'Enfants (14); for the salaries of teachers engaged in elementary education the estimate for 1908 is 1,522,450 francs (21 schools, 13,812 scholars, 546 teachers).

*Care of Children by Staff.*—Every day before the classes begin the *Jardinières* ask to see pocket-handkerchiefs: they must see that the children's stockings are well drawn up, their shoes tied and cleaned. They specially see that the children are clean; that the boys' hair is closely cut, and the girls' carefully brushed. If they find the children dirty, they may have them washed by the *femmes de service*. The nice appearance of the children must

be closely attended to. A quarter of an hour before going home the *Jardinières* review the children, to see that they are perfectly clean and in good order. If, after constant warnings from the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, the parents persist in keeping their child dirty and disorderly, the *Jardinière-en-Chef* may ask the College to send a formal warning to the parents. If this remains unheeded, the College then dismisses the child from the school. Every day during the winter soup is given to the children whose parents ask for it. (*See below.*) It is strictly forbidden to strike any child; the children must be always gently reprimanded.

*School Committees.*—Each Jardin d'Enfant (Communal) in Brussels has its special School Committee. These Committees are a help to the Communal Administration, and should greatly assist in making known to the parents the benefits of instruction. Their chief duties are: to follow the lessons and to signify to the Communal Administration anything that concerns the execution of the Code, any improvements in the curriculum, and the position of the *Jardinières*. They must find out children who do not come to school, use their influence with parents to send their children regularly, and communicate with Charitable Committees with this end in view; they must see that the care and discipline of the school is continued as much as possible at home. Members of this Committee are chosen wherever practicable from people living in the neighbourhood of the school.

The *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* is an ex-officio member of every school Committee, but the Presidency is always left to one of the lady members; he may always delegate Mme. l'Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants to replace him on the Committee. In cases of difficulty, the voice of the President is supreme; but mention must be made of this in the minutes. The Committee elect their secretary annually. The College has entire control over these School Committees. Each of these Committees is composed of a lady president and four to six ladies, and there are 14 such Committees in Brussels. The annual report of the Communal Council for 1907 gives this tribute to their work:—

“The ladies of the School Committees continue to surround the Jardins d'Enfants with their enlightened as well as generous care. We owe them our most hearty gratitude. Meses. S. Speyer and Hanman, who have been members of School Committees for 25 years, have just been decorated with a civic medal of the First Class.”

*Clothing.*—Out of the 3,323 children between three and six attending the 14 Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels, no less than 2,628 received substantial gifts of clothing during the year 1906-7. These were made and contributed by various societies, including the School Committees (who contributed 233 complete outfits and 5,449 various garments), Philanthropic Societies—“Le Denier des Jardins d'Enfants,” “La Violette,” “La Gazette”—and by various philanthropic ladies. Besides this the pupils and staff of the Training College

of Teachers and some High School girls also gave presents of clothing made by themselves to the children of the Jardins d'Enfants. One of these schools visited by me, containing 200 children, had received during the past year 161 complete outfits and 1,039 garments, entirely from private charities. No grants are given for clothing from State, Province, or Commune to the Jardins d'Enfants. (*See Appendix J.*)

*Toys and other Gifts.*—Besides these clothes the children of these 14 schools received in money 451 francs, and vast quantities of bon-bons and fruits. A few children under six were sent for country holidays, but the rule in all the holiday societies precludes children under six.

*Feeding.*—A large number of children are fed daily in these schools. Some are given soup all the year round, most only have it from November to May. Some pay 1d., others have it free. A free list is printed up in each class-room, from which names are crossed out as the parents become able to contribute. There are no statistics to show the proportion of children staying to dinner, but I visited several schools at dinner-time, and found about 50-60 children out of about 250 having soup at 11.30. The soup was mostly cooked by the concierge in a large vessel on the gas stove; it was made by boiling together potatoes, tapioca, vegetables, and beef for two hours, and it cost about 4 francs for over 100 children.

Though it was not by any means the general rule, in a great many cases the scholars of the Cours Menagère served the children's dinners in the Jardins d'Enfants. The children sat at long tables in their class-rooms, a cloth was laid, mugs and spoons were placed for them, and four or six girls carried in the hot soup and ladled it out to the children. The Directrice was always present, but the Institutrice of the Cours Menagère superintended the meal. In cases where meat and potatoes were served afterwards the girls of the Cours Menagère had to cut it up for the children. The soup is given by private societies, with a grant from the Commune in most cases. The statistics do not separate the schools, but the grant given last year to "l'Œuvre de la Soupe Scolaire" was 10,000 francs for the Communal Schools. Various societies give money towards feeding the children, especially during the winter months. It may be mentioned that in a great many class-rooms water is kept for the children to drink at any time.

A gracious acknowledgment of all the gifts and contributions to the Jardins d'Enfants is made in the annual report by the "Conseil Communal," ending, "We thank most heartily all contributors for the joy and benefits they have brought into our Ecoles-Gardiennes."

*Communal Inspection.*—One Inspectrice, at a salary of 4,800 francs, paid by the Commune of Brussels, superintends the education of the Jardins d'Enfants in conformity with the Code and the instructions of the College. She sees that the programme arranged by the Communal Administration is carried out, she directs the applica-

tion in strict conformity with the Froebel method, as it has been decided by the College. Her inspection covers the whole material part of the establishment. At regular intervals the Inspectrice calls her teachers together in a Conference appointed by the *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* (the Town Councillor specially charged with the oversight of primary education). These Conferences practically take place twice a year, and there are usually over 100 teachers present. To encourage originality and initiative in her teaching staff Mme. Destrée, Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants, in the course of these conferences calls on teachers individually to explain any new game they may have invented for their children, to illustrate any story they may have told, to show any new designs evolved by themselves or their pupils, to go through any new action song that has been specially successful. If the new experiment appears sufficiently meritorious it is adopted by the others.

The Inspectrice arranges a Time Table for each class in conformity with the general provisions of the rules of 1879. *Jardiniers-en-Chef* of Jardins d'Enfants are under the Inspectrice, and must follow as closely as possible every instruction given by her. She makes an annual report to the *Echevin de l'Instruction Publique* on the progress of the children and the teaching staff. Madame Destrée lectures on Froebel teaching at the Training College to those who are training for Jardins d'Enfants. The relations between Madame Destrée and her teachers are most harmonious; she visits every school at least once a fortnight unexpectedly. She has a small office at one of the schools in Brussels, and is always to be found there on Mondays for consultation in cases of difficulty. Letters can be addressed there. And it may be interesting to note that she has been writing a book on the subject of infant education for the past two years, which she hopes to finish this year. She is making many interesting experiments on the subject of reading for young children, and has come to the conclusion that it is better for the child not to begin to read at all till it is six and passes into the Primary school. Madame Kergomard, Inspectrice-Generale des Ecoles-Maternelles, Paris, who has recently talked over the subject with Madame Destrée, thinks five years old the right age to begin. Considerable development has evidently taken place in these schools under the guidance of Madame Destrée; several countries have sent delegates to learn her methods, and to study the organisation of these Jardins d'Enfants. One of these visitors wrote to Mme. l'Inspectrice afterwards: "I often think of the bright and fresh garden that I visited with you. In my whole long career I have never been so impressed with the absence of artificiality as I have been in your schools. These children, who cry out '*Bonjour*' to you, who call you to see what they have made, who seem so truly pleased to see you, remind me of my nephews and nieces when they were small welcoming me into their playroom. This is indeed a philanthropic work, and, better still, you can create and multiply similar places."

The annual report of the Conseil Communal pays a high tribute to the devoted work of Mme. l'Inspectrice.

*State Inspection.*—All Ecoles-Gardiennes in receipt of Government grant are under State Inspection. There are head Inspectors and district Inspectors, who inspect all three classes of schools, Communal, Adopted and Private (adoptable). Conferences are held once a year.

*Medical Inspection.*—This has only been organised for the Communal schools in Brussels since February, 1906, when a small pamphlet was issued setting forth the system of inspection by doctors. The rules came into force on April 1st, 1906. Seven doctors were appointed by the College (Communal Administration, 6th Division), one being called the Principal Doctor. Each of these was given a division and made responsible for from six to eight schools. These included the 14 Jardins d'Enfants, 21 Primary schools, four Crèches, two Secondary schools, four professional, two Cours Ménagères, one orphanage, and two Cours d'éducation. A list of schools and the name of the Doctor attending, with his address, was printed and circulated among the 50 establishments to be medically inspected. Two visits a month were required in each of the Primary schools, Jardins d'Enfants and Crèches. These visits were to bear on the hygienic conditions of different parts of the schools (class rooms, halls, gymnasiums, lavatories, etc). Reports were to be made on the state of cleanliness and healthy condition of the children generally. Heads of schools and crèches were asked to point out to the doctors at each visit children with defective sight, special affection of the eyes, nose or ears, suspected adenoids (see *Appendix M*) and those who could not follow their lessons with satisfactory results. In addition to such specially selected cases, the doctor was required to examine the children of one or two classes, so that, at the end of the school year, each child should have been individually examined. The physical and mental condition of the child should be examined, and any symptoms requiring immediate attention noted. In this latter case, the Directrice must summon the parents and repeat at once the doctor's orders, so that the child may be taken to a hospital or receive further advice at once. In no case shall the doctor visiting the school undertake the treatment.

The authorities urge both doctor and Directrice, as well as other members of the staff, to exercise a maternal foresight, so that the parents may be warned in time, and the child saved from developing a disease which care and immediate attention might prevent. If the doctors' warnings are neglected by parents, steps will be taken to ensure attention. Various cards, sheets and registers have to be filled up by the doctors; one regarding the sanitary condition of the school, lighting, warming, etc., with an order for the child to have medicine given at the school if necessary. (Originally, cod-liver oil was given to sickly children, but in November, 1906, during winter, emulsion of hypophosphites was substituted.) The

card to be filled up by the doctor on the mental and physical condition of the child (*see Appendix G*) requires some explanation. It was only issued May, 1907, accompanied by the following elaborate explanatory circular: "The teacher's mission is to look after the general culture of new pupils. It is as much her duty to watch over their physical education as over their mental and moral training. Elaborating this thought, Féré has said: 'It is not the brain alone which is developing but the whole organism becomes active.' The physical condition of a child influences considerably its capacity for work. Often enough when we find a child idle or uncontrolled, stupid or wild, it may mean we have a little sick child to tend. Such a child is often naughty when nervous trouble prevents it from learning or behaving as well as its companions. It is most important for the Directrice to realise fully the physical condition of her pupils at the end of the school year. With this knowledge it will be much easier to adapt their lessons to their temperament, their character and disposition. There will be less risk of falling into the mistake of burdening them with tasks injurious to their particular constitution. The health card which we now present to the school is intended to draw their attention to many interesting points; their height, their weight, revaccination, previous acute illnesses; the state of their eyes, ears, mouth, heart, lungs, nervous system, according to the statements made by the school doctor. From all these statements together she will be able to decide whether the child should be given preventive medicines, if it should have soup at school, how much gymnastic work it is fit for, and if it ought to be sent into the country (*colonie scolaire*). The entries on the health card are entirely left to the devoted and intelligent efforts of the school doctor and the Directrice. Measurements can be taken by the Directrice. Children should be measured with bare feet and weighed with a minimum of clothing, preferably in the morning. The curves of growth and of weight are traced in red on the card, according to the average adopted by Quetelet. The height and weight of the child should be marked by the Directrice by means of a black line in the column arranged for this. It will be easy in this way to discover whether the height and weight of the child are above or below the average of Quetelet. *Any check in the development of height or weight often means a morbid condition and particular need of careful watching.* It warns us nearly always that there is need of extra feeding and sending into the open air. The health card will be kept by the Directrice. It will follow the child through every class through which it passes. It will often be consulted by the Directrice, so that she can tactfully suggest measures to the parents by which they can build up the health of their child. The health card must always preserve its confidential character, while the report only makes mention of such facts that can be known to everyone, without annoyance to the child or its relations. It will be, for all the teachers, a certain guide to knowing which children to select specially for

the doctor; their task will be greatly facilitated. These cards have been put in force for the children of the Primary schools of the 1st year from September 15th, 1907. In the Jardins d'Enfants there must be a health card for every child."

As some confusion still prevailed about measuring and weighing the children, yet another circular appeared on October 7th, 1907: "For measuring, it is sufficient to take off the child's boots; for weighing, the clothes need not all be taken off, but note made of those that are kept on. In those schools possessing bains-douches, the children can be weighed when they come out of the bath. The question of medical examination must be left to the discretion of the doctor. It must take place before the Directrice, in a well-warmed room, and not in the presence of other children. If the nature of the examination should render it necessary to undress the child completely, the Directrice can postpone the examination, if she thinks it wiser, till she has the parents' leave." A few medicines are kept by the concierge, who administers them to the children when they arrive in the mornings, according to doctors' orders. These medicines are supplied free by the Commune.

*Infection.*—With regard to infection, there are very stringent rules. The whole teaching staff are furnished with pamphlets describing all the common infectious complaints of childhood, with their early symptoms. (*See Appendix N.*) Dentists have visited the elementary schools for the past 25 years, each school being inspected twice a year, but there is little to do in the Jardins d'Enfants, so the statistics need not be given here. Hygiene is carefully taught to the girls of the Elementary schools at the Cours Menagère.

#### GENERAL CURRICULUM IN JARDINS D'ENFANTS.

The children in these schools are divided somewhat strictly into three divisions; children aged from three to four, four to five, and five to six. In the 14 schools there are 1,075 children in the 1st division, 981 in the second, and 1,267 in the 3rd. The teaching is entirely according to Froebel. But, it is hardly necessary to add, there are many ways of applying Froebel, and the methods used in these schools are free and intelligent. The result is that the children are bright, happy and natural; they are forthcoming and friendly, extremely conversational, and talk a pure language, with clear enunciation. Every child is clean, its hair well brushed, and boys and girls all wear pinafores; the children appeared vigorous and healthy, and seemed thoroughly at ease in their surroundings. They laughed heartily at some of their "*Causerie*" lessons, and were never checked. Mme. Kergomard's words: "A child ought to laugh as a bird ought to sing," have unconsciously become true for these schools. A great deal has depended on the teachers, and Mme. Destrée's influence here is apparent, and warmly acknowledged by those she has helped and is helping daily by wise criticism, encouragement, and suggestion. Never-

theless the entire materialism of the whole curriculum strikes one somewhat grievously. The commercial tendency of all education in Brussels is pronounced even in the baby schools of the Commune.

Shortly summed up, their occupations are as follows. A more lengthy and detailed time-table will be found in *Appendix K.*

	1st Div. 3-4.	2nd Div. 4-5.	3rd Div. 5-6.
<b>Substances :—</b>			
1st Gift.—The Balls - - - - -	2	-	-
2nd Gift.—Sphere, Cylinder, and Cubes -	1	-	-
3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th.—Construction - -	3	4	3
<b>Surfaces :—</b>			
Flat Tablets - - - - -	1	2	2
Counters - - - - -	1	1	-
Folding - - - - -	-	2	2
Pricking Cards - - - - -	-	-	2
Cutting out - - - - -	-	-	2
<b>Lines :—</b>			
Weaving - - - - -	2	2	2
Laths - - - - -	2	3	-
Iron Rings and Sticks - - - - -	-	-	1
Plaiting, Interlacing - - - - -	1	3	2
Coloured Laths - - - - -	-	1	1
Designing - - - - -	2	2	3
Rings - - - - -	-	1	-
<b>Points :—</b>			
Embroidery - - - - -	-	1	1
Sand-modelling - - - - -	2	1	2
Beads - - - - -	2	2	2
Little Talks - - - - -	3	3	3
<b>Occupations - - - - -</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>28</b>

#### GENERAL PLAN OF EDUCATION.

Such is the crude outline of the Froebelian system as used throughout Belgium. Before detailing the scheme it will be well to show how this precedes the general plan of education in that country. The concentric character of education in Belgium appears from the very beginning, *i.e.*, at the *Jardins d'Enfants*. There is no question here of education, but of an harmonious whole of exercises calculated to cultivate the physical, intellectual, and moral faculties of little children from the age of three, so that, on reaching the school age of six, they may be able profitably to follow the lessons of the elementary school. Each exercise has a special object which appears in each of the three divisions—the first, inculcation; the second and third, strengthening and extending in proportion to the development of the child's faculties. A notion, taught in its simplest form in the first and second years of study, reappears

in the third year with an increasing wealth of connected ideas. The professional tendency appears at the very beginning. Construction with little sticks and cubes, exercises of folding, plaiting, and modelling give the children manual dexterity, exact notion of size, combinations and special shapes, all of which they will find again in the Primary school, where the education is strongly characterised by this professional tendency.

Again, from the time-table in *Appendix K*, it will be readily seen that a direct relationship is established between observation and elocution exercises on the one hand and manual occupation on the other. From this succession of exercises it naturally follows that for the child notion is associated with its expression by means of words, always strengthened by adequate manual occupation requiring application of mind and action of the senses. The motto of the Belgians is "Schools for Life."

#### LEAVES FROM THE NOTE-BOOK OF A DIRECTRICE.

*Monday, January 4th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Construction.* Children have had 18 lessons on third and fourth gifts. (N.B.—Third gift is a box containing a 2-inch cube equally divided into eight cubes, 1 cubic inch each. Fourth gift, box containing a cube divided into eight solid oblongs, 2 inches long, 1 inch broad,  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch thick.) Third and fourth gifts together for first time. Show children how to make artistic shape with cubes and oblongs; afterwards encourage them to make their own choice of combinations quite alone. Illustrate.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game.* Throwing balls into a basket placed in the middle of the circle.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Interlacing.* Band of paper folded into three, squares interlaced at corners, leads to formation of star. (Children have had 12 lessons on interlacing.)
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics.* Bending and extension of arms in front.
- 11 to 11.30.—*Little Talk.* On second gift. General appearance of gift, it includes three substances, of which two are known. Do not give name of cylinder yet. The sphere resembles ball in shape, it has a round surface. Find round object in class-room, and then from ordinary life.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games.* Skipping rope, to jump three times and run away.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Weaving in paper.* 2 and 2, 1 and 1, 2 and 1. Inventions and combinations.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Counters and Sticks.* Union of coloured counters and sticks, to construct an artistic shape with eight counters, four red and four blue, and eight sticks.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Games.* Balls or toys.

*Tuesday, January 5th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Tablets*. Blue and red. Two children work together. Each partner can place two tablets of his own choice to help in the process of making an artistic shape out of four tablets. (Children have had 12 lessons.)
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. "The Little Shoemaker" (action song).
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. An ornamental design with sticks of two lengths.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. Throwing balls into a box.
- 11 to 11.30.—*1st Gift*. (A set of six worsted balls, primary and secondary colours with strings and crossbeam. Froebel's first gift for babies.) Balls of two colours; violet is made from blue and red. Exercise, turning a disc formed by sections of blue and red.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games*. Throwing balls against the wall.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Beads*. Chains with two strings, bead baskets, etc., for the older children.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Little Sticks*, the number 7 (children have had eleven lessons taking the numbers 1 to 7). Sticks arranged by children in patterns of 7.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Games*.

*Wednesday, January 6th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Construction*. Two working together, common forms. Children will build a bridge under which trains—some passenger, some goods—will pass.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. Children jumping two together to music.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Laths*. Three laths placed horizontally on three others placed vertically and interlaced. The ornament thus obtained lends itself to various modifications, which may be left to the initiative of the child.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. To cultivate sound.
- 11 to 11.30.—*2nd Gift*. (Box containing sphere, cylinder, and two cubes.) Cylinder in relation to two first substances. The substances compared. Points of resemblance.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Games*. India-rubber ball, first against wall and second into basket.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Folding*. Square folded three times. Construct a sailing-ship. Talk about ships and sailing.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Little Talk*. To enrich vocabulary we shall talk to-day about different qualities that may be attributed to different objects. (1) Hat. All not alike; they may be round, pointed, flat, large, narrow, small, etc. (2) Bread may be fresh, stale, round, square, hard, brown, white, etc. (This lesson amused the children greatly.)
- 3.45 to 4.—*Bowling Hoops*.

*Thursday, January 7th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Embroidery and Design*, following preceding combinations.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game* of horses, with song.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. Development of Tuesday, the 5th. A new design dictated, then developed by child at will.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Gymnastics*. To develop sound. Distinguish between sounds far and near, between wood, stone, and iron.
- 11 to 11.30.—*Cutting Out*. To cut a square into four equal isosceles triangles.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Game*. Dancing and simple jumping by means of ropes.

(Half-holiday.)

*Friday, January 8th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Little Talk*. Study second and third verses of "The Little Shoemaker." Explain and sing.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game* "The Little Shoemaker."
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Plaiting*. Strips of paper; four strips of different colours to make a new pattern.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Game*, abridged from "Prisoners' Base."
- 11 to 11.30.—*Construction*. Third and fourth gifts. A common object—piano; talk about it, then build.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Game*. Cat and mouse in middle—circle round.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Beads*. Bags and bracelets with two threads.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45. *Little Sticks*. More practice in number 7.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Games*.

*Saturday, January 9th.*

- 9 to 9.45.—*Tablets*. Geometric figures with eight tablets. Squares round a centre. Children working with both hands.
- 9.45 to 10.15.—*Game*. "The Wolf in the Wood." Song.
- 10.15 to 10.45.—*Design*. Free-arm drawing. Children draw outline of a poker after one has examined different parts.
- 10.45 to 11.—*Game*. The blind man—to exercise touch.
- 11 to 11.30.—*Plaiting*. All the children can spend their time in investigating patterns after formula 3 and 3, and 1 and 1 blended.
- 11.30 to 12.—*Game* of running. The sea is calm, agitated, stormy. They run slowly, then faster, and lastly, fast and loud.
- 2 to 2.45.—*Folding*. A hat with wings of rectangular shape.
- 2.45 to 3.15.—Free recreation.
- 3.15 to 3.45.—*Sand and Modelling*. Make balls of sand, different sizes, and set in rows according to size.
- 3.45 to 4.—*Game*. Skipping ropes.

It should be explained that during all these lessons the children are constantly moving about. They come out and point to the

figures on the blackboard, and they are allowed to stand up and speak when they like, without the discipline being too severe.

Moral lessons are also given in these schools, of which the following is a specimen. It is taken from Mme. Gremling's note-book, "The Charitable Child," illustrated by the teacher on the board. "Juliette was on her way to school. Mama had said to her: 'Run off, my child, be good, and work well.' Juliette carried her note-book in one hand, and in the other was her little basket, well filled for the mid-day meal, for the school was too distant to allow her to return to dinner. On her way, Juliette met a poor woman who led a ragged child by the hand. The child had very bad boots, and it was crying, perhaps from cold. Its mother went from door to door, asking alms, for she had no bread for her child. Little Juliette stopped, then without hesitating, she plunged her hand into her basket and drew out a slice of bread and jam and a large apple, which she gave to the poor child. Imagine the satisfaction of Juliette after this good deed, and the praise she received from her mother when she recounted her good action."

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The buildings of the Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels are specially adapted to small children, and built for the purpose. They contain three or four rooms, each holding about 50 children, on the ground floor. These rooms are high, light and airy; they are arranged with three or four narrow and polished tables, each accommodating about 20 children, 10 on each side. The children sit on low benches with backs in proportion to their size. (The rules for the construction of these rooms ordain cots in which children can be placed if overtaken with sleep, but practically there are none in these schools, nor any sort of accommodation for children to rest. It will be noted on reference to the time-table that there is no time for resting anywhere, and, indeed, I never saw a child asleep in the Brussels schools—a sight so familiar in our own baby-rooms.)

At the end of these class-rooms is a desk and chair for the teacher, and a blackboard. Round the rooms are low blackboards inset in panelling which is finished at the top with a narrow shelf on which stand specimens of the children's work. On these blackboards the children themselves draw with chalk. The pictures on the walls were for the most part French—moral subjects. There are no flowers or growing bulbs or seeds in the class-rooms.

A large hall forms the centre of all the new Jardins d'Enfants, where the children play, and often there is more than one. At a new and beautiful school in one of the suburbs, each class-room had its own hall on the opposite side of the passage. The hall has, invariably, a piano, which is much used for singing, marching, and action games. The walls of the hall are often made bright with objects procured for the children by the School Committees, the idea being that the children's curiosity may be

aroused by the sight of uncommon things, such as the children of the rich see in their houses. "The children are also encouraged to manufacture little things themselves for the decoration of the rooms they occupy; their little works will be exposed on the walls; they will begin to understand that nothing is done without trouble, and that satisfaction should always be gained at the expense of work."

A little passage with many low basins for the children to wash, clean towels and soap, leads out of the hall—sometimes into the garden. These gardens are well planted and mostly gravelled; in the paying Jardins d'Enfants each child has its own garden, but though the rules treat this as a necessity, practically it is not so. At one end of the garden are the children's offices. These are particularly well arranged, with low doors, so that one grown person can command them while they are entirely private to the children. As in the French schools, a *femme de service* attends to the children's needs.

There is a small bureau for the *Jardinière-en-Chef*, and rooms in the building for the concierge, who in some cases combines her other duties with that of *femme de service*.

#### Cost.

The cost of building a Jardin d'Enfants, with five class-rooms, is estimated at 125,000 francs. For warming apparatus, lighting, ventilating, and furnishing the same—9,000 francs. Towards this sum, the State usually gives one-third, the Province one-sixth, and the Ville half. In the last case referred to, the State and Province together gave 68,000 francs, the rest of the expense being borne by the Commune.

The upkeep of each school is shown in a table (*see Appendix E*). The total expenses (without building) of the Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels for 1907, amounted to 297,265 francs; the estimate for 1908 is 325,715 francs.

#### ECOLÉS-GARDIENNES IN THE SUBURBS OF BRUSSELS (Communal).

Of these there are 25 distributed among the 10 suburbs.

*St. Gilles*, containing 60,086 inhabitants in 1905, spent in 1907 a sum of 66,440 francs on one Jardin d'Enfants and three Ecoles-Gardiennes. Although the names are interchangeable in this case the 93 children attending the Jardin d'Enfants paid 40-60 francs a year, amounting in all to 3,400 francs; the Commune of *St. Gilles* paid 3,236 francs for this school per annum, the total expenses for the year being 6,636 francs.\* The Ecoles-Gardiennes, containing 1,140 children, cost 74,946 francs per annum. This sum includes salaries of staff, upkeep of buildings and furniture, warming, lighting, school materials, etc., but no construction or sites. Towards the expenses in 1907 the State gave a grant of 6,150 francs plus an extra grant

\* This sum includes 50 francs to a doctor in the Health Department of *St. Gilles*.

of 2,690 francs, the Province gave 2,607 francs, and the Commune 63,203 francs.

*Izelles.*—Population 70,649 in 1905, spent in 1907 a sum of 64,447 francs on seven Jardins d'Enfants. One of these charges fees, 3,000 francs being received per annum. The other six are attached to the elementary schools of the Commune. Towards these schools the State contributes 7,000 francs per annum, the Province 2,256 francs, the Commune 47,296 francs. The number of children frequenting these schools was not forthcoming.

*Molenbeek-St.-Jean.*—Population in 1905 was 64,619; spent 54,522 francs on six Ecoles-Gardiennes in 1907. These were attended by 1,389 children. The schools are all free. Three occupy buildings of their own, three are annexed to Primary schools. Towards the expenses the State gives 8,275 francs, the Province 1,631 francs, the Commune 43,363 francs. In addition to these there is a Jardin d'Enfants annexed to the High School for Girls, which charges fees. The parents' payments amount to 2,500 francs, the Commune gives 3,096 francs.

*Saint-Josse-ten-Noode.*—Population 33,563 in 1905, spent a sum of 20,940 francs on three Ecoles-Gardiennes, receiving towards this 2,500 francs from the State, 1,051 francs from the Province, and 16,677 francs from the Commune. This Commune has also two Jardins d'Enfants annexed to the Primary schools, and one attached to the High school. These all charge fees, and receive grants from State and Province.

*Schaerbeek*, 71,114 population in 1905, has six Ecoles Gardiennes. This Commune refuses to take children under four years old in these schools; it keeps them for two years before passing them on to the Primary schools. The authorities here have drawn up a very careful programme for the children, and spared no pains or money on their elementary education. Their newest Ecole-Gardienne (not including building), containing six class-rooms, six halls, and 254 children, costs 13,154 francs per annum, of which 11,690 francs are spent on salaries, and 660 francs on cleaning alone. The programme of the Ecoles-Gardiennes at Schaerbeek offers the following suggestions:—"The Ecole-Gardienne is but a means of preparing the child to benefit by primary instruction. Its object is to complete the maternal education of children of the working classes, who are seldom surrounded at home by that assiduous care which is required for the harmonious and regular development of organs and intellectual faculties. To develop the physique of these children by exercise and substantial nourishment (*see Appendix L*), and to contribute thus to ensuring them robust health; to educate the senses, to awaken the faculty of perception, and the spirit of observation; to encourage the instinct of imitation and the hatching of inventive powers; to teach the children, within possible limits, to express clearly their observations and opinions; to accustom them to cleanliness, order, politeness, activity, obedience, kindness towards animals; to inspire them with a love of truth and taste

for the beautiful; to make them good, amiable, generous, and merciful; to set them against alcoholic drinks, showing them the advantages of temperance and sobriety—such is the essentially human work confided to our teachers—'*jardinières*.'

"The methods to use are based on the natural laws which govern the physical, moral, and mental development of the child. This is what the genius of Froebel has created. It includes a graduated series of games, exercises, talks, songs, manual occupation, the harmonious blending of which vivifies all organs and powers. The principal rôle of the teacher '*gardienne*' consists in helping the spontaneous activity of her pupil at the right moment. To induce action by making opportunity and supplying an example and application, to throw a charm over the teaching by using the loving persuasions of a mother; this is her part. To succeed, she must avoid the mechanism of the methods, she must not dwell on exterior forms, she must not allow the teaching of work and occupations to become monotonous or apply things as detailed in a manual. She must be permeated with the spirit of the Froebel system; vary the lessons, talks, games; always invent new combinations, and finally lead the children to create for themselves by allowing them to be spontaneous and free."

On the subject of "Little Talks" the syllabus enlarges. There are to be practical talks illustrating the six Froebel gifts; talks about their homes, families, cooking utensils, ailments, parts of the human body, clothes, domestic animals; talks about the seasons of the year. Spring: Working in gardens, the first flowers, fruit trees, birds and their nests. Summer: Flowers and fruits, vegetables, insects, butterflies, bees, corn, wheat, etc. Autumn: Fruit, apples, pears, plums, etc., departure of birds. Winter: Ice, snow; firing, lighting. Talks on little objects brought to school by the children, cultivating their observation and research, accustoming them to arrange and classify; talks on pictures representing scenes from family life or familiar events. The teacher will encourage the children to ask questions, and listen to their explanations of the subjects represented. She will allow them to reproduce these pictures, observing their ideas of colour; talks on moral subjects. The teacher must make choice of a certain number of suitable stories which shall make children love their duties; she must tell the story with feeling, ask questions, and complete the lesson by homely remarks. It is advantageous to establish a relation between the little talks and the moral stories. If she can blend them well, if after the lesson that appeals to the senses and mind she turns to that which appeals to the heart, if the first leads quite naturally to the second, she will exercise a beneficial and enduring influence on the child, the result of this happy alternation.

The stories should not be out of a book; the intelligent teacher will note passing events, public or private, and use them to make interesting and varied stories. Children naturally love animals, the companions of their games—birds, insects, flowers,

all these are specially interesting. The little pieces of poetry that they should learn are just those which speak of these, and those which make duty appear easy and pleasant. Each little piece should be beautiful, and no efforts should be spared to make the children recite correctly and with expression. Everything that teaches pronunciation is of the first importance in the Jardins d'Enfants. Games are a necessity for children, they must move, run and jump—they are of the very first importance in the Ecoles-Gardiennes. Difference must be made between free games and gymnastic games. The games are watched by the teacher, she suggests and inspires, but gymnastic games have a healthy influence on the development of the body; they should imitate natural movements—the work of the labourer, the movements of animals, things, ships, trains, mills, always accompanied by music when possible. They should always be done out of doors when weather permits. But in bad weather there should be plenty of toys in the hall—balls, skipping-ropes, dolls, horses, boxes of bricks, tools, etc.

Whenever possible, the children should have little gardens of their own (this is possible in suburban schools), where they can garden with their own hands; in sowing seeds, watering and planting, the little pupils get a notion of botany and cultivation, they will learn to observe and love flowers and to appreciate manual labour. Indeed, gardening is such a healthy occupation for children that it should play a large part in the Jardins d'Enfants.

This syllabus, issued to all the teachers of Schaerbeek, adds to its general utility by appending a list of useful books on manual occupation, talks, recitations, songs, games, etc.

#### ECOLES-GARDIENNES IN BRUSSELS AND SUBURBS (Private).

There are 35 private Ecoles-Gardiennes, some of which are adopted and subsidised by the Commune. Several of these have crèches attached. For the most part the private schools visited by me were not in such good order as the Communal schools; they contained fewer children as a rule, and the children were less clean; few of them were fed. There were, of course, exceptions, but there were no special points worthy of note. They are mostly under Government, but not medical, inspection. It was impossible to discover how many children were in these private schools without going to each one, no statistics being published.

#### JARDINS D'ENFANTS AT LIÈGE (Town).

*Jardins d'Enfants (Communaux).*—Liège, with a population of 172,207 in 1905, has 20 Jardins d'Enfants accommodating 3,800 children. (The whole province of Liège has 228 Ecoles Gardiennes—113 Communal, 115 adopted—accommodating 20,224 children.) The annual cost of these 20 Jardins d'Enfants is 196,550 francs. Of this, the State pays 20,525 francs, the

Province 3,100 francs, and the Commune 154,828 francs. The staff consists of 84 teachers, or about one teacher to every 45 children. Their salaries are: One Directrice at 3,800 francs, 20 head mistresses at 1,600-1,800 francs, depending on length of service, 54 teachers receiving 1,300-1,600 francs, and nine receiving 1,000-1,200 francs. They all have to undergo a special course of training, lasting two years at the Training College at Liège, on the Froebel methods. This course includes the following subjects: The elements of education and method generally, including the history of education, principally in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries; special methods applied to the Jardins d'Enfants; accurate knowledge of the Froebel methods; instructive exercises for the Jardins d'Enfants; infant hygiene; the French language; arithmetic; geography of Belgium, and notions of general geography; elementary national history; the first elements of natural history; geometry and design; singing and gymnastics.

Thirty-three pupils completed the course in 1905. Froebel method was introduced into the Liège schools in 1861, and is flourishing vigorously there to-day. The Directrice—practically an Inspectrice—has charge of the Froebelian course for teachers at the Training College. She teaches education, method, Froebel, infant hygiene, and *morale*. The schools are free and optional for children within the Commune aged from three to six. Those from without the Commune pay a small fee. The schools are open from 8 a.m.: Those children who stay all day receive a bowl of soup at mid-day. This soup, given to all the children at the expense of the Commune, is wholesome, substantial, and as varied as possible. Besides meat, potatoes and vegetables, split peas, haricots, rice, sugar, milk, and barley are largely used. It is cooked by means of a *bain-marie* in one of the central schools which contains a kitchen. During 1904, 395,085 portions of soup were distributed at a cost of 17,375 francs. The average number of portions per day was 1,367 on 289 days of the year. The proportion of portions to litres was 395,085 portions and 189,008 litres.

On St. Nicholas' Day a distribution of clothes takes place. These are made at the Primary schools.

The programme of the Jardins d'Enfants at Liège includes the usual Froebelian course. During the first year the children examine the first four gifts; they practise with little sticks, tablets, weaving, head-threading, etc. The second year the fifth gift is added, more elaborate work and some design is done; the third year the sixth gift is added, with extra additions in the shape of rings and more varied design. There is no reading or writing, and very little arithmetic done in these schools. Perhaps the Liège syllabus with regard to the application of Froebel may be of interest. These are suggestions for little conversations:—

*October.*—(1) School, return to school, where the school is, principal divisions of the building. The furniture in the classroom, benches, tables, blackboards, etc. (2) Autumn, the fall of

the leaves, work, autumn seed-time, hunting, the hunter, dog, game. Vegetables and fruits of the season, provisions for winter.

*November.*—(3) The human body, the head, face, skull, hair. The organs of sense which centre in the head. Body, chin, sides, back. Upper parts: shoulders, arms, elbows, hands. Lower parts: thighs, knees, legs, feet. Cleanliness, need of cleanliness in every part of the body. Very simple advice in hygiene.

*December.*—(4) Clothing, clothes in general. Head-gear. Clothing of the body, wool, silk, leather. The tailor, dress-maker, shoemaker. (5) Winter: days and nights, ice and snow, the pleasures of winter, snowballs, slides, skating, evenings at home. St. Nicholas. Sufferings of the poor. Little birds. Charity. Winter clothing.

*January.*—(6) New Year's Day. Fuel. Necessity of warming the rooms. Principal fuel, wood, coal, coke. The miner, the carter, the coal-dealer. Division of seasons (character of each) into months (recall each one of them by some impressive phenomena, a well-known deed, a dress), into weeks; the days of the week, names, specialities.

*February.*—(7) Necessity of lighting rooms. Means of lightings, candles, oil, lamps. Danger of petroleum, matches, precautions to take, gas, electricity (draw attention to light produced). (8) The family; paternal home, principal parts, furniture of the house, man's profession—mason, carpenter, shoemaker, locksmith, etc.

*March.*—(9) Domestic animals—cat, dog, horse, cow. Beef, mutton, veal, pork. Principal fowls in poultry-yard—cock, hen, chicken, goose, duck.

*April.*—(10) Food: bread, meat, vegetables. Baker, butcher, greengrocer. (11) Drinks: water, coffee, milk, beer, wine. Various uses of water. (12) Spring; appearance of Nature. Sun, warmth, flowers, trees, gardens, fields. Business of the gardener. Principal tools for gardening. Return of the birds; swallows; nests.

*May.*—(13) The fields, wild flowers, singing birds; ways of the common birds. (14) Flowers and vegetables in the month of May. (15) Insects: bee, butterfly, spider, caterpillar, louse, worm, moth. (16) Games of children in spring.

*June.*—(17) Summer: phenomena, length of days and nights, temperature, showers, flowers, summer vegetables, pleasures of summer, work, haymaking, harvest, angling. Various fish. Summer clothes. (18) Means of communication; transport.

*July.*—(19) Minerals: coal, paving stones, marble, gravel. (20) Metals: iron, copper, lead, gold, silver, nickel, tin. (21) Principal holidays; Sundays, national fetes, etc.

*Little Collections.*—Accustom the children to form little collections of various products easily accessible, such as flowers, leaves, seeds, etc.

*Explanation of Pictures.*—Pictures on card representing scenes from family life, children, fields, games, etc., to be connected with little talks, stories and songs.

*Little Moral Stories.*—Instructive explanation and expressive recitation of easy poetry; little stories about children the same as those being taught, in order to make them know, love and practice duties in accordance with their age.

*Songs.*—Songs, rhythmic, with simple harmonies, melody, and sense. Combination of songs and gymnastic exercises.

*Gymnastic Games.*—The teacher will find in the school library, games, songs, and ideas for stories in connection with her little talks and occupations. She must take into consideration the division to which the children belong in selecting these games, songs, and little stories.

The rules of these schools are for the most part the same as those in Brussels. They are entirely free, open from 8 a.m. to 4 or 5 p.m. Parents are requested to bring their children, and fetch them themselves if possible, and if not, to depute some responsible person. During the holidays—Christmas, Easter, August, and September—the schools are organised as usual for those children whose parents are at work (Liège consists of a large industrial population). Parents are requested to bring their children washed, and their hair well brushed, with their shoes cleaned and stockings drawn up; on Mondays and Thursdays they are expected to have clean linen, and always to have a pocket-handkerchief.

In addition to these schools there are fourteen private Ecoles-Gardiennes, directed by various religious orders, including the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul, les Filles de la Croix, les Sœurs de Ste. Marie, etc.

#### ECOLLES GARDIENNES AT ANTWERP.

Population in 1906, 297,311; has 15 Ecoles-Gardiennes (Communales) and 18 Private (Adopted). No accounts forthcoming. Soup is given from November 1st to Easter. Children are given tickets at 1d. each, while a few necessitous children have it free. Five kilos of beef make soup for 100 children.

Nothing much is being done with regard to young children; the latest rules were drawn up in 1880; the Cours Normal bears the same date, and the time-tables, which include 36 occupations, have not been revised since 1882.

In the whole Province of Antwerp there are 42 Ecoles-Gardiennes (Communales) and 170 Private (Adopted), containing in all 31,311 children.

## III.—SUMMARY.

Comparing the condition of Infant schools in England with those in France and Belgium, one is at once struck by the tremendous stress laid in the latter countries on *hygiene*. From first to last the physique of young children is recognised as a question of prior importance. Special schools at enormous cost have been built and equipped for infants between three and six; children are invited, not compelled, to attend these schools, which are, for the most part, perfectly free. *But* one important condition is imposed. *The child must be sent clean*, its hair must be well brushed, its shoes cleaned, its stockings drawn up, its linen must be changed on Mondays and Thursdays, and *failure to comply with these regulations means dismissal*.

To encourage this condition of things, a very large number of garments are given away in these schools through private agencies. Also girls in elementary and secondary schools are taught to make small pinafores, etc., for the infants. And not only external appearance, but the child's physical needs are duly considered. In both countries an attendant (*femme de service*) is provided, whose duties are to give certain delicate children medicine (where there is organised medical inspection) on arrival; personally to supervise them at the offices twice a day; to take care of those who are obliged to remain to dinner. With regard to the second of these points, attention has been drawn again and again to the deplorable and *totally inadequate accommodation* of our offices in English schools. The want of proper supervision leads to a condition of affairs wholly incredible to those who have not known, wholly regrettable to those who have the morality of the nation at heart. Added to this, in the case of young children, much ill-health and suffering results from this neglect. It is to be hoped that with all the marked improvements taking place in infant training this crying need may not be set aside.

In Belgium there is constant communication between teacher and parent, and plenty of opportunities for conversation, if necessary, with regard to the child's health. At the hour of dismissal, the Head Mistress, class mistress and concierge are at the big street door where the mothers assemble to meet their children, and as each child is claimed, the Head Mistress often takes the opportunity of congratulating the mother on the child's clean appearance, of suggesting a little more attention in this or that direction, of remarking on what the child has done or said if occasion chanced. While in return, the mother may have something to say or suggest, which is kindly received by the Head Mistress.

Again, the regulations about the children's dinners are more hygienic than ours. Every child in France and Belgium who has to stay at school through the day is obliged to bring its food properly in a basket. The baskets must be properly packed, and there is a special shelf where they are kept neatly

labelled and in an airy place. Our children are still bringing their dinners in dirty pieces of newspaper; they give the unappetising parcel to their class teacher, who puts it into the cupboard where reading books, copy books, and all school materials are kept. The cupboard is then closed. The child eats its dinner, cold, and out of the paper. Anything more unwholesome for a young, growing child can hardly be imagined. The provision of penny dinners in cases where the child is obliged to spend the whole day at school is obviously advantageous, and it is effected abroad with very simple organisation. On the other hand, studying the young child under six from an hygienic point of view, one would like to see more time for *rest* in the breathlessly full programmes of the day. Neither France nor Belgium has any provision for this, though, in any reorganisation of our Infant schools, this subject should receive full consideration. Leaving the hygienic point of view only briefly touched, and passing to the moral and mental training of the child, it may be noted that both France and Belgium are omitting reading, writing, and arithmetic from the subjects to be taught in their Infant schools. From the Communal school programme it has been entirely swept away; some of the small Adopted or Private schools still give in to the parents and teach these subjects. But it is an almost accepted idea now that children have been forced to concentrate their entirely undeveloped minds on subjects such as these to their detriment hereafter. Plenty of free play, undirected occupations and training in self-control in the Infant school will enable the child to learn quickly when it reaches the Elementary school. Madame Desfrée, Inspectrice des Jardins d'Enfants in Brussels, having closely studied the question of learning to read, declares that at the age of six an average child will learn in four months. There are many experts in England who agree with her.

Lastly, let it be observed that though France and Belgium, with regard to the hygiene of Infant schools, have left us somewhat behind, yet, when our reorganisation comes, as come it must in order to reduce the hopeless size of our classes, our large cities can command a well-trained band of teachers, who have been quietly working at new methods, who are trained in the hygiene of *child-life*, who have attended lectures by experts on the subjects of occupations, story-telling, games, Nature-study, etc., in relation to child psychology. They are studying long and devotedly for the love of the subject, and for no commercial end, and they will be capable, when the times are ripe, to organise the Child Nurseries of England on methods which have grown out of the experience of bygone ages by means of which we may hope to turn our over-disciplined babies into more joyous little beings, happier and healthier, more natural and more spontaneous. And not only this. Both France and Belgium have neglected that part of Froebel's training which has been well called the "soul-hood of the child." Froebel was one of the first to realise the vital importance of revealing to the child the individuality of the human soul, to point out "all the glory that

may come into its life." He revealed the value of nature work—so little used in the foreign schools. This side of his teaching is being developed in our English infant schools, children are being taught to sow seeds and to watch their growth, to follow the natural growth of flower and fruit, and to realise a higher power than that of man. By our fairy stories, our legends, our myths, our encouragement of the childish imagination, we are laying the foundation of that which must develop later into the relation of the human soul towards the Divine.

M. B. SYNGE.

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## APPENDIX A.

## TOWN OF BRUSSELS.

## INFANT HYGIENE.—INSTRUCTIONS TO MOTHERS.

(Drawn up by a Committee of the Belgian National League for the Protection of Infancy.)

Every year more than 30,000 children die in Belgium before they have reached the age of one year. This excessive infant mortality is due, in great measure, to ignorance and to prejudices upheld by custom.

The spread of a knowledge of the elementary rules of infant hygiene is one of the best means by which to check the disastrous results of the faulty methods generally employed in the up-bringing of infants. The mistakes most commonly made are with regard to the feeding of young children; gastro-enteritis (sickness and diarrhœa) is the illness which claims most victims among very young children. Maternal love does not make up for want of knowledge; to be a good mother is a thing which has to be learnt. Many mothers make their children ill without meaning to do so, through ignorance.

The Belgian National League for the Protection of Infancy has thought it a duty to draw up some elementary and practical advice, to be diffused widely among the public. These notes on the care of infants are in the form of short directions to young mothers. They will be useful in enabling them to avoid serious mistakes which may bring on their children deterioration of health, illnesses, permanent physical defects, or even death.

*Some General Principles.*

Cleanliness is one of the first conditions of a child's health. An infant's skin is very sensitive, and soon comes out in a rash or in sores if proper care is not taken immediately to remove soiled linen. If, in spite of attentive care, a rash appears on the buttocks, thighs, legs or heels of the baby, the cause must nearly always be sought in the defective action of the digestive organs.

Air and light are absolutely essential to a child's life and health. Too much heat indoors, especially if the air is close, is as harmful to a child as too great coldness of the open air. The bodily warmth of infants should always be kept up (without excess) by clothes which are soft and not too tight; wool and flannel are usually suitable for infants' clothing in our climate.

*Some Advice.*

At the moment of birth the head of an infant is often ill-formed; there is no need to rub or press it, it will take shape gradually. If the breasts of the new-born infant are swollen, nothing further must be done than to anoint them with camphorated vaseline—rubbing is always harmful. A child should never be rocked; the ancient custom of rocking has an irritating effect on the digestion and nervous system. No medicine should be given to a baby, not even the mildest purge, without a doctor's advice. From the very first a child should be accustomed to food and sleep at regular hours.

The eyes and ears should be attended to very carefully by the parents. Purulent ophthalmia is frequently the cause of blindness; many a blind man might have had his sight if his parents had consulted a doctor in time.

Discharge in the ears often causes meningitis ; if there is matter in the ears they should be seen to at once. Piercing the lobes of the ears is a barbarous and useless custom. The wearing of earrings has never prevented ailments of the eyes ; on the other hand, it has often produced inflammation, ulceration of the skin, and abscesses of the glands.

The mother ought, as much as possible, herself to take charge of her child. The doctor is always the best guide to mothers in bringing up their children. Neighbours should never be consulted about any ailment. As soon as the mother notices that her child is ailing, her duty is to call in a doctor and follow his orders implicitly.

Children should be vaccinated, if possible, during the first three months of life.

There is no need to teach a child to walk ; when it feels strong enough it will take the first steps of its own accord.

Children should be bathed in tepid water (35 centigrades) ; a bath either too hot or too cold is harmful.

It is a good thing to weigh an infant regularly every week. This affords valuable information as to the state of health and the growth of a baby.

There is a small operation often practised, which is useless and often harmful : the severance of the net or vein of the tongue. It is an elastic substance, and very rarely prevents sucking or, later on, speech in a baby.

The use of indiarubber teats is a bad habit. These teats are often contaminated with microbes, and may carry infection.

#### *Feeding of Infants.*

The principles of the healthy feeding of infants are of the highest importance, and special attention should be paid to them, as it is with regard to these that most mistakes are made.

Mother's milk is the best form of food for infants. No other sort of food is to be compared with it. Every mother who is strong enough ought to nurse her child. Breast feeding should, as far possible, continue for fifteen months. The breast should be given at regular intervals and at the same hours every day. The child should have nothing in the intervals, even if it cries.

If the child is asleep at the usual time for its meal, it should be wakened and given the breast. If regularity is maintained from the very first in the hours of feeding and intervals between meals, in spite of crying and sleep, the child will certainly become accustomed very soon to obey a will stronger than its own.

Every woman who is nursing should abstain from alcoholic liquors, heady wine and strong beer ; a very light beer is the most that should be allowed with meals.

If the mother has evidently too little milk to feed her child sufficiently, either temporarily or altogether, mixed feeding must be resorted to ; that is, the child must be given a certain quantity of animal milk to supplement the insufficiency of the maternal breast. It is a mistake to suppose that milk from different sources cannot be mixed. This mistake is one that even in these days prevents the spread of the practice of mixed nourishment.

Artificial feeding is that which has to be resorted to when the milk of the mother or wet-nurse is unavailable for the infant. For artificial feeding, cow's milk is generally used, with good reason. It is easily procured, it is plentiful and cheap, and is to be had everywhere. Ass's milk, mare's, goat's, or sheep's milk may also be used sometimes. It is absolutely necessary, in having recourse to artificial feeding, to ensure in every possible way that the milk is of good quality. Milk which has been passed through a separator should never be used for feeding young children. In Belgium, the regulations for the sale of milk allow the retailing of partially and wholly skimmed milk. According to the bye-laws on the subject, the former when offered for sale must be in jugs which have a brown stripe round the neck, and the thin milk, from which all the cream has been taken, in jugs with a blue stripe round the neck. These two kinds of milk should never be used for *infants*.

It is for the doctor to decide whether the milk is to be given pure, or whether it is to be diluted or sweetened. Dilutions should always be made with water that has just been boiled, and according to the doctor's directions. Before giving the milk to the child it is well to be certain, by tasting it, that the liquid has no disagreeable smell or taste.

Noxious germs which may contaminate milk and produce illness (gastro-enteritis, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, etc.) may be mitigated or destroyed by different practices, such as pasteurisation, boiling, heating by steam and sterilisation.

Pasteurisation is a method which consists in bringing a liquid to about 70 degrees Centigrade, and then cooling it very rapidly.

Milk is sterilised by bringing it to a temperature of 110 degrees Centigrade. Milk which has only been pasteurised, boiled or steamed, should be consumed within twenty-four hours. Although sterilised milk will keep longer, it is advisable in feeding an infant not to use very stale milk. Whatever milk is used, it should be kept in clean vessels, protected from dust, and in a place that is cool and free from smells.

All heating processes (pasteurisation, boiling, sterilisation) should be carried out as soon as possible after milking, or they may have no effect. Milk is usually given to an artificially-fed child by means of a bottle. The simpler these are the better. Bottles of annealed glass are very commonly sold, thin but strong enough to resist variations of temperature, with rounded corners inside and out; these bottles, fitted with a plain india-rubber teat, are very suitable as feeding-bottles. All feeding-bottles with tubes are very dangerous, and should be entirely forbidden.

Milk should be given warm to the child (35 degrees Centigrade). The most perfect cleanliness is requisite for everything that touches the milk meant for the baby. The hands, the receptacles, the bottles and teats should always be scrupulously washed before coming into contact with the milk. The success of artificial feeding of infants depends on the exact and minute observance of these hygienic prescriptions.

#### *Weaning.*

Weaning is the period of the child's life which extends from the moment that other food is added to the milk diet until such time as milk becomes quite a secondary food.

This period extends over a long time. Weaning should never be sudden; milk should remain the staple nourishment up to the age of 2½ or 3 years. In the days when food from the breast was the universal rule, the word *weaning* was used to mean the cessation of giving the breast. When a child is weaned from the breast, mother's milk should be gradually replaced by animal milk. The substitution should take place slowly and by degrees; the longer it takes the less risk there is for the infant; it should extend over several months.

When it is necessary to leave off breast-feeding suddenly (a matter about which the doctor ought always to be consulted) food from the breast will be replaced by animal milk. When the child has reached a certain age (8 months at least) one, and then a second, meal of milk may be replaced by light farinaceous food (boiled).

Solid food given prematurely is extremely dangerous.

Before the first incisors appear starch foods are rarely necessary.

Much sorrow might be spared to young mothers and much illness to infants if the hygienic rules of feeding in infancy were put in practice and scrupulously observed.

Signed for the Committee by DR. A. DEVAUX (President),  
Inspector-General of Public Health.  
DR. EUGENE LUST (Secretary).

APPENDIX B.

LEAFLET ISSUED BY THE SOCIÉTÉ PROTECTRICE DES ENFANTS  
MARTYRS.

LAITERIE MATEERNELLE

(1, PLACE DE LA DOUANE, BRUSSELS.)

*We advise Mothers :—*

(1.) To put the basket containing the feeding bottles of milk into a cool place (for example, a cellar) immediately it is delivered, and, during extreme heat, to place the bottles in a bucket of cold water, which should be renewed several times a day.

(2.) Not to uncork the bottle till it is required for feeding.

(3.) To taste the milk from each bottle, by pouring some into a spoon, before giving it to the child ; the milk should have no bad taste, nor should it possess the slightest trace of acidity.

(4.) To keep quite dry the teats which are put on to the bottles when giving milk to the baby. After having used the teat, it should be washed in plenty of water and till the next meal kept dry in a closed vessel (glass or china for choice), so that no dust can reach it.

(5.) To feed the babies at the same hour every day.

(6.) To give the milk very slowly without minding if a little air gets into the milk during the meal ; this mixture, on the contrary, makes the milk more digestible.

(7.) To take the child on their knees while feeding it with the bottle ; this process should last about ten minutes.

(8.) To rinse the empty bottle which has contained milk at once, taking care also to rinse the stopper at the mouth of the bottle in plenty of running water.

(9.) After the rinsing to fill the bottle with clean water and leave it thus till it is called for by the carman.

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## APPENDIX C.

## SYLLABUS ON THE CARE OF INFANTS.

## BRUSSELS.

The following is a translation of the authorised syllabus on the care of infants for the *écoles ménagères* of the *Ville de Bruxelles*,\* drawn up by Mme. Clays, *Directrice de l'école Bischoffsheim*.

## THE CARE OF INFANTS AND INFANT HYGIENE.

## COURSE OF THE ÉCOLE MÉNAGÈRE.

*Baby Garments.*

The garments of babies must be: (1) warm, (2) ample, in order not to impede the function of any organ and not to embarrass the movements in any way.

There are two methods of clothing babies: the *French method* and the *English method*.

These two methods include the same garments for the upper part of the body—a chemise, a flannel or cotton vest, a vest of piqué or some other material, a triangular kerchief and a robe (these garments are fastened at the back).

*The French method* includes for the lower part of the body: a linen diaper and a wool or soft flannel swathing band in which the baby's legs are wrapped and enclosed.

*Old-fashioned baby-clothes.*—Formerly these *baby-clothes* were completed by a flannel band which was rolled firmly round. In certain countries even the child's head was made immovable by means of a piece of linen which was fixed to the clothes on each side of the neck. This is still used in the southern provinces of our country.

*Popular error.*—The child's body will be warmer and straighter if it is tightly bound in its clothes.

*The English method* includes for the lower part of the body: (1) linen diaper folded into a triangle, a pilche of flannel of triangular shape, woollen stockings, and little woollen shoes.

The point of the diaper and that of the pilche are brought together by a pin between the baby's legs, in order to leave them complete liberty.

*The English baby-clothes* are the better, because they allow the child to move and to develop freely.

*The French baby-clothes*, if they are well applied, have the advantage of preserving the baby's warmth better; their use may also be recommended during the night and during the first days which follow the child's birth, especially in winter.

*Cap.*—If it is used, the cap should be made lightly, either of muslin or in crochet. It is wiser to accustom the child to do without it.

*Cleanliness.*

*Care of the skin.*—The different parts of the child's clothing must be frequently renewed; the chemises and the vests at least once every two days; the swaddling band every time that it has been soiled, at night as well as in the day.

\* *Ville de Bruxelles.—Économie Maternelle. Hygiène de l'Enfance (Cours de l'École Ménagère).* Brussels, 1904.

Each time that the child has soiled its swaddling band, that part of the body must be washed, dried with a soft linen and then powdered with powder of amydon or lycopodium.

It is the only way to avoid the chapping and excoriations which cause the child so much suffering.

*Washing and baths.*—A general rapid washing should be done every day over all the parts of the body ; it is preferable to replace it by a very short bath in tepid water of 30° to 35° C. during the first months ; the temperature of the water should be lowered gradually. The temperature of the room in which the bath is taken should be from 15° to 16° C.

Refined soap must be used for the child's toilet : marshmallow or glycerine soap.

If the child's skin is irritated, he (she) should be given baths of amydon water or bran baths.

*Care of the head.*—The child's head should be the object of special care ; it must be washed every day with tepid water, well dried, then brushed with a fine brush. Inflammation of the head—milk-scab, incrustation—is frequent with babies and causes them much suffering ; this inflammation must be attended to without delay in order to avoid the risk of grave difficulties.

*Popular error.*—It is not permissible to cure scalp eruptions lest convulsions or meningitis should be induced.

#### NOURISHMENT.

Milk is the first and the only nourishment proper to a baby ; everything in a child's mouth shows that it should suck, not eat. Nothing can replace milk for the child, but, of all milk, that which suits it best is the mother's.

When the mother is ill and cannot nurse her child, when her occupations do not permit her to do so by day as well as by night, she has recourse to *artificial feeding*, unless she can give the child a nurse, which is preferable.

In *artificial feeding* the child is given the milk of an animal ; cow, ass, sheep, goat, by means of a bottle.

Cow's milk is generally used in our towns ; it differs from that of the woman, but by the addition of water and sugar its composition approaches that of mother's milk.

	Fluids.	Nitric Matter.	Fat.	Sugar.	Salts.	Total.
Mother's milk	- 87.39	2.48	3.90	6.04	0.19	100 parts
Cow's milk	- 87.41	4.41	3.26	4.22	0.70	100 "

The milk is diluted by adding :

During the first month	-	-	-	-	1/2	litre* of boiled water.
" second and third months	-	-	-	-	1/3	" " "
" fourth month	-	-	-	-	1/4	" " "

Afterwards cow's milk should be given undiluted.

Milk ferments rapidly, it can also contain dangerous microbes which communicate diseases to children ; therefore it is necessary only to give well-boiled milk.

The feeding-bottle which is easiest to keep clean should be used ; bottles consisting of a bottle closed by the india-rubber teat, without a tube, are the best.

#### *Careful usage of the bottle.*

1. Only boiled milk to be used ;
2. The milk should be pure, not skimmed ;
3. The addition of water and of sugar to be made in the required proportions ;
- 4 The milk in the bottle should be tepid, 35° to 37° C. ;

\* 1 litre—1.76 pinta.

5. The bottle should only contain the milk for one meal, the surplus must be thrown away ;

6. After each meal the bottle must be well cleaned in all parts by means of a brush and hot boiled water.

Feeding with a bottle demands special supervision and careful understanding, for the majority of diseases of the digestive passages—thrush, infant cholera, enteritis—generally attack children brought up by hand, and are a frequent cause of mortality.

These illnesses can also be caused by inappropriate food.

In order to simplify artificial feeding, by diminishing the causes of mortality, the *Société protectrice des Enfants Martyrs* has instituted a *laiterie maternelle*, rue des Comédiens, 25, at Brussels. The milk sold there is humanised or sterilised milk, which approaches very closely to mother's milk, and is purified from the injurious germs which it may have contained. This preparation is made on the spot under the supervision of Dr. Lust. The new milk steriliser of this doctor has been adopted here as feeding-bottle. Deliveries are made for cash ; ten centimes the bottle.

A distribution of milk at reduced cost, ten centimes a day, or free, is made daily to poor mothers who are prevented from nursing their babies themselves, or especially to mothers whose children are already suffering from bad feeding, sickness, diarrhœa.

#### *Popular errors.*

1. To believe that when a child is brought up by hand it is necessary always to give it the milk of the same cow.

2. To believe that barley water is a food which suffices for the needs of a baby and that it can advantageously replace milk.

3. To believe that a child should be fed with pap from the time its first teeth appear.

#### *Number of meals.*

Whether a child is nursed by its mother or fed with a bottle, it is necessary to observe strict regularity in the times of feeding.

#### *First half-year.*

*First three months.*—By day, feed once every two hours ; at night, once every four hours.

*Following three months.*—By day, once every three hours ; at night, once every six hours.

#### *Second half-year.*

By day, one meal every three hours ; replace one by soup ; at night, food once only, to be completely suppressed finally. We disapprove of the use of any kind of indiarubber teats which are given to children between meals. This bad custom forces a child to make efforts in sucking which are often iring.

#### WEANING.

During the *first six months* the child can only take milk, any other nourishment, being badly digested, is injurious. It is only during the *second half-year*, and while continuing the use of milk, that the child should be given either pap or light soups, consisting of farinaceous foods prepared with milk. These paps and soups should be prepared fresh for each meal.

To begin with, the milk meal must be replaced by one of soup during the day and, in proportion as the teeth become more numerous, the number of these soups will be gradually increased and the number of milk meals must be reduced

*After the age of one year*, while maintaining milk as the principal nourishment, the child could be given eggs, bread soaked in meat juice, and, eventually, meat chopped fine.

*Until at least two years of age milk should remain the child's principal food.*

*Rules for Weaning.*

It is important :

1. Never to wean a child who has no teeth ;
2. Never to wean a child who is teething ;
3. Never to wean a child during the course of an indisposition or of an illness ;
4. Never to wean a child during the very hot weather ;
5. Never to wean a child suddenly.

**TEETHING.**

Teething is a cause of digestive trouble for a child, that is why nursing must not cease at the moment of cutting the teeth.

The first teeth appear in the following order :—

Front teeth - . . . . .	4 to 6 months
Side teeth - . . . . .	4 " 9 "
First small double teeth - . . . . .	4 " 12 "
Eye teeth - . . . . .	4 " 15 "
Second small double teeth - . . . . .	4 " 18 "

**GUM RINGS.**

The child's first toy, the teether, is often intended to soothe the irritation of the gums caused by teething.

A bone or india-rubber ring serves this purpose very well ; orris or marsh-mallow roots, which easily turn sour, must be avoided. Coloured or angular shaped rattles must not be used, as they might cause serious accidents.

**SLEEP.**

Children have an imperative need of sleep, especially during the first days. Babies should be allowed to sleep as much as they wish ; towards the age of six months a child's sleep can be regulated.

Sleep generally follows feeding ; a child should sleep in a cradle, and not in the arms or on the knees of its mother.

The child, in its cradle, should always be laid on its side in order that, if sickness occurs, the liquid flows easily and does not enter the respiratory channels.

The child must not be allowed to sleep with anyone (asphyxia), must not be accustomed to rocking, and use must not be made of narcotics, which have often caused deplorable accidents.

It is necessary to accustom a child to get up early and to go to bed at the hour when, from fatigue or by habit, it goes to sleep immediately.

After the child's sleep, the cradle should be aired.

**GOING OUT.**

Pure air, like nourishment, is a food which sustains life.

A child must have air baths by being exposed as often as possible to the open air ; in this way it will be submitted to the influence of full light, which is as necessary for it as air.

A child can be taken out without harm in hot weather (summer) at the end of a week ; in mild weather (spring, autumn) at the end of a fortnight ; in cold weather (winter) at the end of a month.

**PERAMBULATORS.**

Perambulators are not good for quite little children, whom they expose to tiring and sometimes dangerous jolting ; the arms of the mother or the nurse are much more suitable for them until they have the strength to sit up and to change their position.

## WALKING—EXERCISE.

Under our conditions of climate and race, a well-nourished child begins to walk when it is a year old. All methods intended to force the act of walking must be avoided, straps or reins, wicker-baskets, wooden carriages; nothing is more inclined to deform the legs, the pelvis, and the spine. It is preferable to assist the baby in its first attempts by supporting it under both arms.

When it is necessary to lift a child over an obstacle, care must be taken to hold it with open hands, under the arms, otherwise there is a risk of dislocating its shoulder or wrist.

The child should be made to do some well regulated gymnastic movements favourable to its development.

## VACCINATION.

Vaccination is the best preventive of small-pox.

Except in the case of an epidemic of small-pox, a child can be vaccinated from the age of two months.

From the third to the tenth day which follows vaccination the child cannot go out, because it is then more sensitive to variations of temperature.

Baths will be suppressed during the same time. The vaccinated part must be protected by a little shield with cotton wool.

\* \* \* \*

## DANGEROUS REMEDIES.

Certain very dangerous substances are sometimes used by ignorant mothers.

Such are: decoction of poppy seeds, laudanum, to induce sleep; an emetic to produce sickness. These remedies have often caused accidents, sometimes fatal accidents.

Nor must mustard poultices be applied to the calves of a child's legs if it is threatened with convulsions; it is well known that the pain caused by the mustard poultice may itself provoke convulsions with little children.

If the child is not in good health, it is best to submit it to a doctor for examination, for it may be attacked by serious illness without the symptoms being apparent.

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APPENDIX D.

NUMBER OF ECOLES-GARDIENNES UNDER STATE INSPECTION.  
1905.

PROVINCE.	ECOLES-GARDIENNES.			CHILDREN.	CHILDREN IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.	NO. OF SCHOOLS.	TOTAL POPULATION.
	COMMUNAL.	ADOPTED.	TOTAL.				
Antwerp - . . .	42	170	212	31,311	115,905	545	559,746
Brabant . . . .	116	243	359	43,670	163,327	998	828,324
West Flanders . . .	18	336	354	33,324	103,792	716	750,230
East Flanders . . .	71	361	432	53,009	138,110	817	923,493
Hainault . . . .	399	290	689	49,524	137,471	1,338	997,165
Liège . . . . .	113	115	228	20,224	100,971	920	695,668
Limbourg . . . .	6	85	91	6,855	35,571	381	523,292
Luxembourg . . . .	41	98	139	6,836	31,591	666	878,728
Namur . . . . .	93	174	267	3,396	43,073	763	621,091
	899	1,872	2,771	258,149	869,811	7,144	6,777,739

46 Crèches for population of 479,489 under 3 years.  
2,771 Ecoles-Gardiennes, containing 258,149 children out of population of 446,134 (3-6)

BILAN. -- 1907.

	10 200	11 200	12 250	13 200	14 200	TOTAUX. 3,400
„	10,400 „	15,500 „	14,100 „	2,700 „	5,800 „	195,860 „
„	1,300 „	1,000 „	1,000 „	1,100 „	900 „	16,490 „
„	200 „	200 „	250 „	200 „	200 „	3,299 „
„	170 „	170 „	212 50	170 „	170 „	2,804 10
„	900 „	950 „	950 „	950 „	950 „	14,500 „
„	120 „	170 „	330 „	300 „	300 „	2,595 „
„	110 „	105 „	125 „	125 „	135 „	1,765 „
„	45 „	70 „	60 „	80 „	80 „	995 „
„	13,245 „	18,165 „	17,027 50	12,625 „	8,535 „	238,248 10
ement du personnel en disponibilité	-	-	-	-	-	fr 3,925 „
ement de l'Inspectrice	-	-	-	-	-	4,200 „
entations normales et application du nouveau barème	-	-	-	-	-	13,500 „
nitures (réserve)	-	-	-	-	-	500 „
mpenses	-	-	-	-	-	1,500 „
imés et frais de bureau	-	-	-	-	-	1,000 „
rs	-	-	-	-	-	626 90
nnel intérimaire et gardiennat	-	-	-	-	-	6,500 „
stien et surveillance des appareils de chauffage	-	-	-	-	-	5,000 „
stien des appareils d'éclairage	-	-	-	-	-	500 „
d'excursions	-	-	-	-	-	500 „
ributions à charge de la Ville	-	-	-	-	-	800 „
placement des gens de service malades	-	-	-	-	-	500 „
						<b>Total, fr. 277,900 „</b>

## APPENDIX F.

## TOTAL COST OF ECOLES-GARDIENNES IN BELGIUM, 1904.

## I.—ECOLES-GARDIENNES (COMMUNAL AND ADOPTED).

	Francs.
State - . . . . .	748,355
Provinces - . . . . .	67,614
Communes - . . . . .	2,145,477
Charitable Bureaux - . . . . .	48,727
Endowments and other Sources - . . . . .	34,573
School Fees - . . . . .	30,217
Deficit . . . . .	59,446
Total	<u>3,134,409 francs.</u>

## II.—ECOLES-GARDIENNES (PRIVATE WITH GRANT).

	Francs.
State - . . . . .	560,716
Provinces - . . . . .	11,659
Communes . . . . .	23,653
Total	<u>596,028 francs.</u>

VILLE DE BRUXELLES.  
 ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE.  
 GARÇONS.

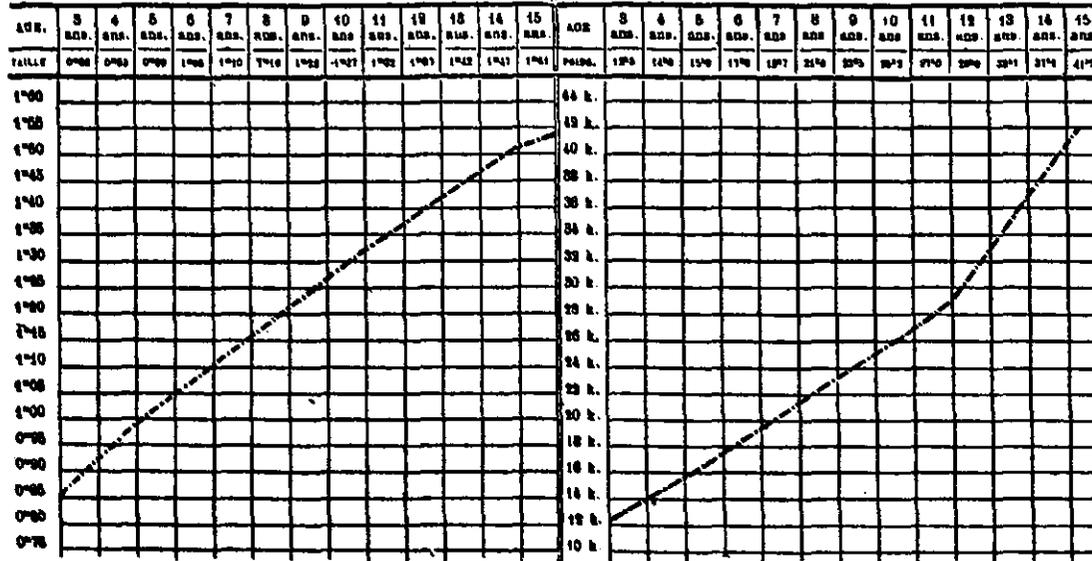
APPENDIX G.  
 (See page 26.)

CARTE SANITAIRE SCOLAIRE.

Jardin d'enfants No. \_\_\_\_\_  
 Écoles primaires { No. \_\_\_\_\_  
 No. \_\_\_\_\_  
 No. \_\_\_\_\_

Nom et prénoms : \_\_\_\_\_  
 Lieu et date de naissance : \_\_\_\_\_  
 Vacciné le \_\_\_\_\_ Revacciné le \_\_\_\_\_

Domiciles : { A) \_\_\_\_\_  
 B) \_\_\_\_\_  
 C) \_\_\_\_\_  
 D) \_\_\_\_\_



N.B. — In the original the dotted line is printed in red in order that it may not be confused with the line drawn for each child. (See page 26.)

GÉNÉRALES :

Les adoptées sont celles de Quetelet.

OBSERVATIONS  
 N.B.—Les moyennes

Le Directeur,



## APPENDIX H.

RULES FOR THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS IN ECOLES-  
GARDIENNES, JUNE 17TH, 1898.*A.—Written Examination.**Part I. Principles of Morality and Right Living :*

*Duty towards God.*—Importance and necessity of these duties ; their object.

*Duty towards Self.*—Necessity of self-preservation ; condemnation of suicide ; cleanliness ; hygiene ; gymnastics ; temperance. Love of work ; happiness it produces, order, economy, saving, moral benefits of saving. Duty of self-instruction and improvement. Power of "self-help" ; prudence, respect for truth, reverence for the given word, courage, personal dignity.

*Duty towards the Family.*—The family the foundation of society ; family happiness. Marriage and its duties ; obligations on those who marry to know the duties to be fulfilled. Rights and duties of parents towards their children ; paternal and maternal love. Duties of children towards their parents, filial love the first duty including all others, respect, obedience, help. Shameful conduct of children who refuse to help their parents. Duties of children towards one another. Mutual interdependence of the family. Duties of teacher and pupils ; need for teacher to possess love of little children ; her mission. Duties of master and servant.

*Duty towards Mankind.*—Duties of justice. These are included in this fundamental maxim : "Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you." Respect for the life of others ; condemnation of murder. Respect for the liberty of others ; personal freedom, slavery, serfdom. Respect for property ; origin of property ; binding character of promises and contracts ; theft, fraud. Duty of restoring things wrongly acquired and of repairing the wrong done to another. Respect for the honour and reputation of others. Calumny, defamation and slander. Respect for beliefs ; liberty of conscience, tolerance.

*Duties of Charity.*—The duties of charity are summed up in the maxims : "Love thy neighbour as thyself," and "Do unto others as you would they should do unto you." The duties of charity are binding on each of us according to the measure of our possessions. Charity should help poor children to develop their physical, intellectual, and moral faculties, and prepare them to earn their own living. Begging. Devotion and sacrifice.

*Civic Duties.*—Love of country ; respect for the Constitution ; obedience to laws ; respect due to public authorities ; duties of those in authority. Defence of country ; obligation on every citizen to contribute both service and money. Political duties. Courage.

*"Savoir-vivre."*—Politeness ; rules to be observed in the varying circumstances of life.

*Part II. Pedagogy and Method :*

*Education in general, and in Ecoles-Gardiennes.* The object, importance and organisation of education. Special object of infant education. Rôle of the family and of the school in early training. Mission of a teacher in an Ecole Gardienne—qualities necessary for success.

*Physical Education.*—Its object and importance in Ecoles-Gardiennes. Duties and responsibilities of a teacher in an Ecole-Gardienne in respect of school hygiene, gymnastic exercises and infant games.

*Intellectual and Moral Training.*—Simple distinction between the three important mental faculties ; understanding, feeling and will. Way in

which these act and react on one another ; necessity of cultivating them harmoniously. Danger of overworking or wrongly working young minds. General principles of education which result from these observations.

*Understanding.*—That which is understood by outward perception ; conscience, reason. How the teacher of the Ecole-Gardiennne should work at training the senses. How she should arouse and direct attention, the spirit of observation and reflection. How she should cultivate judgment and reasoning power. Memory and imagination ; means by which the teacher in an Ecole-Gardiennne can encourage the regular working of these faculties.

*Feeling.*—Ways in which the feeling for and love of Truth, Beauty, Right, God, show themselves ; what the teacher should do to brighten, direct and strengthen these feelings.

*Inclinations and Tastes.*—Ways to encourage those that are good and to fight against those which tend toward evil.

*Will.*—What is meant by will-power and personality. The meaning of command and obedience. How to inspire the child with the feeling of responsibility. Influence of practice and example in the education of young children.

*General Method.*—Fundamental principles of the methods of elementary teaching. Explain carefully the following : The teacher of the Ecole-Gardiennne endeavours above all to develop the spontaneous and free activity of the child. She makes her teaching thoroughly intuitive ; she brings before the childish intelligence the real object, before giving its name. She passes from that which is near to that which is far, from the simple to the composite, from the concrete to the abstract. She tries to induce associations of ideas and to make the children realise the link which unites work, games, and connected exercises. She often returns to the same idea, but presents it in a different form. She is careful in her use of the Socratic form as well as the dogmatic. She early accustoms the child to express quite simply, but correctly, the result of its observations, as well as its thoughts and feelings.

*Special Method.*—Exercises and gymnastic games ; their object in the Ecole-Gardiennne ; time to be devoted to them ; the nature and order of exercises and games. How to direct them and get them carried out.

*Training in Thought and Expression, and Recitation.*—Object, nature and choice. How to proceed.

*Songs learnt by Ear.*—Style of songs to be used. Plan to follow in teaching them. Conditions of good performance.

*Manual Occupations based on the Froebel System.*—The nature and object of these occupations (folding and cutting of paper ; weaving ; plaiting ; designing ; little sticks, tablets, cubes, rectangles ; gardening). Tools necessary for each of these. Fundamental principles to be observed in directing them. How to proceed.

*First Elements of Reading, Writing, and Spelling.*—Choice of a method. Simultaneous teaching of reading, writing, and spelling. Articulation. Progressive order of lessons. Methods to be employed in teaching. Essential conditions of reading books. Rules to be observed in reading. What the teacher should do to make the reading and writing lessons a rational preparation for the lessons of the primary school.

*Arithmetic.*—Advantages of combining mental arithmetic with written work. Selection and employment of intuitive methods. Logical order of exercises. Method.

*Part III. Mother Tongue.*—Composition (descriptions, narratives, letters, essays on themes drawn from natural objects ; industry and commerce ; on moral duties ; the duties of a teacher and the ordinary relations of life).

*Part IV. Elements of Arithmetic* and of the legal system of weights and measures. Exercises on the first four fundamental rules applied to whole numbers and to decimals. Solution of problems dealing with

the system of weights and measures in domestic economy. Questions of simple interest, of discount, averages and proportion. Savings banks and investments.

*Part V. Geography.*—Elementary ideas of the world and its general divisions; Orientation; longitude and latitude; day and night; the seasons; phases of the moon; eclipses; comets. Size and position of the five divisions of the world, and the chief oceans; chief lines of navigation.

*Belgium.*—Limits, chief natural divisions; productions, industry and commerce; principal railways and navigable channels; short account of each of the nine provinces, tracing outlines and maps from memory.

*Europe.*—Short account of the coasts, seas, principal gulfs, straits, large islands and peninsulas, chief commercial ports. Chief mountain chains, rivers and streams, chief countries (situation, government, important towns, industrial and commercial relations with Belgium).

*Asia, Africa, America, Oceania.*—Boundaries, seas, commercial ports principal States and their capitals.

*Part VI. History of Belgium.*—Short account of the Conquest of Belgium by the Romans, and the state of Belgium under Roman dominion. Occupation of the Franks in Belgium. Social condition of Belgium in the sixth and eighth centuries. Introduction and progress of Christianity in Belgium; monasteries. General idea of wars and institutions of Charlemagne. Feudal rule in Belgium; castles, private wars, etc. Facts connected with the first and fourth crusade. Belgian communes; their progressive development from the 11th to the 14th century; franchises and privileges; trades and corporations; industry and commerce; fairs and markets. Strife between Flemish communes and Kings of France—Breydel and De Coninck; Jacques and Philip Van Artevelde. The House of Burgundy in Belgium, reunion of Belgian provinces under Philip the Good; strife between the chief communes and the Burgundian Princes. Social condition of Belgium in the 15th century. Charles V. Extent of his power; political organisation of Belgium; revolt of the Men of Ghent, commercial wealth of Antwerp. Chief events in the revolution of the 16th century; Spanish soldiers in Belgium; creation of new Bishopsrics, excesses of the Iconoclasts, execution of Counts Egmont and Horne. Pacification of Ghent, success of Alexander Farnese; condition of Belgium at the end of the reign of Philip II. Albert and Isabella, remarkable events in the reign of Maria Theresa in Belgium and of Joseph II.; Belgium under French rule. Revolution of 1830. A few ideas on the rights and liberties of the Belgian constitution and on the organisation of the authority of the State. The reigns of Leopold I and II.

*Part VII. General Hygiene.*—The body. Necessary care of the skin, of the mouth and teeth, hair and nails. Toilet preparations. Exercise, work and rest. Food. Rules essential to a good dietary, initial value of principal foods and drinks. Use and abuse of foods and drinks. Adulteration. Drinkable, suspicious and contaminated water; filtering and supply. Alcohol, its ravages from a physical, intellectual, and moral point of view. Clothes. Choice of clothes according to the seasons and varieties of temperature. Cleanliness. Headgear and shoes. Danger of tight clothes. Houses. Situation, general arrangements, causes of unhealthiness; ventilation, lighting, warming; furniture and bedding. Disinfectants.

*School Hygiene.*—Air, pure and bad; cause of bad air in school; ventilation, danger of draught. Precautions. Light. Lighting of school rooms; arrangement of the desks; danger of the reflection from glossy pictures, cards, etc. Some exercises that demand close strain on eyesight; various precautions. Temperature: Rules concerning heat and cold, application of these rules; warming apparatus. Precautions. Furniture: Importance of proper arrangement of desks and other furniture for the use of children. Injurious positions and attitudes; their effects.

*Gymnastics and Games.*—Their necessity. Their management and supervision. Precautions. Accidents: First aid to give in cases of cuts, burns, sprains, bites, hæmorrhage, indigestion, suffocation, poison, etc.; use of the school medicine chest.

*Infectious Complaints.*—First symptoms of these maladies. Duty of teacher. Suggestions on the following subjects :—arrangement of time and work ; cleanliness of the building ; warming and airing of classes, arrival and leaving of children, recreations, contagious diseases, corporal punishment, vaccination.

There is a paper, lasting 1 to 1½ hours, on each of these 7 subjects ; 20 marks is given for the 1st, 3rd, and 4th sections, 40 for the 2nd, and 10 each for the last 3 ; 130 marks in all.

#### B.—*Oral Examination.*

This is a *Viva Voce Test*, the first part being on the *langue maternelle* ; reading, with expression, an easy piece in prose or verse, the rapid explanation of a piece with regard to manner and matter, a few remarks on spelling, syntax and punctuation.

*Geometric Forms.*—Straight lines and their various positions, different sorts of angles. Essential properties of triangles, squares, rectangles, parallelograms. Regular polygons, short analysis of prisms, right and oblique, and of pyramids, right and oblique. Properties of circle and circumference. Short analysis of cylinder, cone and sphere.

*Elementary Ideas on Natural Science.*—*Man* : Short account of a skeleton, functions of bones, muscles, nerves ; simple explanation of the organs of sense, healthy care of these organs ; elementary explanation of the digestion, respiration and circulation. *Animals* : Functions and description of the following : the horse, ass, pig, cow, sheep, goat, dog, cat, fox, lion, bear, wolf, bat, frog, toad, lizard, slow-worm, fowl, pigeon, duck, goose, swallow, warbler, nightingale, tomtit, lark, sparrow, snake, snail, mole, bee, cockchafer, wasp. The description of these animals will bear especially on their external form, their habits, the services they render, and their dangers. *Plants* : Short account of plant life (root, stem, flower, fruit). Description of the following plants : Wheat, rye, barley, oats, potato, haricot, peas, linseed, carrots, cabbage, mushrooms. Flowers to grow in pots in school or garden ; poisonous plants of the country which children are inclined to touch. *Minerals* ; Clay, sand, salt, carbon and metals.

*Elementary Ideas of Physics.*—General properties of bodies ; divisibility, porosity, compressibility, elasticity, gravity, weight, centre of gravity. Lever, ordinary balance. *Ideas on Equilibrium of Liquids* : fountains, communicating vessels, etc. *The Air* : Atmospheric pressure, barometer, suction pump. *Warmth* : Expansion, thermometer, change in condition of bodies. *Water* : Boiling, evaporation, mist, cloud, rain, snow, hail, dew. *Light* : Solar spectra, rainbow, colours. *Sound* : Echo, resounding.

These three oral subjects are taken for 20 minutes each, and 55 marks given for the whole.

#### C.—*Practical Examination.*

*Drawing.*—Freehand design ; tracing and divisions of straight lines : angles and polygonal figures with applications, tracing and division of circumference ; ornament ; ellipses, ovals, spirals, interlacing and various patterns with curves and lines ; leaves and natural flowers. Useful designs for embroidery. *Song* : Learnt by ear. *Gymnastics* : One exercise illustrated out of a Teacher's Book by Dox.

#### D.—*Examination in Teaching.*

Two tests for each candidate, one chosen from manual occupations based on Froebel system, another from the section dealing with thought, language and repetition.

The four subjects in these last two divisions can gain 115 marks ; the last alone can gain 60.

APPENDIX J.

DISTRIBUTIONS DE VÊTEMENTS DANS LES JARDINS D'ENFANTS PENDANT L'ANNÉE 1906-1907.

Désignation de l'école.	Comités de Charité		Œuvres Diverses.		Comités Scolaires.		Comité De la Foire.		Vêtements confectonnés dans les écoles primaires au moyen de fournitures de travaux manuels.	Jouets.	Dons en Argent.	Nombre d'enfants qui ont bénéficié des dons de vêtements.
	Cos-tumes compl.	Vête-ments divers.	Costumes compl.	Vêtements divers.	Costumes complets.	Vêtements divers.	Cos-tumes compl.	Vête-ments divers.				
1	—	—	13	80	35	237	—	12	—	279	20 "	234
2	—	—	13	404	6	196	—	6	—	277	20 "	148
3	—	—	—	190	—	351	—	17	—	190	—	190
4	—	—	11	78	18	865	—	—	—	175	107 "	140
5	—	—	170	590	—	1,136	—	100	—	600	164 "	600
6	—	—	15	81	—	175	—	—	—	300	20 "	120
7	—	—	13	75	—	24	—	—	—	300	10 "	71
8	—	—	12	98	12	373	—	—	—	386	—	139
9	—	—	12	75	20	764	—	—	—	374	15 70	190
10	—	—	8	58	6	300	—	—	34	100	45 "	94
11	—	—	20	110	—	141	—	—	—	184	—	165
12	24	62	24	207	—	—	—	7	—	190	—	190
13	—	—	35	155	126	224	—	4	—	300	—	262
14	—	—	8	261	—	3	—	—	—	143	50 "	85
Totaux	24	62	354	2,462	223	5,449	—	146	34	3,798	451 70	2,628

# APPENDIX K.

VILLE DE BRUXELLES.

JARDINS D'ENFANTS.

Distribution du travail.

	De 8 à 9½	9½ à 10½	10½ à 11½	11½ à 12½	12½ à 13½	13½ à 14½	14½ à 15½	15½ à 16½	16½ à 17½	17½ à 18½	18½ à 19½	19½ à 20½	20½ à 21½	21½ à 22½	22½ à 23½	23½ à 24½
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure	Réception. - Nettoyage. - Récitation libre. - Jardinage.	Jeux. Construction. Lattes.	Causerie. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Bâtons. Construction.	Balles. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Causerie. Causerie.	Nettoyage - Départ.	LUNDI	Réception. - Récitation libre.	Jeux. Pliage. Planchettes.	Construction. Jeux. Jeux libres.	Jeux libres. Tissage. Cartonnage.	Perles. Jeux libres. Jeux.			
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure		Jeux. Lattes. Pilage.	Dessin. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Dessin. Découpage.	Tissage. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Planchettes. Dessin.		MARDI		Jeux. Construction. Tissage.	Bâtons. Jeux. Jeux libres.	Jeux libres. Piquage. Bâtons.	Tressage. Jeux libres. Jeux.			
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure		Jeux. Tissage. Construction.	Construction. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Dessin. Bâtons. Entrelacement.	Jetons. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Construction. Perles.		MERCREDI		Jeux. Causerie. Causerie.	Causerie. Jeux. Jeux libres.	Jeux libres. Sable. Modelage.	Sable. Jeux libres. Jeux.			
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure		Jeux. Planchettes. Cartonnage.	Je don. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Entrelacement. Dessin.	Planchettes. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Perles. Pilage.		JEUDI		CONGÉ.						
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure		Jeux. Construction. Découpage.	Causerie. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Couture. Construction.	Balles. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Causerie. Causerie.		VENDREDI		Jeux. Pliage. Planchettes.	Construction. Jeux. Jeux libres.	Jeux libres. Signets. Signets.	Perles. Jeux libres. Jeux.			
Division inférieure - " moyenne - " supérieure		Jeux. Dessin. Dessin.	Dessin. Jeux. Gymnastique	Jeux. Bâtons. Bâtons-anneaux	Tissage. Gymnastique Jeux.	Jeux. Perles. Tissage.		SAMEDI		Jeux. Tressage. Perles.	Bâtons. Jeux. Jeux libres.	Jeux libres. Anneaux. Modelage.	Sable. Jeux libres. Jeux.			

## RÉCAPITULATION.

		Infé- rieure.	Moyenne.	Supé- rieure.
Corps	1er don. La balle - - -	2		
	2e " La boule, le cube et le cylindre - - -	1		
Surfaces	3e, 4e, 5e, 6e, don. Jeux de construction	3	4	3
	Planchettes - - -	1	2	2
	Jetons - - -	1	1	
	Pliage - - -		2	2
	Cartonnage - - -			2
Lignes	Découpage - - -			2
	Tissage - - -	2	2	2
	Bâtons - - -	2	3	
	Anneaux avec bâtons - - -			1
Points	Tressage, entrelacements - - -	1	3	2
	Lattes - - -		1	1
	Dessin - - -	2	2	3
Points	Anneaux - - -		1	
	Piquage - - -		1	1
	Sable, modelage - - -	2	1	2
	Perles - - -	2	2	2
	Causeries - - -	3	3	3
Occupations - - -		22	28	28

## APPENDIX L.

## COMMUNE DE SCHAEERBECK. ECOLE GARDIENNE No. 6.

*Menu for One Week for 50 Children,  
Served by Girls of Cours Menagère.*

*Monday, October 7th, 1907.*

Soup aux pois cassés.  
Carbonnades flamandes.  
Gâteau de pommes de terre.  
Pain. Bière.  
(5 frs. 22 c.)

*Tuesday, October 8th.*

Soup aux épinades.  
Rosbif.  
Pommes de terre.  
Endives.  
(6 frs.)

*Wednesday, October 9th.*

Soup aux tomates.  
Pain de viande hachée.  
Pommes de terre.  
Chou bloiz.  
(5 frs. 35 c.)

*Thursday, October 10th.*

Soup aux tomates.  
Ragout de mouton.  
Pommes de terre.  
Haricots.  
(4 frs. 10 c.)

*Friday, October 11th.*

Soup aux poireaux.  
Pommes de terre.  
Endives.  
Des oeufs.  
Pommes etuvées  
Pain. Bière.  
(4 frs. 98 c.)

*Saturday, October 12th.*

Bouillon.  
Boeuf bouilli.  
Pommes de terre.  
Choux rouges.  
(5 frs. 42 c.)

For these dinners (some free, some paying 1d.) the Commune of Schaerbeck gives a grant of 2,000 fr. a year, including the Section Menagere and the wages of the mistress.

## APPENDIX M.

## NOTE ON ADENOIDS.

TRANSLATION OF INSTRUCTIONS ISSUED TO THE HEADS OF THE  
COMMUNAL SCHOOLS IN BRUSSELS, 1906.

Teachers often find certain children, particularly in winter during damp weather, suffering from extreme absence of mind, absolute want of attention, and a sort of lethargy which is easily mistaken for laziness. Progress is so slow, intelligence so dormant, that these scholars end by being classed as abnormal. In the majority of cases, the children are neither idle nor abnormal; they are simply suffering from the effects of a malady with which they are affected, the growth of adenoids. If they are examined by a doctor specialising in maladies of the throat and nose, he will perform a very simple and perfectly safe operation, and thus restore their intellectual abilities.

The growth of adenoids is usually due to a mass of small lymphatic tumours, which make breathing through the nose difficult and sometimes impossible.

The result of this affection on the general organism is extremely serious, and it is most important to remove it. It retards development of the mind and affects the memory, it hinders the child's growth, and it may lead to deafness, even to meningitis.

The malady is exceedingly common, and will be recognised by teachers as soon as they know the chief symptoms. It is enough to have examined a few cases of adenoids to recognise them at first sight.

The symptoms are of two classes: those noticeable in school; those discoverable only by an examination made at home.

*Those noticeable at School:* The child's mouth is nearly always open because nasal respiration is blocked by reason of the growth of adenoids. As a result the upper lip is raised, and development ceases.

Adenoids often cause hardness of hearing, which explains the absent or drowsy appearance, characteristic of children suffering from them. They often cause ear troubles and discharge from the ears. The voice has a nasal sound; the child not infrequently stammers; development is slow. The working of the brain is slack, application becomes laborious; the assimilation of new ideas is difficult.

*Symptoms noticeable at Home*—Snoring is a general rule. A cough at night is usual; often there are two or three fits of coughing, or even more, due to the mucous in the larynx, arising from the adenoid growths.

The incontinence of urine is very common; often sleep is troubled by nightmare; the child cries and jumps up in bed with every sign of intense terror.

It is certain that a close enquiry made in the directions above indicated, at school and at home, will bring to light a large number of cases. It is only necessary to bring this situation of things to the notice of the teachers, and they will at once submit a number of children to medical investigation, with a view to advising parents to get the operation done as soon as possible.

## APPENDIX N.

SHORT INSTRUCTIONS ON THE FIRST SYMPTOMS OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES, DRAWN UP FOR THE USE OF THOSE TEACHING IN THE COMMUNAL SCHOOLS, BY THE "SERVICE D'HYGIÈNE" OF THE CITY OF BRUSSELS.

*To the Head and Assistant Teachers of the City of Brussels.*

The spread of infectious complaints being common in the schools, and it being impossible for the school doctors always to send home soon enough children whose presence is a source of danger to their schoolfellows, it is advisable to make known the early symptoms of these diseases to the teachers. Consequently the medical staff of the *Service d'Hygiène* of Brussels has presented to *M. l'Échevin de l'Instruction Publique* the following pages, noting in the shortest possible way the first symptoms whereby each of the maladies which are infectious may be recognised.

*M. l'Échevin* has decided to print and distribute these to all members of the teaching staff.

Of all diseases which may affect the human body, some are only injurious or dangerous to the person affected, others can be caught by contamination or infection. In the first group are all organic diseases; in the second, contagious diseases, such as typhoid fever, scarlatina, &c.

It is therefore necessary, in order to keep the school in a healthy condition, to be able to recognise with certainty the presence of these latter maladies at the very beginning in order to prevent their spreading. The teachers should therefore be in a position to recognise the first unmistakable symptoms.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to realise this ideal state of things, for these illnesses rarely show marked characteristics in their very early stages; indeed, they sometimes elude even the practised and careful eye of a doctor.

Are we then to let the mischief grow and spread without trying to fight it?

Certainly not. For by studying certain general symptoms, one can always recognise the beginnings of serious illness. And if by chance one is mistaken in having attached undue importance to some slight indisposition, no real harm is done and one has the consolation of knowing that no dangerous germs have found a place in the school. Besides this, the child's return home or his isolation cannot but be good for him if he is at all unwell. Any excess of caution could never be blamed in such a case.

We now propose to describe quite briefly and broadly the main features of those complaints which would entitle the teacher to take suitable preventative measures without delay.

To make these symptoms more easily recognised, we will divide infectious complaints into :

- (A) Internal maladies accompanied with fever from the beginning.
- (B) Internal maladies in which the fever is in the early stages only slightly marked.
- (C) Maladies without fever.
- (D) External maladies and skin diseases.

## A.—INTERNAL MALADIES BEGINNING WITH FEVER.

This class includes small-pox, scarlet fever, influenza. The first symptoms which attract attention are an intensely feverish condition, violent headache, unnatural heat of the skin, eyes distinctly bloodshot, a full, hard and quick pulse, extreme depression, physical and intellectual prostration or unusual agitation, sometimes nausea and sickness, stiffness and pain in back and limbs, intense thirst, dryness of the mouth, and a foul tongue.

## B.—INTERNAL MALADIES WITH SLIGHT FEVER.

Diseases of the second class in which fever does not appear in the earliest stage are: Typhoid fever, measles, croup, diphtheria, and chicken-pox.

In the early stages of these illnesses great depression is the rule; there is weakness of mind and body, with marked inattention. Besides these symptoms, to which may possibly be added high fever, we must also note: in cases of *typhoid fever*, a sort of stupefied expression, continuous pain in the limbs, drowsiness, heaviness in the head, and bleeding of the nose; in cases of *measles*, a dry and persistent cough, constant sneezing, running of the eyes and nose, and brilliancy of the eyes; in cases of *croup and diphtheria*, hoarseness, a peculiar cough with a sound such as might be produced in a metal tube. In addition to this, the bottom of the throat is red and swollen, showing white patches which partly cover the tonsils and uvula. The danger of spreading these last two complaints is extreme. *Chicken-pox* is the slightest of these contagious diseases; it is often only recognisable by the appearance of red pimples on the body, which soon change to spots with little round heads containing humour.

## C.—MALADIES WITHOUT FEVER.

Infectious complaints without fever attending are whooping-cough and acute and granular ophthalmia.

Whooping-cough has at first all the appearance of a cold, only the cough is drier, more persistent, and hacking. The existence of another case in the family simplifies the diagnosis. Later on the complaint can be recognised without any possibility of mistake by certain characteristics.

These are: convulsions caused by fits of continuous coughing, which produce a sort of temporary suffocation, the face becomes purple, the eyes water and the coughing ends in a peculiar sound resembling the crowing of a cock, with vomiting, in which the child brings up a quantity of clear stringy mucous. These attacks cannot be mistaken by anyone who has seen them.

Contagious ophthalmia is recognised by redness of the eyes, swelling of the eyelids and aversion to light, by pain in the eye, and above all by the quantity of suspicious liquid which escapes from the corners and rims of the eyelids.

To the group of non-febrile complaints we must add those diseases of the nervous system the spread of which is not due to any morbid or virulent germ, but which is caused by fear or irritation. These complaints are epilepsy, convulsions, attacks of the nerves, and St. Vitus' Dance or chorea. Children suffering from these spasmodic affections ought at once to be put away from their companions' sight. We think it necessary to enter into this subject at some length, so that the teacher may at once take the necessary steps and describe the symptoms afterwards to the school doctor, when the removal or readmittance of the child can be decided upon.

I. *Epileptic Giddiness*.—The sick child sits down or falls, the face is pale and vacant, the eyes haggard, the upper limbs and features tremble involuntarily; consciousness returns readily after two or three minutes.

II. *Epilepsy*.—The child turns white, often utters a cry, and falls down unconscious and insensible; breathing stops, the body stiffens, then is

violently shaken by muscular contortions. The face becomes purple red, the features are distorted and agitated by convulsive movements, the teeth are gnashed, the tongue is often bitten and torn, a frothy, and sometimes bloody, foam forces its way through the lips with a whistling sound; then, after a time, normal breathing returns, the face grows white and the patient sleeps. The child awakes surprised, stupefied and worn out. These attacks vary in number and duration, even with the same child, and at the beginning it may be in perfect health, continuing so in the intervals.

III. *Nervous Attacks*.—This complaint is less serious and only attacks the elder girls in school. Imitation is a powerful factor in its development. The attacks may be brought on by the slightest contradiction. The symptoms are: general agitation, cries, tears, movements more pronounced than in epilepsy, loss of consciousness, slight or incomplete. The patient should be excluded from school until it has been clearly shown that the crisis was accidentally brought on by some mental trouble and is unlikely to reappear.

IV. *Infant Convulsions*.—In infant classes, convulsions may be produced by various causes, such as emotion, fear, indigestion, worms, &c. The child should be isolated and taken home at once.

V. *St. Vitus' Dance (chorea)*.—There is great danger of spreading this complaint by imitation. It is chronic, and consists in the production of involuntary, irregular, and twitching movements, which may involve the whole body or may be limited to one limb, to one side of the body, the neck, or the face. Sometimes very slight, it may nevertheless reach such a point as to prevent walking and destroy all possibility of voluntary movement. All children suffering from this complaint should be sent away from school and should not be allowed to return till unmistakably and completely cured.

Nervous twitching of the face is a localised form of St. Vitus' Dance, and likewise demands exclusion from school, only, in certain less marked cases, this measure may seem too harsh and decision must be reserved for the doctor.

#### D.—EXTERNAL MALADIES.

In the last class of contagious diseases, we place those which are produced by animal or vegetable parasites existing on the surface of the body. Although a clear description makes it possible to recognise these complaints, it is necessary, in order to justify the exclusion of a suspicious case, that the doctor should confirm the teacher's diagnosis. Whilst waiting for this, it is wiser to isolate the child from its class companions.

These complaints are—(1) The itch; (2) Scalp affections, sub-divided into favus, ringworm and alopecia.

They are recognisable by the following characteristics:—

I. *Itch* (animal parasite).—It is the result of the presence under the skin of a particular parasite, the *acarus scabiei*. Symptoms: Little blisters, transparent at the top, due to the existence of the *acarus*. It affects principally the clefts of the fingers, wrists, armpits, arms, stomach, &c. These little blisters produce desperate irritation, especially at night. They are nearly always scratched by the child, which causes a brown crust to form. There is constantly a little white or greyish trail beneath the surface of the skin, ending in a sort of dark-coloured point, where the *acarus* lives. The itch can be cured in a few hours if properly treated.

II.—*Scalp affections*. Characterised by vegetable parasites. (a) *Favus* (veg.: *achorion*). Generally attacks the head. Symptoms: Little yellowish, circular, unequal cup-shaped crusts, like a piece of honeycomb, hair thin and brittle round these scabs, which may spread over the whole scalp. The irritation is very active. The head has an unpleasant smell. This affection leads to falling-off of the hair and baldness.

(b) *Ringworm* (veg. *trichophyton tonsurans*) appears on the scalp. Symptoms: hair thin, brittle and broken, with less colour than the surrounding hair; from black or brown it becomes reddish or ashen grey; further, the hairs are unevenly broken near the surface of the scalp. The fall of the hair produces a regular tonsure about the size of a florin or larger. The surface of these patches is uneven and rough, and covered with a powdery scurf of a bluish colour.

(c) *Alopecia* (bald patches) (veg. *microsporon*) on all hairy parts, scalp, eyelids, &c. Symptoms: irritation, fall of the hair, preceded often, but not always, by change of colour. The bare patches of varying sizes unite; the skin is soft and extraordinarily white. This complaint, which seems quite harmless, is perhaps the most serious of all the parasitic skin complaints. It remains unobserved for a long time, and may finally leave the body completely deprived of hair.

The habit of children putting on each other's hats is the most common cause of contagion; they should be warned against this reprehensible habit.

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**THE PROVISION MADE IN FRANCE FOR  
CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY  
SCHOOL AGE.**

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## THE PROVISION MADE IN FRANCE FOR CHILDREN UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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### I. CRÈCHES.

#### FOUNDATION AND GROWTH OF CRÈCHES IN FRANCE.

The first crèche was founded in Paris by M. Firmin Marbeau and opened on November 14, 1844. The crèche Ste Marie was entirely the result of private enterprise and was supported by voluntary contributions. It was designed wholly for the little children of working women. "*Pendant que vous gardez l'enfant, le travail garde la Mère.*" It was not free, women were required to pay 20 centimes a day towards the expenses, emphasis being laid on the fact that the crèche was not intended to feed and shelter the children of the indigent poor, but to help those mothers who are obliged to earn their living by working outside their homes.

In 1845 a small pamphlet appeared setting forth the objects, rules and organisation of the crèche de Chaillot and this was awarded a medal and 3,000 francs by the Académie française.

The following year found 14 crèches open in Paris and in many of the large towns of France: Melun, Orléans, Rennes, Tours, Bordeaux, Nantes, Brest, etc. Milan, Brussels, and Vienna had also started crèches after the French model.

In 1847 the Society of Crèches was inaugurated at the Hotel de Ville. (*For rules of this Society see Appendix B.*) Two years later the third public meeting was presided over by M. Dufaure, M. de Falloux, the Minister of Public Instruction and M. Dupin. The same year the work received the warm approval—though unofficial recognition—of Louis Napoleon, President of the French Republic, while M. Thiers openly proclaimed the work of the Society to be a necessary and urgent duty.

In 1852, Louis Napoleon—Prince President—subscribed to the Society 1,000 francs, the Minister of the Interior gave 3,000 francs, the Department of the Seine 600 and the Municipality 1,000 francs.

Still official recognition was withheld from the crèches, although it had long since been given to the *Salles d'Asiles*, which took children from 2 years old to 6. (*See p. 87.*) The question of pauperism raged round the subject. In 1853 the Council of State held a special enquiry, which resulted in favourable reports from the Board of Public Hygiene and Health. Two years later the International Congress of Charity, after close enquiry and discussion, also gave a favourable report, and the following year, on the birth of the Prince Imperial, the Empress Eugenie gave her patronage to the crèches. This was the signal for an Imperial Decree, which was signed by the Emperor Napoleon at the Tuileries on February 26, 1862.

In 1869 the Society of Crèches was further recognised as an establishment of public utility by order dated July, 1869. From this time forward the growth has been rapid. By 1875 there were 29 crèches in Paris, 6 in the suburbs and 100 in other Departments. By 1889 there were 42 crèches in Paris, 18 in the suburbs and 200 in other Departments. By 1903 there were 66 in Paris, 39 in the suburbs and 293 in other Departments, while to-day (1907) there are 68 in Paris, 44 in the suburbs and 322 in other Departments. (*See Appendix A.*)

It is somewhat suggestive to remark here (though the subject is more fully dealt with later) that London, with its 4½ million population has 55 private crèches, while the rest of England has about 19.

#### SUPPORT.

Once the crèche had been recognised as a work of public utility it received generous support from the State, Municipality and Departments. The Minister of the Interior gave grants from 300 to 5,300 francs to 31 crèches in Paris, amounting in the year 1904 to 36,700 francs.

The Ville de Paris gave grants varying from 100 to 7,000 francs to 45 crèches in Paris, amounting in the year 1907, to 167,650 francs. The *Conseil Général* of the Departments gave grants from 400 to 2000 francs to 38 crèches, amounting for the year 1907 to 34,400 francs.

Mothers' contributions from 43 paying crèches amounted in the year 1904 to 57,614 francs.

The Society of Crèches under the Presidency of M. Edouard Marbeau was able to divide the sum of 19,250 francs among 25 crèches in Paris, in the year 1906, besides which there are Subscriptions, Donations, Legacies, the interest on capital, the result of concerts and other entertainments, and a grant from the *Pari-Mutuel*, &c., to swell the funds supporting the crèches.

Besides this the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*," under the Presidency of Mme. Cremnitz supports 4 crèches free, on the most approved lines of hygiene, no expense being spared

#### ADMINISTRATION.

No crèche may be opened in Paris without leave from the Prefect of the Department. The order of the Prefect fixes the number of children to be admitted. Every crèche wishing to obtain a Government grant must send in an application to this effect to the Minister of the Interior through the Prefect. In support of the application must be appended a recommendation from the Municipal Council, two copies of the local rules (*see Appendix C*), the receipts and expenditure of the past financial year, the estimate of the coming year, and a note of the size of the wards and the number of children who attend the crèche.

Every crèche receiving a Government grant must be administered by a Council composed of men and women. It may be joined to a Committee of Ladies, who will assist in collecting subscriptions and who will superintend the working of the crèche.

The Mayor of the locality of the crèche must have a seat on the administrative council with the title of honorary President. Every crèche approved by the Government must keep a register containing the Christian name, surname and age of each child, the name, address and profession of its parents, the date of admission, and the physical condition of the child on entering—a register in which the number of children present each day is entered, a register containing observations and prescriptions of the doctor, and a register for the observations of inspectors and visitors.

Every year the President of the Administrative Council shall submit to the Prefect in duplicate an account of receipts and expenses for the past year with some account of the work done. The Prefect, if he approves, must forward a copy to the Minister of the Interior. The administrative authority will have the right of inspection.\*

Owing to the recent suppression of religious orders throughout France, several private crèches have been closed, and others have been refused Government and Municipal grants. To-day, out of the 68 crèches in Paris, 23 are in the hands of *religieuses*, chiefly the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul. These have ministered free or for a merely nominal wage, and it has been estimated in the reorganisation of expenses that three Sisters would work for the salary of one Directrice.

#### STAFF.

Every crèche is staffed entirely by women, the proportion of attendants to children being about 1 *Berceuse* to every 6 children under the age of 1½ years, and 1 *Gardiennne* to every 12 children between the age of 1½ and 3.

At the head of every crèche is a Directrice. No special training is necessary for this post. Beside the Directrice (called *Surveillante* in a small crèche) is a *Berceuse* and a *Gardiennne*. In a large crèche there is also a cook and a laundrymaid.

#### SALARIES.

The salaries vary according to length of service, locality and size of crèche. A Directrice, in addition to board and lodging, receives from 960 to 1,200 francs a year. A *Surveillante*, in addition to board and lodging, receives 800 to 900 francs. Under the old régime a Sister received about 400 francs a year, where service was not given free. A *Berceuse* in Paris receives 10 francs a week plus the washing of aprons and caps and sometimes food. Cook, laundrymaid, &c., receive 2 francs 50 cents a day.

The following table shows the practical working proportion in six crèches visited personally by me:—

					Wages
To 30 children there were 1 Directrice and 2 <i>Berceuses</i> ...					2365 franca.
" 20 " " " " " 2 " " ...					2432 "
" 30 " " " " " 3 " " ...					3010 "
" 40 " " " " " { 3 " " } ...					4300 "
" 70 " " " " " and 7 in staff ...					6037 "
" 70 " " " " " " 7 in staff ...					5017 "

\* Crèches may be opened in England without leave or right of inspection.

## DUTIES OF STAFF.

The Directrice personally superintends everything and devotes her whole time to the crèche. She chooses the *Berceuses*, pays them, arranges their work, and trains them in the management of babies. She takes the children each morning from their mothers, refusing any who seem ill, and enters the attendance in a register. She has altogether 5 registers in her charge—(1) Containing a full description of the child. (2) Register of attendance. (3) Register of medical inspection. (4) Visits and remarks of *Dames Patronnesses*. (5) Daily receipts and expenses.

The Directrice further satisfies herself that all the children under her care are equally cared for and attended to, that the air of the room is kept fresh and that a uniform temperature is maintained. She goes round daily with the doctor, reports to him on the children's condition of health and sees that his instructions are faithfully carried out. Any special orders are written on a card attached to each cradle or bed. She takes the mother's fees daily and pays all the daily current expenses, she takes care of the linen, repairs it, orders the food, sterilises or boils the milk for the children and in some crèches dispenses it free to the mothers. She superintends and helps in the washing and bathing of the children. Each bath is reckoned at 10 minutes, and from 18 to 20 baths are given daily between 8 and 10 o'clock. Up to the age of 2½ children are bathed daily, after this age 3 times a week in summer and twice in winter. The Directrice arranges with the mothers who are feeding their children and sees that they consult the doctor once a week while so doing.

The *Berceuses* are entirely under the direction of the Directrice. They must be neatly dressed and keep the crèche and utensils clean. They are required to be courteous and obliging to the mothers, to give to all the children the same devoted care and supply all their wants as tenderly as if they were their own children. They must spend their whole day at the crèche, never absenting themselves without leave. They are sternly forbidden to take any gifts or money from the parents under any pretext whatever, under pain of dismissal. The *Berceuse*, whose duty it is to open the crèche must be there at 5 a.m. She must open the windows, light the stove and get the wards to the right temperature (15° C.). The other *Berceuses* come at 6 a.m. when the cleaning of the crèche begins and continues till eight. Then the children are washed, clothed and fed. At 11 a.m. the elder ones have soup and are put to bed. During their sleeping hours the *Berceuses* have their meal. After each meal the children have their hands and faces washed by the *Berceuses*, who also take them to the lavatories, etc. They have to keep the babies' bottles clean and each mouth-piece labelled and kept in a glass of water. The bottles have no tubes. The *Berceuse* has to make the beds and cradles, all of which are raised from the floor.

In many crèches the post of *Berceuse* is much sought after, as after the training under a good Directrice and some years

experience in a crèche the *Berceuse* is well qualified for a situation as nurse in a private family.

The *Gardienne* for the older children superintends them in the courtyard or garden; directs their little games, etc.

Crèche washing is all done on the premises, mostly in the basement. I saw an ingenious device in one crèche where by means of a little sort of trap door the soiled linen was precipitated into the washing tub below. For washing, a laundry woman comes by the day or week according to the size of the crèche.

Here are a few specimen items showing cost of washing:—

For a crèche with 8,617 attendances in the year, washing cost	799 fr.
" " " 14,357 " " " " "	1136 "
" " " 8,494 " " " " "	218 "
" " " 7,125 " " " " "	585 "

These statistics (taken from the *Annuaire statistique de la Ville de Paris* for 1904) are very variable. The amounts do not include the wages of the laundrymaid, nor upkeep of laundry.\*

The cooking is entirely done on a gas stove in the kitchen. Details of feeding are given later.

#### DAMES PATRONNESSES.

With authority over the staff and in almost daily attendance at the crèches are the *Dames Patronnesses*, who may be called managers. Their work is entirely voluntary. They are appointed by the Mayor. There are 20 to 30 for each crèche under a Lady President and they divide among themselves the various duties connected with the crèche. The President arranges for each lady to take a certain number of days or weeks in the year to be responsible for the work; the dates and observations of each visit are entered in a register kept by the Directrice. The Manager on duty visits the families from which the children come and makes enquiries in the cases of new applications, etc. With regard to this enquiry, she first verifies the address given by the mother. This is very important, as not infrequently a mother has left her child at the crèche, given a false address and abandoned it altogether. This is specially the case with an illegitimate child. The Manager satisfies herself that the case is genuine; that the mother is really obliged to work away from home, or that her home work is dangerous to infant life. Once admitted, the Manager has to see that the child is brought as regularly as possible, so that the beds may not remain long unoccupied, and this because there is always a fresh risk of infection, and the children are apt to lose the little discipline they receive at the crèche.

If there is much competition for beds, preference is given to the children whose mothers are regularly employed every day in the week. The Managers also give good advice to the mothers on the subject of feeding their children at home. It has been observed that they are often ill on Mondays, after spending the Sunday at home, owing to careless, irregular, or unwholesome

\* For details of a modern laundry, see Appendix E.

food. Again, in cases of real illness, she can see that the child is under proper medical treatment and that the doctor's prescriptions are faithfully carried out.

Inside the crèche the Manager exercises general supervision. She buys and replenishes the linen and children's clothes, attends to the just distribution of duties, to the cleanliness of the bedding, the preparation of the food, the hours of meals; she checks the receipts and expenditure, and, above all, sets an example of gentleness, tenderness and devotion to the staff; indeed, she often spends many hours relieving the staff, nursing the babies, and playing with the elder children.

Lastly, her moral influence makes itself felt throughout the work. In the words of M. Marbeau, President of the Society of Crèches, "The *Dame Patronnesse* is a mother speaking to mothers: it is her heart that appeals to the hearts of those women whose children she watches over and caresses in the cradles of the crèche. It is she who will succeed in arousing an instinct of the ideal in the mind of the child awakened by the presence of the mother: it is she who will safeguard the dignity and morality of the family, who will encourage those mothers, at times weighed down by the necessity of hard and unproductive work: it is she who will assist the movement of social equality by uniting round the infant's cradle the woman who must work through the day apart from her child, with the mother more favoured by fortune, who has no need of working for her daily bread, but who feels it a Christian duty to help her fellow-creatures."

#### CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

Children can be received into a crèche without distinction of class or nationality, provided their mothers are obliged to work away from home, or that they work at home under unhealthy conditions. They are admitted at the age of 15 days (in the four Crèches under the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*," they are admitted at eight days) and kept to the age of three. They can be kept longer if they are backward or delicate, and not in a fit state to go to the *Ecole Maternelle*.

A mother wishing to place her child in a neighbouring crèche applies to the Directrice for admission, presenting with her application a birth certificate, a certificate of vaccination, or the consent of the parents to subsequent vaccination, the names of persons for reference, and a promise from the mother to observe the rules of the crèche.

These rules must always hang in a conspicuous place near the entrance to the crèche, or in the waiting room. (For a specimen of local rules, see Appendix C.)

The child, if these conditions are satisfactory, must then be shown to the crèche doctor, who will give a certificate of health. If the child is absent through illness for a period exceeding eight days, a fresh medical certificate will be required. After due inspection of the health certificate the child is admitted by the Directrice, or the President of the Committee of Managers.

Each child must be registered on the day of its admission in a register divided into columns with these heads: (1) Surname and Christian name of child. (2) Date of birth. (3) Date of admission and sanitary condition of child as described on the certificate of admission. (4) If fed by mother or bottle. (5) Address of parents. (6) Profession of parents. (7) Date of leaving. (8) Reasons for leaving, and condition of child's health.

The mother is requested to bring the child in a state of cleanliness. While she is feeding it herself she must come regularly to the crèche at least twice a day. She must fetch the child home in the evening before the crèche closes. Access to the wards is usually permitted, on condition that mothers observe the rules of propriety and cleanliness and do not stay long. In some crèches all visiting during the day is forbidden. The mother must always inform the Directrice of the address of her place of business, so that in cases of urgency she can be found at once.

She must pay her contribution (20 centimes for one child and 15 centimes each for two) to the Directrice every morning, and so long as the child is on the crèche register she must show that she is obliged to go to work or is incapable of attending to the child at home.

Illegitimate children are admitted to the crèches after due investigation. But the crèche is not erected to receive those children of whom the mother wishes to rid herself for a few hours.

Several instances are quoted of cases where the enquiry at home has been dispensed with, and the children admitted merely on the application of the mother. One mother brought her baby to the crèche in order that she might exercise her little dog by the fortifications of the town! Another baby was brought regularly on one day in the week to enable its mother—the wife of a young officer—to walk in the country with her husband, unencumbered by the child.

#### FEEs.

With the exception of 9 crèches in Paris and 10 in the Department of the Seine, all crèches demand a small contribution from the mothers. (The 4 crèches under the "*Œuvre Nouvelle des Crèches Parisiennes*" are entirely free.)

The contribution varies slightly according to the average wage of workers within the commune in which the crèche is situated. The average payment is at the rate of 20 centimes for one child and 15 each for two.

In the year 1906 the mothers' payments amounted to the following proportion of the whole:—

				Total receipts.
In Art. IV.	attendances were	7,943,	mothers' payments	1,403 fr. out of 12,988
" XII.	"	7,722,	"	1,481 " " 10,943
" IX.	"	6,958,	"	981 " " 12,754
" XVII.	"	3,561,	"	699 " " 6,516

In the 66 crèches in Paris (1904) the mothers payments amounted to 72,035 francs, the ordinary expenses to be defrayed

being 603,326 francs, hence the mothers' contribution to the support of the crèche amounted to little more than one-eighth of the total expenses.\*

The proportion of children admitted free is small in comparison to those who pay. For instance, in 7 crèches chosen at random, there are 7,191 paid attendances to 750 free; 7,328 to 394 free; 6,542 to 416 free; 3,430 to 451 free; and 5,010 to 758 free.

The French authorities are of opinion that it is impossible to make such an institution self-supporting.

Originally in Paris payment was sternly enforced. When a mother was no longer feeding the child herself she was obliged to bring a basket of food, eggs, milk, etc., to be prepared at the crèche daily. This involved what was considered a salutary sacrifice on the part of the mother. But the food brought in the basket was too often poor in quality, and, from a hygienic point of view, it was considered advisable to feed the child entirely. This was done without increasing the mother's fee.

#### COST OF MAINTENANCE PER CHILD.

If a mother earns about 1 fr. 50 c. to 2 fr. 50 c. a day, she pays about one-tenth of her earnings for the child at the crèche. But this sum is but one-fifth of the whole cost of the child at the crèche per day. M. Marbeau, President of the Society of Crèches, calculates that in Paris and the Department of the Seine the average cost per child per day at the crèche is 1 franc. M. Binet calculates higher, and puts the estimate at 1 fr. 50 c. per day.

The following table gives a selection of crèches in various *Arrondissements*, with their averages, as worked out in their annual reports:—

Rue de la Rochefoucauld (1906)	gives the average cost per day	1 fr. 29 c.
St. Emilie de Clamart (1905)	"	85 c.
(Based on an average of expenses and attendances for five years.)		
Crèche Fourcade (1905)	gives the average cost per day	- - - 1 fr. 33 c.
Crèche de Lyon (1905)	"	- - - 1 fr. 37 c.
St. Marie des Quinze-Vingts (1906)	gives the average cost per day	1 fr. 15 c.
Crèche de l'Etoile (1906)	"	1 fr. 42 c.
Crèche des Batignolles (1907)	"	1 fr. 33 c.

The crèche de l'Etoile, estimating its daily expense per child per day, gives the various items:—Milk, 12 c.; bread, 035 c.; meat, 032 c.; groceries, 039 c.; butter and vegetables, 029 c.

#### FOOD.

Food is supplied entirely free at the crèche. The largest item in the expenditure is milk, which varies considerably, and it is thus difficult to estimate amounts as so many crèches give milk to the mothers in addition to take home.

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\* It is interesting to note in this connection that the new English Day Nurseries charge a much higher rate to mothers, 4d. for one child and 7d. for two.

The following table shows a rough proportion of the articles of food used:—

1.—Attendances, 6,958.		2.—Attendances, 7,722.	
Milk	- - - 858 fr.	Milk	- - - 783 fr.
Bread	- - - 256 „	Bread	- - - 269 „
Butter	- - - 77 „	Butter	- - - 269 „
Eggs	- - - 26 „	Eggs, etc.	- - - —
Meat	- - - 238 „	Meat	- - - 248 „
Groceries	- - - 119 „	Groceries	- - - 304 „
Vegetables	- - - 204 „		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	1,778 fr.		1,873 fr.
	<hr/>		<hr/>
3.—Attendances, 3,961.		4.—Attendances, 11,804.	
Milk	- - - 185 fr.	Milk	- - - 1,980 fr.
Milk given away	- 492 „	Other Food	- - 3,881 „
Other Food	- - 965 „		
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	1,642 fr.		5,861 fr.
	<hr/>		<hr/>
5.—Attendances, 8,466.		6.—Attendances, 10,442.	
Milk	- - - 1,566 fr.	Milk	- - - 1,613 fr.
Other Food	- - 389 „	Other Food	- - 3,216 „
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	1,955 fr.		4,829 fr.
	<hr/>		<hr/>

The last three crèches give milk to the mothers. The milk is sterilised. The amount of milk to be consumed per day for children under one year (artificially fed) is given in Appendix F. The crèche dietary for children from one year to two years varies in different crèches, but an ordinary dietary is:—

- At 10.30 a.m., *panades*\* with eggs and milk.
- „ 3 p.m. brioche and milk.
- „ 5 p.m. milk soup.

Eggs in the soup have recently been added with good results. The crèche dietary for children from two to three years of age is:—

- At 11 a.m., soup, eggs, *purée*, fruit.
- „ 2.30 p.m., bread, chocolate made with milk.
- „ 5 p.m., eggs, slices of bread and jam, and milk.

Vermicelli, *crème de riz*, etc., are largely used, and in some crèches phosphatino is given freely.

#### CLOTHES.

The children attending the Paris crèches are supplied with clothes. These are changed when they arrive in the morning and again when they return home at night. The clothes in which they come are at once taken off and put away in a shelf labelled with the number of the child's cradle or crib. If necessary they are disinfected. The child, after washing, is

\* *Panades*, the universal food for babies in France, consists of bread boiled in water for four or five hours, when hot milk is added and a little salt.

dressed in clothes belonging to the crèche. Some of the elder children, who come in clean clothes, are supplied with pinafores only. These are kept at the crèche and washed at the crèche. The clothes are supplied out of the funds, the material is bought by the managers, and often the small garments are made up at charitable working parties. In addition to the original stock, clothes for the children form a considerable item in each year's expenses.

Here is the proportion taken from 5 crèches:—With a yearly attendance of 8,617 clothing cost 926 fr.; with an attendance of 14,014 it cost 112 fr.; with an attendance of 8,494 it cost 100 fr.; with 7,125 it cost 641 fr.; and with 12,511 it cost 1,061 fr.

The following is a list of garments for starting a new crèche for 35 children of varying ages:—

	Fr.
105 Chemises (3 per child) in 4 sizes at 60 c. - - - -	63.00
70 Swaddling clothes, flannellette, at 1 fr. 25 c. - - - -	87.50
70 " " calico, at 85 c. - - - -	59.50
70 Bibs at 35 c. - - - -	24.50
70 Bodices at 45 c. - - - -	31.50
525 Napkins (15 per child) at 45 c. - - - -	236.25
35 Frocks for day use—striped cotton, at 1 fr. 15 c. - - - -	40.25
6 Doz. pinafores at 18 fr. a doz. - - - -	108.00
210 Handkerchiefs (6 per child) at 15 c. - - - -	31.50
	682.00

The girls and boys in the crèche are usually distinguishable by the different colours of their pinafores, the girls being in pink and the boys in blue. Swaddling clothes are still used for delicate babies up to the age of three or four months.

#### MEDICAL INSPECTION.

The Paris crèches are visited every day by a doctor. The doctors give their services entirely free; there are one or eight, sometimes more, attached to a crèche and it is their turn to visit. Some crèches have a committee of management, with a president and vice-president in order to arrange the work of the crèche. Great stress is laid on these daily visits, being that it is the mission of these doctors not to cure but to prevent it by giving close attention to the health and physical condition of each child individually.

The crèche in Paris has become an arena for the study of infant mortality and a centre for teaching hygiene to mothers.

To some crèches is attached a "Consultation for Mothers," a School for Mothers, to which infants are brought for medical inspection and tables are kept of the weight and physical condition of each child. This is of course for children not in the crèche. The children in the crèche are most carefully weighed every week. The growth for children under one year will be found in the tables. Some startling results have been obtained by the consultations for Nurslings in connection with the crèches. At Varengeville-sur-Mer such an institution exists and

infant mortality (which from 1897 to 1904 had averaged 145 deaths per 1,000), had no death to record of those infants who had received weekly inspection at the Consultation for Nurslings.

In Paris, where infant mortality from 1897 to 1904 had averaged 178 per 1,000, the average for babies attending the Consultation of Nurslings was reduced to 146 per 1,000.

At Fécamp, an infants' dispensary was originated under the name of "A drop of Milk" in connection with a crèche at which good milk was put at the disposal of mothers. This reduced infant mortality 2·8 per cent. M. Budin's experiments in various Paris crèches have had excellent results. In four crèches in various *Arrondissements* of Paris, by careful and systematic feeding and close supervision during the four hot summer months he lost not a single child out of 283.\*

The chief infantile complaints dealt with in the crèches are diarrhœa, meningitis, convulsions, bronchitis, pneumonia, and enteritis. All medicines are given free at the crèches.

A suggestive course of practical hygiene has been given to girls from 17 to 20 at a private crèche for the children of work-people by the founder Mme. Léon Lévy. Taking the girls in groups of eight, Mme. Lévy lectured in the wards of the crèche. The five lectures are given in Appendix G, not so much for their hygiene, which is not quite modern, but for the treatment and arrangement of the course. At the end the girls were allowed to practise washing the babies, preparing the food, sterilising milk, etc. They were subsequently examined by doctors of Paris crèches, who reported very favourably and strongly recommended the scheme to the Managers of other crèches.

The 45 crèches in Paris receiving municipal grants are subject to inspection. In addition to the ordinary Inspectors, a lady Inspector of Crèches has recently been appointed.

All the Paris crèches can be visited without authority by visitors. They are open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. They are closed on Sundays and Festivals, otherwise there are no holidays. Practically they have to be closed at intervals for cleaning or painting or necessary repairs.

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

Though each crèche differs in size and accommodation, yet all the more modern buildings contain in greater or less degree the same number and arrangement of premises. A great many of them are merely private houses adapted for the purpose and some, though recognised centres of hygiene, are sadly wanting in the most elementary principles of sanitation, as indeed are many of our own at home. The new buildings all contain a hall, leading directly to a waiting room where the mothers can feed their babies or wait.

Leading directly from the hall is also the large bedroom for very young babies known as the *Salle des Berceuses*. This is

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\* "The Nursling," by P. Budin, translated into English by W. Maloney, M.B., 1907. It is interesting to note that in three summer months of the same year England and Wales together lost 23,058 infants under one year.

fitted with raised iron cradles arranged in rows with their heads to the wall and pointing towards the centre. The floors are bare, the walls can be washed, the windows are large. A ministerial order of 1897 fixed 9 metres per child as the minimum cube of air for the children's sleeping rooms. In the crèche Fénélon-Charles the *Salle des Lits* containing 36 beds measures 10m. 60c. by 7m. 15c.

The *Salle des Lits* is the bedroom for the larger children with small iron cribs placed in rows along the wall. Every child rests in the middle of the day. In some crèches there are a number of small wards for the elder children, who can be watched through glass doors, without fear of disturbing them.

A large playroom comes next in size and importance. It is often known as the *pouponnière* by reason of this article of furniture which is fitted into every crèche. A circle of wooden railings is fixed to the floor, usually in the centre of the playroom and within them runs another set. Between these two the children can walk and run without danger of falling. Inside are low benches, chairs and little tables, where the smaller children can sit and play with their toys. A large number of little children can be left in the *pouponnière* with safety. (See Appendix N.)

Every modern crèche has its kitchen fitted with a gas stove and oven. A lavatory is fitted with small raised baths and low basins. The water for these is usually warmed by means of a geyser. Many of the bath rooms are tiled as are also the adjoining *cabinets*. There is a linen room fitted with cupboards and shelves for both house linen and children's linen: a small office for the Directrice where the registers are kept; a small office for the doctors with weighing machine, writing desk, etc.: a sterilising room, where also the babies' bottles are kept. All these rooms are on the ground floor. Below usually is the laundry; above are the Directrice's rooms and an isolation room in cases of infection.

No flowers are allowed inside a crèche, but a garden outside is an acknowledged necessity for a modern crèche. The playgrounds are mostly gravelled and planted with chestnuts, with heaps of sand for the children to dig, also sun sheltera.

The beds, bedding and linen required for a crèche of 35 children are as follows:—

		Franca.
1 Cradle	Special cradle, iron (painted blue) - - -	15.50
	Washing cover, unbleached calico, to button - - -	2.25
	Curtains - - - - -	5.25
	Paliasse—linen covered, stuffed seaweed - - -	3.00
	" " " " oat chaff - - -	3.00
	Pillow of white washed horse hair - - -	3.00
15 Complete cradles like above at 33fr. - - -		495.00
1 Crib	Special crib (blue) for a child of over 1 year - - -	6.50
	Mattress striped linen cover best quality - - -	4.50
	Paliasse " " " " " " - - -	4.00
	Bolster stuffed with " oat chaff " " " " - - -	1.00
	20 Crib complete like above at 16fr. - - -	320.00

	Francs.
35 White woollen blankets (for cradles and cribs) at 4fr. 75c. - - - - -	166.25
35 Quilts of white calico (for cradles and cribs) at 2fr. 95c. - - - - -	103.25
35 Waterproof sheets at 2f.10c. - - - - -	73.50
210 Sheets (3 pair each child) 1m.10 by 1m.25 at 1fr. 10c. - - - - -	231.00
525 Napkins (15 each child) at 45c. - - - - -	236.25
210 Pillow cases—unbleached calico, at 65c. - - - - -	136.50
70 Swaddling clothes of flannellette at 1fr. 25c. - - - - -	87.50
70 Swaddling clothes of calico at 85c. - - - - -	59.50
105 Chemises of calico (3 per child) in 4 sizes, at 60c. - - - - -	63.00
210 Handkerchiefs (6 per child) at 15c. - - - - -	31.50
70 Bibs of piqué at 35c. - - - - -	24.50
70 Bodices at 45c.- - - - -	31.50
35 Frocks for day use, at 1fr. 15c. - - - - -	40.25
6 Doz. pinafores at 18fr. a doz., - - - - -	108.00
6 Doz. table napkins at 3fr. a doz. - - - - -	18.00
Linen for the Staff—3 persons non-resident.	
24 Aprons of semi-bleached linen, 1m. 20 wide at 1fr. 75c. - - - - -	42.00
6 Doz. cloths at 8f. 25c. a doz. - - - - -	49.50
3 Doz. towels at 10f. 50c. a doz.- - - - -	31.50
3 Doz. table napkins at 11 fr. 75 c. a doz. - - - - -	35.25
<b>Total</b>	<b>2383.75</b>

(£95 7 0)

The Crèche Fourcade (model) lately rebuilt and equipped cost 194,839 fr. exclusive of site which was presented by the original founders. In the year 1906 the current expenses (as shown in Appendix D) were 21,017 fr. 95 c. The average cost of erection of the five Paris crèches referred to in Appendix M was approximately £80 for each place, exclusive of the work of the site.

Among the chief Paris architects for crèches may be mentioned M. Paul Marbeau, whose crèche, St. Amelie de Charonne, took a silver medal at the Paris Exhibition in 1900, M. Girardin, M. Bechmann, M. Adelgeist, M. Reposeur and M. Charles Dupuy.

In Appendix M will be found plans and cost of building of various crèches in Paris. As the site in most cases has been presented by the founder, this item is for the most part not forthcoming.

#### HOW ENGLAND COMPARES WITH FRANCE IN THE MATTER OF CRÈCHES.

Although it is an acknowledged fact that the conditions in France are wholly different from those in England, the provision for children under the age of three years in this country is wholly inadequate to her growing needs.

A brief comparison will accentuate the neglect.

With a population of over 4½ million, London in 1904 had 55 crèches accommodating in all 1,693 children under three. With a population of 2½ million, Paris had 66 crèches accommodating 2,491 children under three. In other words London had crèche accommodation for one child in every 2,500, Paris had crèche accommodation for 1 child in every 1,000. Whereas the

average attendance in London for each crèche was 21, that in Paris was 28. The crèches in London are private with no aid from State or Municipality, while those of Paris have received both since 1862. London has no registration or system of inspection, while Paris has medical inspection daily and municipal inspection in her crèches. Lastly, the London crèches are distributed quite irregularly, some of the poorest boroughs having none at all, while Paris crèches are evenly distributed among 20 *arrondissements*. Even more startling are the differences outside the capitals. France, not including Paris or the Department of the Seine, has 322 crèches. England, not including London or Greater London, has 19.\*

The large towns of Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bradford, and Bristol, with a population about equal to that of Paris, had 9 crèches between them all in 1904.

#### BRIEF NOTICE OF ENGLISH CRÈCHES.

English crèches or Day Nurseries, are for the most part organised by committees of ladies. They are mostly parochial and supported entirely by voluntary contributions. Few of them are in houses built for the purpose, but mostly in adapted premises. Any private person may open a crèche in England without leave from any public body; crèches are unregistered and under no inspection. Food is supplied to children in all the London crèches, with the exception of those 12 started by the late School Board in 1883, of which 4 only remained in 1904. With the exception of 4 crèches in London all refuse to take illegitimate children.

A movement towards a better condition of things has been recently made by the National Society of Day Nurseries founded in 1906. Its objects are: (1) to assist local committees who are opening and maintaining Day Nurseries on model lines; (2) to make financial grants to Nurseries conducted on lines approved by the Society; (3) to arrange for the inspection of Nurseries by the Medical Officer of Health for the district in which they are situated; (4) to endeavour to affiliate all existing Day Nurseries; (5) to collect information on the subject of Day Nurseries in this and other countries; (6) to publish reports of work done by existing Day Nurseries and to formulate suggestions for their improvement.

Day Nurseries organised or helped by this Society are to be regarded, not for relieving mothers from responsibility, but for providing centres for the teaching of infant care and rearing. Under their auspices a new crèche has been opened at Hammer-smith and one at Fulham, which compare most favourably with those in Paris. Indeed in several hygienic principles (such as swaddling versus free movement, ventilation, &c.), England is admittedly foremost.

In addition to these (and others are springing up rapidly),

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\* Statistics taken from the Report of the Chief Officer of the Public Control Department of the London County Council as to Crèches or Day Nurseries. (P. S. King & Son. 1904.)

there is a Jewish crèche working on excellent lines at White-chapel. Here children are admitted up to the age of five, the compulsory school age, and a Kindergarten teacher takes the elder children for games, &c. The attendances for the year 1906 were 7,668; the expenditure for the same year was £133.

## II. ECOLES MATERNELLES.

Whereas the crèche takes children from the age of 15 days to three years, the *Ecole Maternelle* takes them from the age of two to six, thus the two systems overlap by one year. Both are entirely optional, but while at the crèche there is the nominal charge of 20 centimes per day, the *Ecole Maternelle* is entirely free. Both are open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., though the regular hours of the *Ecole Maternelle* are from 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.

As in the case of the crèche, the origin of the Mother-schools in France was both religious and charitable.

### FOUNDATION OF ECOLES MATERNELLES.

The *Salle d'Asile*, or infants' school, was started in the year 1771 by a French pastor Fred Oberlin at a small village in the Vosges. Here, in a little room, young children were collected together to pray, to sing, to learn a little reading and writing, and some manual work, such as coarse knitting; hence their original name "Knitting Schools."

The idea of educating young children was growing, not only in France. Raikes was establishing so-called Sunday Schools in England; Owen followed with mothers' schools in Scotland in connection with the woollen factories which took mothers from their homes. But before Froebel had established his first Kindergarten (1840) a committee of ladies, with a municipal grant of 3,000 francs, had opened the first infant school in Paris under the name of the *Salle d'Essai*. It was opened in the Rue du Bac with 80 children between the ages of two and six, under the management of the Sisters of Providence. In the year 1828 M. Cochin, Mayor of *Arrondissement XII*, founded a model school on the same lines with a Normal Course attached to it. Soon after this the *Salles d'Asiles* received State recognition and were placed under Government inspection.

In the year 1836 there were 24 such schools in Paris containing 3,600 children with a State grant of 75,000 francs, and 80 in the provinces containing 23,000 children. Twelve years later, in the words of M. Carnot,\* "Infant schools, improperly called charitable establishments, are henceforth establishments of Public Instruction and to be called *Ecoles Maternelles*."

A few years later, rules were laid down for the instruction of the children and no further changes of any importance were made till 1881, when all religious instruction was forbidden. The result of this was that a number of private *Ecoles Maternelles*

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\* "L'Education de la Première Enfance."—M. Gréard

sprang up under the direct management of religious bodies and supported by voluntary contributions, all State aid being withdrawn.\*

#### STAFF.

The *Ecoles Maternelles* are staffed entirely by women. At the head of every school is a Directrice. She is helped by a number of assistants depending on the number of children in the school. The proportion allowed is one assistant to every 40 children. Thus on July 1st, 1906, there were in Paris 170 *Ecoles Maternelles* (public) containing 45,910 children, 169 Directrices and 672 assistants to 767 classes. This gives an average of 270 children in each school, but the attendance is very variable.

The private schools are smaller and more amply staffed. On July 1st, 1906, there were 46 schools in Paris containing only 6,706 children, an average of 124 children in each school.

#### SALARIES.

The Directrice of an *Ecole Maternelle* must possess a *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*.† She enters on her duties at a scale of salary of the 4th class, that is 2,400 francs (paid by the State), minus 5 per cent. deducted for pension, plus *indemnité de résidence* 1,090 francs, plus *logement* 800 francs (paid by the Commune), giving a total of 4,200 francs. This is according to the new scale of salaries dating from April, 1905.

After a period of from three to five years of satisfactory conduct, on the recommendation of the *Inspecteur d'Académie* to the *Préfet de la Seine*, she is promoted to the 3rd class, in which she receives, under the same conditions as before, 2,400 francs salary, plus 1,300, plus 800, giving a total of 4,500 francs. In the 2nd class, to which promotion takes place under the same conditions as before, she receives 2,400 francs, plus 1,600, plus 800, or 4,800 francs; finally, in the 1st class, she receives 5,200 francs.

At the end of 25 years service as Directrice, or at the age of 55, she can retire on her pension, which amounts to half her salary minus the sums paid by the Commune.

The salaries of the assistant mistresses are paid in the same way and under the same conditions. They begin (in Paris) at 2,200 francs, *i.e.* 1,100, plus 500, plus 600, and rise to 3,200 francs, made up of 1,600, plus 1,000, plus 600.

The *Femmes de services*, chosen and dismissed by the Directrice, are paid by the Commune at the rate of about 1,000 francs per year rising to 1,200.

In addition to these there are the *Concierges* at the lodge.

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\* For a further account of the *Ecoles Maternelles* see "The *Ecoles Maternelles* of Paris," by Miss Mary S. Beard, in Vol. 8 of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects* published by the Board of Education, 1902.

† For particulars of this, see "Summary of the Official Regulations affecting the Training and Position of Teachers in State Primary Schools in France," by Miss H. E. Matheson, in Vol. 18 of *Special Reports on Educational Subjects* (1907).

They attend to the whole group of schools, but part payment comes into any annual financial statement.

The Budget for 1907 gives the total expenses of the staff for the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris at 3,145,198 francs, made up as follows:—

	Francs.
Directrices and assistants	2,265,176
Salaries and indemnities of residence	-
Indemnities to teachers with more than five years service in } 1st class	18,300
Promotions, etc.	41,234
<i>Créations d'emplois</i>	11,325
<i>Indemnités de logement</i>	439,700
Wages of concierges, etc.	29,963
Wages of <i>femmes de service</i> , supply (sick)	270,500
Various indemnities, rewards to staff, etc.	2,500
Thursday classes	65,000
Various	1,500
	3,145,198

#### DUTIES OF THE STAFF.

The Directrice, who must be over the age of 25, is appointed by the Prefect under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction on the nomination of the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

It is somewhat difficult to define the duties of a position such as this. In the words of Mme. Pauline Kergomard, *Inspectrice Générale des Ecoles Maternelles*, "The *Ecole Maternelle* is a large family: the Directrice is the mother of a great number of children." A ministerial circular accompanying the re-organisation of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in 1905 sets forth the general trend of duties required in a Directrice.

"The object of the *Ecole Maternelle* is to give children under the school age such care as is required for their physical, intellectual and moral development, and to prepare them to profit by the primary instruction which follows. It is not a school in the ordinary sense of the word: it should be a passage from the family to the school: it should combine the charm and tenderness of family life with the work and regularity of school. A successful Directrice of the *Ecole Maternelle* cannot be judged by the amount of knowledge imparted, by the standard attained, by the number or length of lessons given, but rather by the good influences surrounding the child, by the amount of pleasure it takes in coming to school, by its orderly habits, cleanliness, politeness, attention, obedience and the general intelligent activity it displays while playing at games. Consequently the Directrice should occupy herself less in attempting to hand over to the primary school, children already far advanced in their education, than those well prepared to receive that education. Everything in the *Ecole Maternelle* should be arranged according to this general principle; the Directrice should strive to develop the various faculties of the child without weariness, without compulsion, without too much application; she should make the children love their school and love their work, never forcing them

to do those things which are incompatible with the weakness and activity of early childhood.

The object to be attained, after due consideration of their different temperaments—the precocity of some compared with the slowness of others—is not to force all alike up to a certain standard in reading, writing and reckoning, but rather to make them understand what they know and to create in them a love of their tasks and their games; above all, to see that they do not take a dislike to their first school tasks, which may so easily become distasteful to them, unless the Directrice, with patience enjoyment and love, enlivens them to give pleasure to the child.

Good health, hearing, sight, touch, already trained by a gradual succession of little games and little experiences fitted to train the senses; infant ideas, but clear in the first elements of what will later be elementary education; the beginnings of habits and customs upon which later on the school can build; a taste for gymnastics, singing, drawing pictures, little recitations; an eagerness to see, to observe, to imitate, to question and to answer; a certain faculty of attention, nurtured by skilful management, confidence and good nature; finally, intelligence awakened in the mind opened to good and moral impressions—such should be the results of the first years spent at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. And if the child arrives at the primary school with such preparation, it matters little whether it adds to this a few pages of its spelling book or not.”

Such morally is the attitude of the ideal Directrice.

Practically she has various duties to fulfil. She must keep various registers: (1) a register of the names of the children, date of birth and leaving, names, homes and professions of parents, with a column for observations; (2) a register for doctors' observations, (3) a register of attendances per month; (4) a register of stock, etc. These should always be at the disposal of the Primary Inspector and the Departmental Inspector or Inspectrice of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. On the arrival of the children in the morning, the Directrice has to ascertain that each is well. If a child is brought ill, she need not admit it. If it becomes ill in the course of the day, it is taken home by the *femme de service*.

The Directrice also makes it part of her duty to see that the child is clean. Great stress is laid on this in the *Ecole Maternelle*. In the hall of every school is a lavatory, with an open set of low basins with hot and cold water laid on. Here every morning and again at 1 o'clock the children, superintended by the *femmes de service*, wash their hands and faces. There is a growing feeling that it is not enough to have the hands and faces only clean, when the rest of the person is dirty. One school visited by me (Rue Lamarck) had a newly arranged bath room with four small baths, which were used on Saturday afternoons from 4 to 7, when some 30 children are bathed.\*

The Directrice inspects the baskets brought by the children

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\* For details of Bains-Douches, see Appendix J.

who stay for the day; she sees that each has a spoon and serviette and something suitable to drink.

She also sees that each child has brought a pocket handkerchief. Failing this most necessary possession, many schools have introduced paper pocket handkerchiefs invented by Dr. Calmette, Director of the Pasteur Institute at Lille.

The Directrice receives the pence of each child who stays to dinner and whose parents can afford to pay. She keeps the list of those who are fed free of charge. She supervises the school cantines. The hours of service arranged for the Directrice and her assistants is given in Appendix K.

No Directrice may absent herself without leave from the Primary Inspector and without notifying the same to the Inspectrice of *Ecoles Maternelles*. For an absence of three days, leave has to be obtained from the *Inspecteur d'Académie* and for eight days from the Prefect who is always President of the Departmental Council.

#### PUNISHMENTS.

These are arranged by the Directrice on a system prevailing in all the *Ecoles Maternelles*, but not entirely approved by the authorities. Children are given "good points" as rewards of good conduct. These take the form of squares of card, which are kept in little bags or pockets hung round the children's necks. They are won in various ways. For instance, on arrival in the morning, children show hands and pocket handkerchiefs; if these are satisfactory they receive a "good point." At the end of each month these pieces of card representing "good points" are exchanged for a picture or toy—25 "good points" receive a reward. At the end of each month for general good behaviour and morals the children receive a *croix de mérite*, which they wear in school.

No corporal punishment whatever is allowed. The only punishments permitted are a short suspension of games and renunciation of good points.

#### PRIZES.

Prizes are forbidden in the French schools, but they are nevertheless given to the children of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. The children are dressed up in their best clothes and wear garlands of artificial flowers on their heads, often made by themselves, and a *délégué cantonal* gives away pictures and small books to each child. This gratifies parents and teachers, but is not much approved by the authorities.

#### ASSISTANTS.

The assistant mistresses are entirely under the Directrice. They must be over the age of 17 and hold the *brevet de capacité* for primary education. Each has a separate class of children, and a great deal depends on the ingenuity and child-love of the individual teacher. The assistants help with the

midday meal if required, but those not wanted are obliged by the rules to go home to dinner. The school hours are very long and the assistants take it in turns to stay over time.

For division of hours see Appendix K.

#### FEMMES DE SERVICE.

The *femmes de service* are a most important addition to the staff of the *Ecoles Maternelles*. They are appointed by the Directrice with the consent of the Mayor and paid by the Commune. There is one at least in every school and two if the numbers justify it. Their duties are very various. They sweep out the school every day with sawdust and a liquid disinfectant. The *femme de service* opens the school at 8 a.m. in winter and 7 a.m. in summer for any children whose mothers go early to work. She looks after them till the Directrice and assistants arrive at 9 o'clock. She then personally superintends the children *aux cabinets* every morning and again at 1 o'clock.\*

The *femme de service* also washes the children's hands and faces, where they are too young to perform this office for themselves, and she helps to wait on them at their school dinner. She is, in fact, a most valuable institution for young children.

#### CONCIERGE.

The concierge and his wife belong to the whole group of primary schools—boys, girls and infants. They live at the school lodge and open the door into the street. In some cases the wife of the concierge cooks the dinners at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. The concierge has to light and extinguish stoves, attend to the gas and see to the windows.

#### DAMES PATRONNESSES.

As in the case of the crèche, a committee of ladies is appointed to superintend the general working of the school and specially to visit at the homes of the children. About 20–40 are annexed to each school. They are appointed by the *Inspecteur d'Académie* on the recommendation of the Mayor, who presides over the Committee meetings.

#### CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

The *Ecole Maternelle* is optional and free. Children of both sexes are admitted between the ages of 2 and 6. They must produce a note of admission from the Mayor of the Commune. Any child demanding admission must present a medical certificate stating whether it has had smallpox and certifying that it is suffering from no infectious complaint or any infirmity of a nature likely to injure the health of the other children. Parents

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\* This, from an hygienic point of view, is of the greatest importance and is greatly neglected in English infant schools. A highly trained teacher can hardly be expected to perform menial services for the small children though indeed they often do.

are requested to keep to the rules; they are expected to escort children under 4 to the crèche; after that age, and on written authority from the parents or guardians, children are allowed to come and go alone. Mothers are specially asked to bring the children clean, and to pack in their school basket a spoon, serviette, some bread and wholesome drink.\*

#### SUPPORT.

The parents pay nothing toward the support of these schools, the expenses of which are defrayed by the State, the Department and the Commune. The various grants and their conditions are somewhat complicated, but briefly stated:—The State gives a grant toward the construction, which construction for an *Ecole Maternelle* is calculated at 18,000 francs. This grant in the case of an *Ecole Maternelle* is optional, though it is compulsory in the case of a primary school. The State pays teachers' salaries and pensions, the salaries of Inspectors, Inspectrices and the administrative staff; it gives grants to the *Caissees des Ecoles* and towards the teachers' medals.

The Department pays general administrative expenses, pays for prizes and medals and gives grants to the *Caissees des Ecoles*.

The Commune (and every commune containing 2,000 inhabitants must have an *Ecole Maternelle* or a *Classe Enfantine*) pays the board and lodging of teachers, the repair of school buildings, warming and lighting, wages of the *femmes de service*, furniture and stock, stationery and registers, and gives a grant to the *Caissees des Ecoles*.

#### CAISSEES DES ECOLES.

This society practically represents the private enterprise that operates in connection with the primary schools in France.

Originally an informal association originating in Paris (*Arrondissement II.*) in 1849 to aid in obtaining extra school funds, the institution grew in importance till in the year 1882 there were 62 *Caissees des Ecoles* in Paris and the Department of the Seine with a capital of 820,000 francs.

So great was its sphere of usefulness that in 1882 an establishment of the *Caissees des Ecoles* was made compulsory in every commune or collection of small communes by the Municipal councils of France with a grant varying with their respective needs. In 1902, France had 17,439 such societies with a general expenditure of 6,700,385 francs. At the close of 1905, the society had spent 2,490,856 francs on the primary schools in Paris alone.

The society is composed of ordinary members paying from 10 to 15 francs a year, founders paying about 100 to 200 francs in advance, and donors subscribing various sums.

The administration is directed by a committee elected every three years. It includes always the Mayor as president, deputy Mayors, members of the *Commission municipale scolaire*,

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\* The children mostly bring wine—often spirits—rarely milk.

three members of the delegates of the canton, the Justice of the Peace for the *arrondissement*, and thirty elected members from the list of general subscribers. The committee itself elects a vice-president, secretary, under-secretary, and treasurer. Added to these are the *Dames Patronnesses* of the schools, who have the power of voting, and a body of *Dames Déléguées* to distribute the help voted by the Committee. Meetings take place once every two months with an annual meeting of subscribers to consider the yearly report of the work, which is then forwarded to the *Inspecteur d'Académie*.

The object of the Society is to encourage the attendance at school, whether compulsory or optional (as in the case of the *Ecole Maternelle*), to destroy every motive or pretext for absent children by providing clothing and boots for necessitous children, to give wholesome food to children attending the public elementary schools. The Society originated the *Cantines Scolaires*, still financed by them with special grants for this purpose. In 1906 the Municipality of Paris gave 1,000,000 francs to be divided among the *Caisses des Ecoles* for the *Cantines Scolaires* of Paris. These include the *Ecoles Maternelles*.

The Society dispenses medicines in the schools. (See p. 104.) It also rewards in various ways the families of the children at school, so as to stimulate parental responsibility, to encourage good conduct and assist deserving teachers.

The *Colonies de Vacances* are under this organisation. Several of the local societies have started *Colonies Infantines* to enable children from the *Ecoles Maternelles* to go into the country. Towards the expenses of these *Colonies de Vacances* in *Arrondissement V.*, the Municipal Council of Paris gave a grant of 10,300fr., 100fr. of which was spent on *Colonies Infantines*.

In addition to the work done by the *Caisses des Ecoles* with regard to children's holidays, there is a Society, the "*Cœuvre Parisienne des Colonies Maternelles scolaires*," founded by teachers of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris, for sending children under six for a month into the country. In 1901, 90 children were sent at a cost of 7,772 fr., toward which expenses the General Council of the Department of the Seine gave 1,000fr., the Municipal Council 300 fr., the Minister of the Interior 300fr., and the *Caisses des Ecoles* 950fr.

#### HOLIDAYS.

With regard to the holidays at the *Ecole Maternelle*, the schools are open every day except Sunday and in some cases Thursday. The schools are also closed on the following days:—

The day after All Saints' Day.

December 31st, January 1st and 2nd.

Shrove Tuesday.

Thursday in mid-Lent.

Days of Commune *fêtes*.

The day following the *Fête Nationale* (July 14th).

Ten days at Easter, from the Thursday before Easter Day to the Sunday following.

These days are in addition to the school holidays for the staff.

Although none of the staff are required to attend on Thursdays, a band of auxiliary teachers in Paris has been formed to superintend on that day those children whose parents are out and who would otherwise be exposed to the dangers of the streets.

#### CLASSES DE JEUDI.

Originally this subject was taken up by the *Caisse des Ecoles* experimentally in five *arrondissements* of Paris, and classes were formed on Thursdays in the *Ecoles Maternelles* and Girls' Schools. These classes were only accessible to those children whose parents were ill or working away from home all day. Each class was composed of 40 to 50 children. The ordinary time table was not kept, but the children were taught games, sometimes taken for walks, and generally occupied or amused. In 1896 the subject was taken up by the Municipal Council of Paris, which had already given a grant of 40,000 francs to the *Caisse des Ecoles* for purposes of organisation. A band of auxiliary teachers was recruited, consisting of 225 women and 75 men, to undertake the supplementary work, together with any regular assistants who liked to officiate. These classes are not formed in every school, but there will be one or two to a group of several. It is open, if necessary, from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but usually only in the afternoons. The auxiliary teachers get a fixed salary of 900 francs a year and an additional 2fr. 50c. for each day on supply.

In 1904 the sum of 884,850 francs was spent on the expenses of the auxiliary force, which also manages the *Classes de Vacances*.

#### CLASSES DE VACANCES.

Until 1905 the *Ecoles Maternelles* were only closed for one month in the summer. Now the whole staff has a right to six weeks during August and September. If the school is situated in a good neighbourhood it is entirely closed; if, however, it is in a poor part and the parents are away all day, a holiday school is opened. This is done at the request of the Municipal Council and on the recommendation of the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. The position is well summed up thus: "Holidays are indispensable to teachers, but they are full of grave inconveniences to the children of the working classes, who are exposed to the dangers of the street during a long period. The *Ville de Paris* has solved the difficulty by holiday courses. During four or six weeks the doors of the school are open to these children. Arrangements have been made to give these poor disinherited little ones some of the amusements which fall to the lot of their more favoured comrades. The morning is taken up with attractive games, the afternoon is reserved for walks and rambles. Those teachers who do this supplementary work receive 7fr. 50c. a day in addition to their salary. During the vacation the *cantines scolaires* continue."

## FOOD.

Food is provided at the *Ecole Maternelle* for those children whose parents cannot or will not provide dinners at home. About one third of the children at the *Ecole Maternelle* stay, and the rest go home. In October, 1906, out of 34,912 children attending the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris, 10,346 were being fed—29·6%. The expenses for these schools are not given separately, but the Municipal Council in 1906 gave a sum of 1,000,000 frs. to the *Caisse des Ecoles* for the *cantines scolaires* in Paris.

Some children bring 10 centimes for their dinner—some 20 centimes. The sum is variable according to the school and neighbourhood. About a third of the children pay and two-thirds have dinners free. In 1905, the number of portions distributed was:—

Free	-	-	-	6,144,634.
Paying	-	-	-	3,184,669.

The list of those who are fed free is kept by the Mayor. No child, except under unusual circumstances, has a free dinner unless both parents are earning less than 4 fr. a day.

Great emphasis is laid on the importance of feeding the children attending the *Ecoles Maternelles* separately. The food at the central cantines is not suited to their age and digestion. Hence there is a kitchen attached to most of the schools, where the food is carefully prepared.

The children sit on low benches with backs and the food is spread on low tables. The soup is served in little metal pots and each child has its own spoon, napkin, bread and drink. The children are served by *femmes de service* with the Directrice or an assistant to superintend. Not only is stress laid on the physical benefit of good food but on the educational value of manners and refinement with regard to eating.\*

Various menus are given in Appendix L, some of which, at 10 centimes a meal, pay their own expenses. But some of the authorities do not approve of so much meat for young children. It has been ascertained that a child under the age of five does not require meat. Mme. Kergomard's sketch of suitable food for children of the *Ecole Maternelle* is suggestive.

"In the menu we should propose for the *Ecoles Maternelles*, and above all for the little ones, milk forms a considerable proportion. Rice and milk, potato flour and milk, *purée* of potatoes and milk, semolina and milk, tapioca and milk, maize flour, oat flour, buck wheat and milk—all these foods are excellent for children who have but recently finished teething, and who are subjected to much too advanced feeding through the ignorance of their parents. Later, we would give eggs cooked in a digestible way for these little people to eat. Dried vegetables, very wholesome if well cooked, should always be reduced to a *purée*; macaroni might take its place once a week

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\* Mme. Girard, *Inspectrice des Ecoles Maternelles de la Seine*, quotes small children drawing the corks of their wine bottles with their teeth.

if the children like it. As for meat, we should only use it to add its special nutritive elements to those of the vegetables, as long as it is neither grilled nor roasted. We would make excellent soup of beef, but only the biggest children should eat boiled beef itself. Lard is useful in preparing lentils, potatoes and haricots, making them more nourishing and tasty, but few children like lard. Soups we should always give with conviction. But we are not contented with soup only at mid-day, we want to see it given in the morning and again at four o'clock, especially in winter. What a boon this would prove to all the little stomachs!"

Many of the large towns in France are spending large sums on feeding the young children in the *Ecoles Maternelles*. Rennes, in 1903, spent 11,000fr. on feeding the children in their schools, where the average attendance was 3,369.

Marseilles has made all the feeding free at the *Ecoles Maternelles*. St. Etienne charges 15 centimes and adds wine—1 litre to fifteen children.

#### CLOTHING.

Clothes are supplied to the children of the *Ecoles Maternelles* by the *Caisses des Ecoles* in cases of need, and after due investigation. Every Monday morning the Directrice and her assistants inspect the children's clothes, boots, stockings, frocks and underlinen. The parents are earnestly requested to supply warm and suitable clothes, but failing this, necessary garments are supplied by the Society. The number of clothes and their prices are usually put under the same head as those supplied to the primary schools for boys and girls. But in one *arrondissement* of Paris containing seven *Ecoles Maternelles* and 1,499 children, the Society gave away in the year 1906, 432 pairs shoes at 3fr. each, 170 frocks at 4fr. 50c. each, 196 *pantalons* at 3fr. each, and 237 pinafores at 1fr. 65c. each, costing in all 3,040fr. 05c. The accounts for this year amount to nearly 1,000fr. in excess of this. At Christmas quantities of warm clothes are given away to the children either from this same source or by private charity. To put the child in sympathy with the environments of the school is one of the main objects of the *Ecole Maternelle* and this is held to be impossible if the child is ragged, dirty or uncomfortable. An experiment tried at a school where baths have been established is suggestive. It was found to be impossible, after bathing the children, to re-dress them in their dirty, often ragged chemises, or shirts. Application was made to the Inspectress of needlework and she had the necessary articles supplied from the girls' schools, thus giving the children a change of linen, often lacking in very poor homes.

With regard to paper pocket handkerchiefs supplied to children in some schools, these cost one sou a dozen. The system is as yet in its infancy.

#### SCHOOL PROGRAMME.

The methods of teaching and the occupations of the *Ecoles Maternelles* are in a somewhat transitional state in France as

they are in the English Infant schools. It will therefore seem most fair to give the Instructions adopted by the Departmental Council of Primary Education in 1895, the Ministerial circular issued by the Minister of Public Instruction to the Prefects and *Inspecteurs d'Académie* in 1905, and a scheme of lessons taken from a Directrice's note book for June, 1907, showing the work on a practical basis.

The Instructions for 1895 suggest that the teaching should include:—

*Games* and graduated movements accompanied by songs. These should take place either in the hall or outside in the courtyard. Teaching of singing will include songs in unison and songs in two parts; the mistress will always start them with a tuning fork.

*Manual work.*—This will consist of plaiting, weaving, folding, pricking, unravelling little bits of coarse knitting, threading beads, making little buildings of cards, straw, cubes, sand, etc. Sewing and other work of a tiring nature to young children is forbidden.

*The first principles of moral education* should be given, not so much by means of connected lessons, as by the help of familiar conversation and the recitation of poetry calculated to inspire children with a sense of devotion toward their homes, their country, and their God. These principles should be independent of all religious instruction.

*Knowledge of everyday things.*—This should be taught by means of conversation, giving elementary ideas about clothing, food, man, animals, plants, stones; form and colour; division of time, seasons, cardinal points; France and the principal countries of the world. The teaching should be given with the help of real objects and pictures.

*Lessons on Language* by means of recitations and stories with the idea of accustoming children to express in simple and correct language what they have seen and heard, of enlarging their vocabulary in proportion to their development, intelligence and needs.

*Drawing.*—The first elements will include combinations of lines by means of little sticks, the reproduction of these on slates and blackboard, with easy designs and the reproduction of familiar objects and simple ornament on slates and paper.

*Reading* not to be attempted by children under five. The teacher should dwell, not on difficult combinations of letters, but on common words and simple sentences. As soon as possible children should have movable letters by which to learn.

Mme. Kergomard advocates children beginning with their own Christian names and learning letters in this way.

*Writing.*—No instructions, except that no child under five should begin.

*Arithmetic* should include the formation of numbers from 1 to 10 and 10 to 100 by the help of objects put into the children's hands, such as sticks, marbles, coins, etc. The first four rules of arithmetic up to 100 by means of tangible objects and the

representation of numbers by figures with simple application of the metric system (metre, litre, etc.). Children should be well practised in mental arithmetic.

Note.—All stories and conversation, taken as much as possible from pictures, should be restricted to scenes of infant life and should inculcate love of country. Intellectual and manual lessons should be taken alternately, each should last 20 minutes. They should always be divided by songs, free movements, marching or gymnastics.

The *Method* of carrying out these Instructions is given in every copy of the Rules supplied to Directrices of *Ecoles Maternelles*. "This process of education should be conducted in the spirit of an intelligent and devoted mother. As it is not proposed, in the *Ecoles Maternelles*, to form or exercise any one set of faculties to the detriment of others, but to develop all harmoniously together, there is no need to follow punctiliously any of the special methods which must exist in a system at once exclusive and artificial. On the contrary, it will be the best plan to take the simplest suggestions out of each part, and so to form by the help of these various elements a course of instruction and education which will respond to the needs of a little child and bring all its faculties into play. The work should be as varied as possible, the object lessons—conversation, singing, first attempts at drawing, reading, reckoning and recitation—should all be separated by physical exercises, games of all sorts and gymnastic movements. The method should be essentially natural and familiar, always alive to modern progress, capable of improvement and reform."

The following shows a more detailed programme for Sections 1 and 2. The first includes the *Classes Infantines* when annexed to the *Ecole Maternelle*, admitting the child up to the age of seven.

### SPECIAL PROGRAMME.

#### SECTION 2. CHILDREN FROM 2-5.

##### *First Principles of Moral Education.*

Special attention given to development of good habits in children, to gaining their affection and promoting harmony.

First notions of right and wrong.

##### *Lessons in Language.*

Lessons in pronunciation. Exercises to enlarge the vocabulary of the children, songs, fables, etc., learnt by heart, questions.

#### SECTION 1. CHILDREN FROM 5-7.

Simple talks throughout the day on work and play. Little pieces of poetry explained and learnt by heart. Little moral stories related, followed by questions to see if children have understood. Little songs. Special attention to any growing fault in individual child.

Lessons combining language, reading and writing preparatory to spelling. Familiar questions, teaching children to answer plainly, correcting faults of pronunciation and local accent. Learning by heart, recitation of short pieces of poetry. Written exercises—first dictation of one word, then two or three, then short sentences. Little stories told by teacher and afterwards related by the children.

*Object Lessons. Knowledge of Common Things. First Notions of Natural History.*

Names of the chief parts of human body, chief animals of the country, plants used for food or known by children (trees in court, in street; familiar flowers). Name and size of objects under the eyes of children (food, clothes, home, etc.). Study of colours and forms by means of games. Notions of day and night. Observations about time, hour, day, week. Age of child. Attention drawn to the differences of heat, cold, rain and fine weather. Observations on seasons, etc. First education of the senses by little exercises, to recognise and compare colours, tints, forms, lengths, weights, smells, temperatures, sounds.

Elementary lessons on the human body, little lessons on hygiene, comparative study of animals known to child, plants, stones, metals, air, water, snow, ice, rain, etc. Little lessons of objects under the eyes of children and in their hands. Familiar talks to teach children everyday knowledge—right and wrong, names of days and months, differences between animals, vegetables and minerals, seasons, above all to induce them to look about, observe, compare, question and remember.

*Drawing. Writing. Reading*

Games of cubes, balls, sticks and coloured bricks. Explanation of very simple pictures.

Little combinations of lines by means of sticks.

Representation of these on slate.

No writing or reading.

Combination of lines, representation of these combinations on slate or paper with pencil or coloured chalk, little original drawings<sup>6</sup> on paper ruled in squares, reproduction of very simple designs drawn by teacher. Representation of common objects. First lessons in reading and writing letters, syllables and words.

*Arithmetic.*

Familiarise children with numbers 1 to 10. Mental calculation with these numbers.

First elements of oral and written numeration. Little exercises of mental arithmetic; addition and subtraction up to 100. Explain whole, half, quarter, etc. First four rules with these numbers. Metre, etc.

*Geography.*

Home and address of parents, name of commune, ideas of distance, relative parts of the school. Earth and water. Sun, rising and setting.

Familiar talks and little preparatory exercises to rouse spirit of observation in little children. Point out natural phenomena, etc.

*Manual Work.*

Games. Little exercises in folding, weaving, plaiting, etc.

Combinations of colour in wools, canvas or paper; elementary knitting.

*Singing.*

Simple singing in unison.

Singing in two parts learnt by ear.

*Gymnastics.*

Marching, circles, games with hoops, balls, rhythmic movements, action games with song.

Continuation of games for Section 2. Formation of ranks, marching, assembling, etc.

## MINISTERIAL CIRCULAR, 1905.

Two years ago the Minister of Public Instruction addressed an important ministerial circular to the Prefects and Inspectors of the Académies of France relating to the *Ecoles Maternelles*. It was inspired entirely by the reports of the Women Inspectors, who drew attention to the serious mistakes that were being made with regard to infant education. They urged strongly that the *Ecoles Maternelles* should be neither nurseries nor elementary schools, but merely centres where young children could be prepared for school. The circular draws attention to the various causes which have contributed to this evil. A few of the most important are these.

(1) The programme is too ambitious and loses sight of the physiological and intellectual development of childhood. It presupposes an amount of culture and knowledge that few teachers possess. Therefore each teacher is invited to prepare a daily time-table better adapted to the age, character and development of the children as well as to their local environment. There must be no sedentary work. No two intellectual lessons must be consecutive; both manual and intellectual work must be separated by 15 minutes of free movement.

(2) Regarding the sections. In most schools there are three sections (children from two to three, from three to five, and from five to seven years of age), and only two assistants, hence the youngest children are left with the *femme de service*, who may or may not have notions of hygiene and cleanliness. The other two sections, instead of working in parallel sections including children of the same age, are for the most part mixed, this arrangement being more convenient for teachers. The rule of sections should be rigidly kept.

(3) The inspection of *Ecoles Maternelles* is almost exclusively performed by men. These are too apt to judge the school by its progress in reading, writing and arithmetic, attaching quite a secondary importance to cleanliness, manners at table and general behaviour at games, &c. They forget that the best school is that where clean habits are usual and where happiness and health, animation and life go with order, work and regularity.

(4) Parents and teachers are responsible for the mistakes committed by the *Ecole Maternelle*. The first, through ignorance, think they are right in insisting that their children shall learn to read and write before they can speak properly or understand what is said to them. The head masters and mistresses of Primary schools, not recognising the danger of premature intellectual effort and little desirous themselves to teach the three Rs, depreciate the efforts of the Directrices of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in those cases where the children sent up cannot read or write. It is important to remind Primary Inspectors to keep to the spirit rather than to the letter of the law as regards the *Ecole Maternelle*.

In compliance with these new regulations the Directrices now make their own time-tables. Here are the notes of two days' work in both sections by Mme. Leroy for June, 1907.

## CHILDREN FROM TWO TO FIVE.

*Saturday, June 1.*

*Little Talk.*—The pocket handkerchief. What is it? What is its use? “*Moucher; cracher.*” Each must have one. How to use it. Unfold, “*se moucher,*” refold.

*Manual Work.*—Fold square of thin paper into two, then into four, then eight for a diagonal.

*Game of Skill.*—To walk about the class room balancing a ball on head.

*Recitation.*—Poor nest. (Mlle. Brès.)

<i>Un oiseau dans la haie</i>	<i>La brebis de la plaine</i>
<i>En vain cherche son nid,</i>	<i>Répond: “Ce n'est pas moi.</i>
<i>Et se plaint et gémit</i>	<i>Moi qui laissais pour toi</i>
<i>D'une voix desolée:</i>	<i>Les flocons de ma laine</i>
<i>“Quels voleurs, quels méchants</i>	<i>Aux feuilles, aux rameaux</i>
<i>M'ont pris mes chers enfants?”</i>	<i>De tous les arbrisseaux.”</i>

*Instructive Game.*—Make a hole in some rounds of paper, run a string through the holes and make them fly.

*Drawing.*—Flat solids, three bricks and four half bricks. Combinations first shown, then done by children free. The best put on black board.

*New Song.*—“*Pif-Paf.*” 66 action songs for schools, by Mlles. Brès et Collin.

*“Pif-Paf est un pantin, en bois peint*  
*Très drôle et très malin,*  
*Il lave sa frimousse, sitôt en se levant, se levant*  
*Et ne craint pas la mousse du savon écumant*  
*Il débrouille et puis lisse ses cheveux avec soin, avec soin*  
*Alors quoiqu'il pâtisse, Pif-Paf ne pleure point.*  
*Tous les matins, il lrosse ses habits, oui vraiment, oui vraiment*  
*La tache la plus grosse s'efface lestement.*  
*Il mange son écuelle, sans jamais verser rien*  
*Pif-Paf est un modèle, tant il se conduit bien*  
*Il est moins grand en somme moins grand qu'un vrai marmot*  
*Mais il salue en homme en levant son chapeau.*  
*Dès que la lampe brille le soir et qu'il fait nuit*  
*Pif-Paf se déshabille et se couche sans bruit.*  
*Il dort quand même ou cause dans la chambre alentour*  
*Il dort paupière close et s'éveille au grand jour.”*

*Monday, June 2.*

*Little Talk.*—The house, the kitchen. Let child describe it. What can we see? Kitchen fire, table, etc. The use of each object. What does mother do? Each child? Cat? Children should help their parents without complaining.

*Manual Work.*—Winding wool for a flower in the shape of balls.

*Game of Skill.*—A race with boxes on head, several at a time.

*Object Lesson.*—What is your bed made of? Take the mattress as subject of lesson. Is it horsehair or combings of wool? Demonstrate. Make a little doll's mattress.

*Instructive Game.*—To unravel some wool and make a little mattress with paper.

*Drawing.*—Solids for height. A tower, most solid at base. Other free combinations.

*New Song.*—*Pif-Paf.* Last four lines.

## CHILDREN FROM FIVE TO SEVEN.

*Saturday, June 1.*

*Little Talk.*—The house as in Section 2.

*Reading Lesson.*—Deal with endings in ar, or, ur, er, our, oir, eur, œur.  
*Le pêcheur a vendu le poisson. La vapeur fait marcher le bateau et le chemin de fer. J'aime papa et maman de tout mon cœur. Mon père a fait le tour du monde. Ma soeur a été sage: ma tante lui donnera une poupée.*

*Instructive Game.*—The children practice rising from their benches, two couples at a time, without making any noise : they get up on to the bench and sit on the desk. Which is the quickest ?

*Manual Work.*—A periwinkle, mauve paper.

*New Song.*—Hear each separately.

*Writing.*—Very steadily—the number 20.

*Recitation.*—“The little chicken,” already begun.

*Object Lesson.*—The fruits of the season, cherries, strawberries. How do we eat them : raw or cooked or made into jam ?

*Game of Skill.*—Two and two play at ball.

*Drawing.*—A bunch of cherries and strawberries in coloured chalks, red and green.

#### Monday, June 3.

*Little Talk.*—Papa. What he does for his family, his departure every morning. The work he does every day. His fatigue, his privations. How children can be pleasant to him, obey him and love him. Papa is always happy when he has good children.

*Reading lesson.*—Revision of lesson on ar, or, ir, etc.

*Instructive Game.*—To cut the corn, hay, cabbages, and shake down the nuts.

*Manual Work.*—Little hats in straw.

*New Song.*—“The fly” : beginning

“*Ecoutez ce léger bruit zizizizizi.*”

*Writing.*—Number 21.

*Recitation.*—“The little chicken.”

*Arithmetic.*—From numbers 80–90. Addition having the number 7 as result. Thus, 1 plus 6, 2 plus 5, 3 plus 4, 4 plus 3, etc.

*Game of Skill.*—Throw ball through a circle.

*Drawing.*—Anything seen in the morning.

#### THE IDEAL

Lastly, to sum up from the words of *Mmes. les Inspectrices des Ecoles Maternelles*. The child in a very poor family is a little disinherited being to whom the *Ecole Maternelle* owes life under happier conditions, conditions under which rosy cheeks, sparkling eyes, and merry laughter are possible. The child is cold and hungry, it is poorly clad and dirty, it is unhappy and unloved.\* The *Ecole Maternelle* owes it food and warmth, cleanliness and tidy clothes, joy and tenderness. Children should always live in an atmosphere of joy—a child ought to laugh as a bird ought to sing. If the child develops naturally it is happy, for it carries within it a source of joy spontaneously evolved. It should be the object of the *Ecole Maternelle* to render infant life happy and joyful, and free.

This object cannot be achieved without health. The French have translated Herbert Spencer's words: “*La première condition du succès dans le monde, c'est d'être un bon animal, et la première condition de la prospérité nationale, c'est que la nation soit formée de bons animaux.*”

#### MEDICAL INSPECTION.

The question of medical inspection of *Ecoles Maternelles* is still under discussion in France. No medical inspector can enter a school without leave from the Prefect. In 1883 about 126 medical inspectors were appointed to inspect the children of the national schools twice a month, at a salary of 800 francs

each a year, paid by the municipal councils. Their instructions were to report on the general condition of the children, and to see that the rules of hygiene were observed.

The following clause occurs in a Ministerial Circular of 1905, addressed by the Minister of Public Instruction to the Prefects and *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, relating to the *Ecole Maternelles* :—

“It is an imperative duty for the Administration to nominate a medical inspector and to see that he rigorously fulfils the duties devolving on him. An *Ecole Maternelle* badly administered may become a source of danger with regard to infection and infantile maladies. He must see to the school lavatories, etc., satisfy himself that the desks are suitable to the size of the children, arrange the cantine menus to the age of the children, procure the necessary disinfectants for cleaning the school. At times when anxiety with regard to public health and questions of general hygiene are taking a foremost place in the public mind, I attach the very first importance to the suggestions contained in this circular.”

Every *Ecole Maternelle* has its own medicine chest (supplied at the cost of 53 francs), containing, among other things, bandages, arnica, plaster, cotton-wool, etc.

The *Caisses des Ecoles*, acting on the advice of medical inspectors, dispenses to the delicate children cod liver oil, iron, phosphatine. In 1906-7 one *arrondissement* spent 1,800 fr. in medicines given to 1,000 children. With regard to medical inspection of Paris schools, it must be remembered that there is a free dispensary for children in every *arrondissement*, toward the support of which the municipality gives grants varying from 450 fr. to 6,500 fr. Here children from the schools can have baths, hair cut and washed, medical advice with regard to teeth, eyes, ears, etc., while a free distribution of cod liver oil is made to necessitous children in the winter.

#### GOVERNMENT INSPECTION.

This is authoritative by Inspectors (general), Rectors and *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, Inspectors of Primary Education, Members of the Departmental Council appointed for purposes of inspection (stock, hygiene and premises, not education), and the Mayor and Delegates from the cantons. Concurrently with these authorities for the *Ecoles Maternelles* are the *Inspectrices Générales* and the *Inspectrices Départementales*, nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction. They are under the *Inspecteurs d'Académie*, they inspect the *Ecoles Maternelles* both public and private, they direct special inquiries, give advice on the promotion of teachers, etc. There are at present four *Inspectrices Générales*, five attached to special inspections in the Département de la Seine, and one *Inspectrice primaire* (Montpellier). These receive salaries at the same rate as Inspectors.

#### PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

These are also under Government inspection. Owing to the suppression of religious orders in France, numbers of private

schools are closing, and statistics are not forthcoming up to date. In the year 1896 there were 3,350 private *Ecoles Maternelles* in France, containing 283,095 children. Private schools receive no grants from State, Department or Commune. No private school may receive children if there already exists a public school or infant class, without leave from the Departmental Council. The same rules apply with regard to age and sex as in public schools. No one may teach in a private school under the age of 17. Registers must be kept which shall be seen by the *Inspecteur d'Académie*. Every person wishing to open a private school must notify the same to the Mayor of the Commune enclosing a plan of the premises. Anyone opening a private school without leave is liable to severe penalty. Religious instruction is optional. Most of the *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris are conducted by the Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul.

The *CaisSES des Ecoles* contribute nothing to the private schools, but there are numerous private subscriptions to provide the children with food and clothing.

#### BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The *Ecole Maternelle* forms part of a group of buildings, including boys' and girls' elementary schools, though it is entirely separate from them. The name is usually engraved on the street door, and a flag invariably flies over the building. This includes an entrance hall where the parents can wait, leading into the large hall. This should be 4 m. high and allow 0 m. 80 (surface) for each child; the floors are boarded, the walls distempred a plain colour. It is warmed by a stove of metal or terra cotta surrounded by an iron railing. At one end of the hall is the children's lavatory. This consists of a number of low basins in two rows or a circle, in the proportion of one basin to every ten children. Soap and towels are provided. The hall is also fitted with cupboards containing clothing for the children; there are shelves for their baskets, and pegs for their clothes; also low tables and benches.

There are several class-rooms fitted with desks. In one of the schools visited by me three class-rooms were fitted with 72, 56 and 48 desks respectively. Each class-room is also fitted with a cupboard where all the materials are kept. There is also a mistress' desk and a blackboard.

Nearly every school has its little kitchen to cook the children's dinners; it is fitted with a gas stove. There is also a small office fitted with desk and drawers for the Directrice. Here is usually a great display of articles made by the children.

Outside is a courtyard planted with young chestnut trees. It is mostly gravelled, and plentifully supplied with low benches for the children. The size is calculated at three metres per child; never less than 150 metres altogether. In one corner of the courtyard, screened off by trees and connected with the main building by a covered way, are the *cabinets*. These are divided into compartments, one to every 15 children.

The cost of building these is included in the estimate for the whole groups of buildings, but the current expenses are given in the budget of the Ville de Paris. In the year 1904 these were—

Staff - - - -	2,697,708 fr.
Material - - -	209,736 fr.
Divers expenses-	341,851 fr.

Total expenses *Ecoles Maternelles* 3,249,295 fr.

In the same year the number of public *Ecoles Maternelles* in Paris was 166, containing 47,814 children.

#### COMPARISON OF ECOLES MATERNELLES AND ENGLISH INFANT SCHOOLS.

The age of admission for the *Ecole Maternelle* is 2 to 6, whereas in the Infants' School it is 3 to 5, optional and free. The *classes enfantines* receive children up to 7 as do the Infants' Schools in England. In many country schools children are not admitted at all till the age of five.

In the *Ecoles Maternelles* the children are fed and to some extent clothed. In the Infants' School, the child is neither fed nor clothed, except where relief committees are at work, and thus the proportion is very small. In the *Ecole Maternelle* the child can stay all day from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. In the Infants' School the child must not arrive till 9 a.m., it must leave the school between 12 and 2 and it goes home at 4 p.m. (With a mother at work, all day, this is hopeless from an hygienic point of view.) In the *Ecole Maternelle* medicines are dispensed free. In the Infants' School there is no arrangement for this. In the *Ecole Maternelle* an untrained but respectable servant is always on the spot to look after the children at lavatories, &c. In the Infants' Schools children from 3 to 5 are left to themselves or put under the charge of an elder child. In the *Ecole Maternelle* provision is made for the children on their weekly holiday, Thursday, and if necessary during the summer holidays. In the Infants' Schools there is neither provision, though a few holiday schools now exist in London.

The *Ecole Maternelle* is less of a school than the Infants' Departments, there is less discipline, less sitting in desks, the children walk naturally rather than march, they stand in groups rather than in lines, and sing as they enter and leave the class-room. Their games are more varied, there is more playing of ball in class-room or courtyard, there are more toys—horses, carts, spades, buckets.

Indeed Mme. Kergomard, *Inspectrice Générale des Ecoles Maternelles*, would like to see each child bring its own toy to school in the morning. The children spend a longer time in the playground, which they have entirely to themselves. I saw teachers sitting in the playground with needlework while the children played, school being slack in July with many away in the country.

Their manual work consists largely in making artificial flowers, unravelling (abolished by the late School Board for English children), plaiting paper and straw, cotton embroidery in perforated card, threading beads, making rag dolls, paper envelopes, woolly balls, etc. Every school has a cupboard of infant productions to show, of commendable variety.

On the other hand the French school buildings cannot compare with those constructed for the infants in England. The halls here are brighter and airier, the ventilation is better, the pictures on the walls are prettier. Our children march, sing and dance to the music of a piano, unknown in Paris schools, which is infinitely more enspiriting than a tuning fork. The fresh flowers which adorn our schools are never seen in a Paris school, neither are the many pots of growing seeds and bulbs or the bowls of fish, visible in the schools. Another feature adding to the gloom of the *Ecole Maternelle* is the black dress invariably worn by the Directrice. Her assistants are also in black and many of the children wear black pinafores. Lastly one regrettable blemish still remains in our infants schools which has long since vanished from the *Ecole Maternelle*, if indeed it ever existed, *corporal punishment*. There is no doubt it is high time this was absolutely forbidden for children aged from three to seven.

#### GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

It is evident that two such institutions for the care of young children under compulsory school age, such as the crèches and *Ecoles Maternelles*, originating from different sources and managed by different administrations must have a few obvious defects. This difference in origin and administration constitutes in itself a grave disadvantage, and one that is readily acknowledged by the authorities dealing with both institutions.

Undoubtedly both crèche and *Ecole Maternelle* should be under the same roof.

Again, though both receive municipal grants, there is no connection between the two. Organisation, management, food, rules, the training of directrices, salaries, duties, occupations are entirely different; hence needless suffering for a child passing from one to the other.

The crèche is emphatically a nursery, from which children are often transferred at the age of two. From being washed, clothed, fed, and attended by a trained attendant with but twelve children to look after, it is taken to the *Ecole Maternelle* where the teacher has forty children at least to attend to, and where individual attention is practically impossible. It has to sit on a hard bench longer than is good for a child of two, and it gets no sleep in the daytime.

The training of teachers for the *Ecoles Maternelles* is quite unsuited to the demand of these schools, viz., the care of children from two to six.

Again, there is much waste of opportunity. Owing to the different administrations it is impossible for girls in the upper

standards of the elementary schools to gain that experience in the management of babies that seems so necessary in these days of threatened physical deterioration. The lectures given by Mme. Léon Levy in the crèche at Montluçon are suggestive.

#### SUGGESTIONS.

Lastly in the event of any provision by way of Day Nurseries being made for the young children under compulsory school age in England (and the present waste of child life as shown by the tables of infant mortality is lamentable) the following points may be borne in mind:—

The Day Nurseries in the large towns should receive the children of working mothers as well as ignorant and indifferent mothers from the age of fifteen days to five years.

Payment should be made by these mothers.

The Day Nursery should be part of the Infants' School and under the same head. It should consist of two sections, the first from fifteen days to three years under a trained nurse, the second from three to five under a teacher who shall have had three months' training in a children's hospital.

The whole Infants' School should be visited by lady doctors and be under Government inspection.

Each Day Nursery should be under a committee of ladies as managers, only with responsible duties.

The girls from the upper standards of the elementary schools should receive some training in the management of young children. This might be combined with the Housewifery course.

Girls of the elementary schools should learn to make garments for crèche use, and should do some of the washing and cooking.

Private Day Nurseries should be encouraged on the same lines in which the girls attending the Non-Provided Schools might practise. They also should be under Government inspection, preferably by women.

M. B. SYNGE

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## APPENDIX A.

PROPORTION OF CHILD POPULATION UNDER COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE (6) PROVIDED FOR IN CRÈCHES AND ECOLES. MATERNELLES. (1904.)

## PARIS.

Arr.	Crèche (public).	Beds.	Crèche (private).	Beds.	Ec. Mat. (public).	Children.	Ec. Mat. (private).	Children.	Population (1901).
I.	1	40	1	25	2	288	-	-	63,209
II.	2	65	-	-	3	859	-	-	63,485
III.	1	38	-	-	5	1,361	-	-	88,839
IV.	1	20	2	105	9	2,008	-	-	99,182
V.	3	100	-	-	7	1,403	4	656	117,320
VI.	1	30	1	25	4	669	-	-	100,185
VII.	-	-	3	140	5	726	4	339	98,500
VIII.	-	-	2	70	2	104	3	539	102,625
IX.	1	40	1	20	3	654	2	280	120,842
X.	2	60	-	-	8	2,219	1	289	154,693
XI.	2	53	1	25	15	4,142	2	461	233,697
XII.	2	80	1	20	10	3,491	5	584	128,956
XIII.	4	169	2	100	10	4,387	2	220	126,508
XIV.	3	180	1	36	10	2,924	4	416	139,739
XV.	3	110	1	30	12	4,459	6	365	152,099
XVI.	2	55	1	30	5	898	2	169	117,087
XVII.	4	95	3	160	11	2,650	5	730	199,338
XVIII.	3	107	1	50	15	4,865	4	842	247,460
XIX.	4	134	2	75	13	3,986	2	628	143,167
XX.	4	157	-	-	19	5,721	3	556	163,601
	43	1,533	23	911	168	47,814	49	7,074	2,660,559

*Summary.*

In 1904 there were 43 public + 23 private Crèches accommodating ... ..	2,444 Children
In 1904 there were 168 public + 49 private Ecoles Maternelles accommodating ... ..	54,888 "
	<u>57,332</u> "

In 1896 there were 157,205 Children under 6 in Paris.  
 In 1896 there were 2,666,873 { Children between 2 and  
 6 in France (M. Bédorez).  
 In 1896 there were 4,636,381 { Children between 6 and  
 13 in France.

PROPORTION OF CHILD POPULATION UNDER COMPULSORY  
 SCHOOL AGE PROVIDED FOR IN CRÈCHES AND ECOLES  
 MATERNELLES.

FRANCE.

In France (1907) there are 322 Crèches in the Depts., 68 in Paris, 44 Dept. de la Seine ... ..	434 Crèches.
In France (1897) there were 2,509 { Ecoles Maternelles } { (public) containing }	454,474 Children
In France (1897) there were 3,350 { Ecoles Maternelles } { (private) containing }	283,095 "
Total - - 5,859	<u>737,569</u> "

The average per 1,000 children in Ecoles Maternelles between the ages  
 of 2 and 6 for the year 1897 is 2.2.\*

\* Page 23, Statistique de l'Enseignement primaire, 1904.

## APPENDIX B.

## RULES OF THE SOCIETY OF CRÈCHES, FOUNDED IN 1846.

## I.—OBJECT AND MEMBERSHIP OF THE SOCIETY.

Art. 1.—The object of the Society is : (1) To help to found and to maintain Crèches ; (2) to perfect and extend the institution of the same.

Art. 2.—The Society is composed of Titular, Honorary, and Corresponding Members.

Titular Members are all persons who, admitted by the Administrative Council, pay a yearly subscription of not less than 6 francs.

The title of Honorary Member is given by the Administrative Council for services rendered to the Society or to the Institution of the Crèches.

The title of Corresponding Member is given to persons who, not residing in Paris, maintain a connection with the Society by helping to carry on its work.

## II.—ADMINISTRATION OF THE SOCIETY.

Art. 3.—The Society is managed by a Council consisting of fifty titular members appointed for six years. A sixth part of the Council is renewed annually.

Art. 4.—The Council elects for three years a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Censor, an Assistant Censor, a Secretary-Registrar, an Assistant Secretary-Registrar, a Director of Expenditure, an Assistant Director, a Treasurer, and an Assistant Treasurer.

Elections take place by ballot, according to the strict majority of votes.

Art. 5.—The Council is responsible for the moral and material management of the Society.

It meets at least four times a year. The attendance of a minimum of eleven members is necessary to render any resolution valid.

Decisions relative to the acquisition, transfer, or exchange of property, and to the acceptance of donations or legacies, are subject to the previous authorisation of the Government.

Art. 6.—In the intervals of the meetings of the Council, its functions are carried on by an Administrative Committee composed of officers mentioned in Art. 5 and of four other members of the Council nominated by election and also appointed for three years.

Art. 7.—The Administrative Committee meets every month. Five members constitute a quorum. Official reports of its meetings are always communicated to the Council.

Art. 8.—The President represents the Society ; he directs the working of the Council and of the Committees : he has the casting vote, and may convene extraordinary meetings of the Council and of the Committee.

Art. 9.—Members of the Council and of the Administrative Committee may be re-elected.

All the functions of the Society are gratuitous.

## III.—REVENUE AND FINANCE.

Art. 10.—The funds of the Society are obtained from :—

1. The income derived from any property in its possession.
2. Annual subscriptions.
3. Donations from Honorary and Corresponding Members—and all other persons.
4. Grants and legacies which the Society is legally authorised to accept.
5. Subsidies granted by the authorities.

6. Money collected upon special occasions, fêtes, concerts, exhibitions, etc.
7. The sale of any books or works offered to the Society with this object, or published by the same.

Art. 11.—The treasurer is responsible for the receipts, expenditure and all that has to do with the accounts. He makes a report of his dealings after each transaction.

Art. 12.—One-twentieth part of the receipts is set aside every year to form a reserve fund which is invested in Government stock or in French railway shares.

#### IV.—GENERAL MANAGEMENT.

Art. 13.—The Society annually holds a public meeting, of which the programme, determined by the Council, includes a report on the transactions and conditions of the work.

No report or address may be read at the annual meeting, and nothing published, which has not previously been examined and approved by the administrative Committee or the Council of Administration. The report is published and addressed to M. le Ministère de l'Intérieur, to M. le Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, to M. le Prefect de la Seine, and to M. le Prefect de Police.

Art. 14.—Private Rules, drawn up by the Council of Administration, determine in detail the measures necessary for the enforcement of the Statutes.

Art. 15.—No alteration in the statutes can be considered otherwise than at a special meeting, and on the motion of five members of the Council; it can be adopted only at a second special meeting, and after securing two-thirds of the votes.

It is subject to the approval of the Government.

Art. 16.—In the event of the breaking up of the Society, the Council of Administration will determine, subject to the approval of the Government the manner in which the funds will be disposed. This disposal will have to be in conformity with the object of the Society.

APPENDIX C.

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SPECIMEN COPY OF RULES FOR CRÈCHES.

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FOR MOTHERS USING THE CRÈCHE.

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Open from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

I.—AGE.

Children are received at the Crèche from the age of three weeks to three years.

II.—CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

1. Birth certificate.
2. Vaccination certificate.
3. Certificate of health from M. ——. Consulting hours 12.30 to 1.30 daily
4. Mother's address.
5. Address of employer. This must be given to the Directrice when the child is brought.

III.—MOTHER'S OBLIGATIONS.

The mother must bring her child regularly in a clean condition. After illness or absence of eight days the child must have a fresh certificate from the crèche doctor before re-entering. If the mother is feeding her child she must attend for this purpose at least twice a day.

IV.—RESTRICTIONS.

A waiting-room is put at the disposal of the mothers. They are advised not (sometimes forbidden) to go into the play-room or bedrooms, but to see their children through a glass door.

V.—GENERAL RULES.

The Directrice has complete authority in the crèche. She is authorised to admit the children every morning—she can refuse those who seem ill. She need not admit those whose mothers do not submit to these rules.

VI.—COMPLAINTS.

All complaints to be addressed to the Lady President—address———

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APPENDIX D.

DETAILED EXPENSES OF CRÈCHE FOURCADE (MODEL) FOR  
CURRENT YEAR, 1906.

	frs.	cs.
1. Insurance and taxes - - - - -	723	55
Repairs - - - - -	1,562	50
2. Staff—Wages of directrice - - - - -	1,200	50
" <i>berceuses</i> - - - - -	3,895	50
Gratuities - - - - -	170	50
3. Food—Milk - - - - -	1,870	70
Other provisions - - - - -	4,308	50
4. Lighting - - - - -	424	40
5. Warming - - - - -	1,554	60
6. Water - - - - -	325	20
7. Laundry - - - - -	674	80
8. Furniture - - - - -	1,030	15
9. Linen and clothes - - - - -	2,114	40
10. Chemist and disinfectants - - - - -	175	90
11. Sundries - - - - -	549	15
Christmas tree - - - - -	357	10
Administrative expenses - - - - -	80	50
	<hr/>	
	21,017	95
	<hr/>	

## APPENDIX E.

DETAILS OF LAUNDRY FOR 25 CHILDREN MAKING 7,722  
ATTENDANCES IN A YEAR OF 297 DAYS.

- 15,741 napkins (5 per day, 1 month to 7 months ; 3 per day, 7 months to 12 months ; 2 per day, 12 months to 16 months).
- 13,959 towels (4 per day, 1 month to 7 months ; 3 per day, 7 months to 12 months ; 2 per day, 12 months to 16 months).
- 1,904 sheets (3 per week, 1 month to 7 months ; 2 per week, 7 months to 12 months ; 1 per week, 12 months to 16 months ; 2 per month, 16 months to 3 years).
- 1,976 pinafores—2 per week.
- 1,976 handkerchiefs—2 per week.
- 50 mosquito curtains.
- 594 housecloths—2 per day.
- 624 aprons for *berceuses*—4 per week.
- 624 blouses for *berceuses*—4 per week.
- 136 caps for *berceuses*—1 per week.

COST OF MAINTENANCE.

	frs.	cs.
Wages of <i>berceuses</i> , 297 days at 2 frs. 50 c. - - - - -	742	50
Firing - - - - -	96	
Water - - - - -	33	80
Soap, soda, etc. - - - - -	84	
Interest at 4 per cent. on 5,000 frs. spent on building laundry -	200	
Upkeep - - - - -	100	
	1,256	30

It is estimated that washing on the premises is an economy, and that washing of crèche sent to public laundries would amount to just double above sum.

APPENDIX F.

TABLE OF INFANT GROWTH DURING FIRST YEAR.\*

Mois.	Poids.	Accroissement en poids		Taille	Accroissement par mois	Quantité de lait par jour
		Mois	Jour			
Nais- sance	3k250	"	"	50 c/m	"	"
1	4 "	750 gr.	25 gr.	53	4 c/m(sic)	600 gr.
2	4 750	750	25	56	3	650
3	5 450	700	23	58	2	700
4	6 100	650	22	60	2	750
5	6 700	600	20	62	2	800
6	7 250	550	18	63	1	850
7	7 750	500	17	64	1	900
8	8 200	450	15	65	1	950
9	8 600	400	13	66	1	950
10	8 950	350	12	67	1	1,000
11	9 250	300	10	67 50	0 50	1,000
12	9 500	250	8	68	0 50	1,000

Pendant les douze premiers mois de son existence un enfant, nourri au sein, ou autrement, doit, chaque jour, augmenter de poids suivant le tableau ci-dessous :

Mois .....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Augmentation en grammes ...	30.6	31	27.4	22.4	18.14	14.8	12.8	11.4	11	8.4	7.4	5.6

\* From the *Bulletin of the Société des Crèches.*

## APPENDIX G.

SYLLABUS OF LESSONS ON THE CARE OF INFANTS, GIVEN BY  
MME. LÉON LÉVY, AT CRÈCHE ST. JACQUES, MONTLUÇON.

## FIRST LESSON.

*In the Linen-Room.*

Indispensable articles of a layette.

For infants under 1 year—chemise with sleeves, a bodice, a flannel waist bandage, swaddling clothes and napkins.

For infants over 1 year—a chemise without sleeves, a flannel waist-bandage, a petticoat with bodice drawers, a dress or pinafore.

*Principles.*

(a) Always to sacrifice neatness to comfort.

(b) See above everything that the child is free and unconstrained.

Freedom for the circulation of the blood and liberty of movement. No tight strings, no pins, and above all no needles.

Do not forget its tender skin and soft bones, its brain—the skull does not protect it—the spinal column; why the child is better lying down.

*Clothing.*

For choice—linen, calico and wool—of good quality, strong and dyed. Cleaning and mending, washing, dry in the open air. Do not iron what touches the body. No lace.

*The Use of Clothing.*

For warmth, chills, sweats—light head covering, large shoes, the lower extremities to be kept warm.

## SECOND LESSON.

*In the Kitchen.*

Bear in mind :—

(a) A milk diet exclusively, till the child is at least 7 months old, and longer still if teething is backward.

The sterilisation of milk. Bottles, easy to clean; mouth-pieces, easy to clean, to be soaked in clean water. How to choose and keep them clean.

(b) The diet should be almost entirely liquid till teething is over. Add to the milk lightly cooked eggs, milk soups, ground barley, ground rice, vegetable flours, broths, and *panades*.

(c) Regular bottles and meals promote good digestion; a meal every 2 hours till the age of 3 months, then a meal every 3 hours till the age of 3 years.

(d) Ascertain by weighing, and not by guessing, that the weight of the child shows increase by about 1 oz., then by  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz., then  $\frac{3}{4}$  oz., after the age of one year by at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz., per day. Weigh the child in a cloth at the baker's every month, and divide the weight gained by 30, to ascertain the average gained each day.

*Indigestion.*

(a) *Sickness.*—A child may sometimes throw up its milk immediately after a meal without being ill. It means that it has taken too much milk at a time or taken it too quickly. A child that throws up curdled milk sometimes after a meal has not digested it. Mix lime water with its milk or give it a spoonful of Eau-de-Vichy before each bottle. In this case leave more time rather than less between the bottles.

- (b) *Diarrhœa*.—When a child has no longer the solid and yellow evacuations of a healthy state (too constant and too liquid) dilute the milk with rice water or lime water. On a doctor's advice give a few drops of tincture of paregoric.
- (c) *Constipation*.—A child should have at least one movement every 12 hours. If not, dilute its milk with barley water, give doses of camomile or a spoonful of liquid honey.

### THIRD LESSON.

#### *In the Bath-room.*

Hygiene of the skin. The skin should act as well as the lungs. Cleansing baths, water with lather of soap; strengthening baths, salt water; quieting baths, lime and starch; invigorating baths, bran. Observe: A bath can be given in a wash-tub every day in water at a temperature of 37° C. (i.e., about 96° Fahr.) warm to the hand without fear of the child catching cold, if it is well dried. Powder it afterwards with flour wherever needed.

Take particular care of its eyes, nose, and ears. Lotions and hot compresses of boracic water and camomile, or plain boiled water.

Keep the hair short, wash and soap the head every day. Rub with a soft brush dipped in spirits of wine and glycerine.

Clean the brushes and combs with ammonia water. Each child should have its own comb and towel. Avoid sponges, use *coton hydrophile*.

The cleaning of w.c.s, disinfection. Cess pools, ventilation.

### FOURTH LESSON.

#### *In the Bedrooms and Pouponnat.*

Concerning bedding—Its composition and maintenance; fresh air; position of bed. Lay the child on its side. Never in the same bed as a grown-up person, horizontal position the best; cleanliness; avoid rocking.

#### *The Pouponnière.*

Choose games without danger. Freedom of movement in a guarded place. Avoid staircases, corners, fire, matches, boiling water.

### FIFTH LESSON.

#### *Hygiene and Medicine for Infants.*

- (a) *Diarrhœa*.—Regular milk diet. Lime water. Rice water.
- (b) *Ophthalmia*.—Avoid draughts. Bathings and lotions of warm water and water with boracic and camomile. (NOTE.—Explain their contagion.)
- (c) *Small Pox*.—Vaccinate before the age of 3 months. (NOTE.—As early as possible.)
- (d) *Ulcerations*.—Extreme cleanliness—dry well—powder with lycopodium. (NOTE.—Here it would be well to speak of ringworm and its infection and need of prompt care.)

Symptoms by which one recognises :—

- (a) Measles.—Running eyes—cold—cough—rash.
- (b) Whooping cough.—Continuous nervous cough without bronchial sounds.
- (c) Croup.—Cough with loss of voice—grey spots in the throat. The child cannot say "one."
- (d) False croup.—Hoarse cough that yields to fomentations of boiling water on the neck.
- (e) Scarlet fever.—Sore throat—sickness—headache. In all these illnesses isolate the children as soon as possible and send for the doctor.

*Remedies for the following Accidents.*

- (a) *Blows, Contusions.*—Compress of arnica. (NOTE.—Clear water is preferable to arnica—which sometimes produces eruptions.)
- (b) *Burns.*—Compress of pueric acid, or failing that exclusion of the air by a clean greasy substance or a tight bandage to exclude air.
- (c) *Hemorrhage* (from the nose).—A dose of antipyrine, one grain at most.
- (d) *Dislocated Joints.*—Paregoric. Dose of bisimuth (on a doctor's order).
- (e) *Convulsions.*—Mustard plaster to the legs, half a spoonful of syrup ether—or rubbings over the chest with ether—tepid baths of lime—dose of camomile.
- (f) *Cuts and Wounds.*—A good washing of very hot water. (Boiling water is antiseptic.) Suck the wound. Join the edges with bands of plaster. (NOTE.—Goldbeater's skin and gummed lustering are better than diachylum.) Cause them to be sewn up if necessary. Bandage carefully. Do not touch any wound except with scrupulously clean hands and nails.
- (g) (h), (i) *Broken Bones, Sprains, Dislocations.*—Bend the arms—extend the legs—cold compress of clean water—absolute immobility for all cases.

If after a fall a child cannot use an injured member without pain, send for a doctor without trying any remedies.

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## APPENDIX H.

### INSTRUCTIONS ON FEEDING.

The following instructions have recently been addressed to the Directrices of Crèches for distribution from the Académie of Medicine, 1906 :—

1. The mother's milk is the only natural nourishment ; no other can compare with it.

This should be given at least every two hours during the day, but only twice during the night, rest being necessary for both mother and child.

The child should receive nothing in between, even if it cries. The child should be suckled for as long a time as possible. It is specially desirable during the months of June, July, August, and September to have no artificial feeding, except in cases of illness.

Every woman who wishes the best for her child should abstain from alcoholic drink ; she ought to abstain from anything containing alcohol— as wine, beer, cider, etc.

2. Mixed feeding has to be resorted to when the mother's milk is insufficient at the end of or during the time she is feeding the child. She must then supplement the child's nourishment by adding a sufficient quantity of animal milk.

3. Artificial feeding is milk from ass, goat, or cow. It must be ascertained for certain that the milk used is neither skim, nor adulterated, nor contaminated. A doctor should decide whether the milk should be given pure, diluted, or sweetened.

It should always be given luke-warm. The germs which produce disease (gastro-enteritis, tubercular disease, typhoid, etc.) may be destroyed by boiling, by pasteurisation, by warming in a saucepan to 100 degrees, by sterilisation above 100 degrees.

Milk boiled or warmed to 100 degrees in a saucepan should be consumed in the course of twenty-four hours—sterilised milk may be kept longer.

To give the milk to a child use a spoon or glass—these can easily be cleaned. A feeding bottle can be used on condition that it is made without a tube. *All tube bottles are very dangerous and should be forbidden.* The mixing of milk, when necessary, should be done with water recently boiled. Before giving the child any milk, it should be tasted to be sure that there is no bad taste or smell.

4. When weaning the child should have more than milk. Gradual weaning is better than sudden. It is less full of risks than when a child is very young. It should never take place during months of great heat. Solid food given too soon is very dangerous.

These rules are closely followed in the crèche. Great stress is laid on the mothers feeding their own children, all statistics on infant mortality showing increased strength of breast-fed children.

## APPENDIX J.

## BAINS-DOUCHES AT THE ECOLE MATERNELLE.

BY MME. GIRARD.

(INSPECTRICE DES ECOLES MATERNELLES DE LA SEINE.)

In 1905 I wrote at the end of my report after visiting a school in the suburbs of Paris: "Here is a school marvellously arranged with large and airy class rooms. Nevertheless at the end of a few minutes spent here one is nearly suffocated; there is an unendurable smell which is sickening, till one is obliged to throw open the windows in order to breath without disgust. It amounts to this—the children are hopelessly filthy. They belong to a population of rag pickers, miserable people, and the taste for cleanliness is almost unknown in their midst.

"These children—a generation ago—would have tumbled about in the gutters or on the dusty roads. With splendid energy we have built them a palace, we have called them into it and they have come. We are teaching them by word and example to occupy themselves, to become better and to live sociably together. But is this sufficient? No. This exertion, admirable though it is, is not enough. Now that the children are no longer in the streets, now that we have claimed them, we must elevate them. And the first thing to do is to wash them, every day if possible, at least once a week, all over.

"So much was tentative, but it had results. Progress, though slow, is coming. In our schools, we are learning the necessity of cleanliness as we learn in certain sanatoriums for consumptives to breathe. How can we put into practice the idea of baths for the Ecoles Maternelles as they are given at Bordeaux? The idea attracted me and I sought means to realise it. In a good school of the 18th arr. a bathroom existed, but for many reasons it was unused. The medical inspector of the school, to whom the matter was referred, declared that baths in schools were not very safe, as the staff entrusted with this work did not know in what condition of health the children might be at the time, and serious mistakes might be made from an hygienic point of view. The doctor further remarked that any illness or accident whatever that might occur subsequently would be assuredly put down to this act and that the responsibility of the school staff was open to question on the subject. He also added, that the slightest negligence with regard to the temperature of the bath or in the drying of children after the bath might have very serious effects on their health.

"I continued a searching investigation. I interested the Directrice on the subject, and I cannot be too grateful to her for her help. Thanks to the ready co-operation of all, the dream became an accomplished fact. Anxious not to tax the staff already so full of work, and considering the moderate amount of our resources, we organised as follows: every Saturday the necessitous children, furnished with a written authority from either father or mother, could go to the bathroom. The Directrice, who was very keen, helped in the work herself. Two women were specially selected for the work, one undressed the children, the other bathed, dried, and redressed the little ones according to the instructions of a lady doctor who helped to arrange the rules and regulate the hygienic conditions. Thanks to voluntary contributions, the necessary sponges and towels were forthcoming, also a little stock of skirts and chemises. Two india-rubber caps, absolutely hygienic, were bought, and after each child's use they were plunged into warm water, so that no heads were wetted.

"On the first day thirty children were douched and bathed in three hours. The parents were delighted and gladly sent their children again and again.

"This is simple social education, and on this subject it is the example that matters. Once the custom of cleanliness is acquired, the need arises and the rest will follow."

APPENDIX K.

MODEL TIME TABLE FOR THE SCHOOLS IN THE DEPARTMENT DE LA SEINE.

IV.—Emploi du temps modèle pour les écoles du département de la Seine.

HEURES.	LUNDI	MARDI	MERCREDI	VENDREDI	SAMEDI
De 9 h. à 9 h. 1/4	Inspection de propreté. — Conduite aux cabinets. — Entrée en classe.				
De 9 h. 1/4 à 10 h. 1/4	Exercices de lecture, d'écriture et de langage.				
De 10 h. 1/4 à 10 h. 3/4	Récréation. — Jeux scolaires ou gymnastique.				
De 10 h. 3/4 à 11 h. 1/2	<small>A anecdotes, récits, biographies tirés de l'histoire nationale, contes, récits de voyages, notions de géographie</small>	Leçons de choses	Comme le lundi	Comme le lundi	Comme le lundi
De 11 h. 1/2 à 1 h.	Sortie de la classe. — Déjeuner. — Récréation.				
De 1 h. à 1 h. 1/4	Conduite aux cabinets et aux lavabos. — Rentrée en classe.				
De 1 h. 1/4 à 1 h. 3/4	Exercices de lecture et de langage.				
De 1 h. 3/4 à 2 h. 1/2	Calcul	Chant	Calcul	Calcul	Chant
De 2 h. 1/2 à 3 h.	Récréation. — Jeux scolaires ou gymnastique.				
De 3 h. à 3 h. 1/2	Dessin	Morale	Dessin	Dessin	Morale
De 3 h. 1/2 à 4 h.	Travail manuel.				

Le jeudi et les jours assimilés au jeudi par l'article 2 du règlement, pour la répartition du service, la classe du matin commencera à 9 h. 1/2, se terminera à 11 h. 1/2 et sera coupée par une récréation d'une 1/2 h. ; la classe du soir commencera à 1 hr. 1/2, se terminera à 4 h. et sera coupée par une récréation de 3/4 d'h. Le programme des classes du jeudi comprendra surtout des entretiens, des récits, des exercices de dessin et de travail manuel et des chants. Pour chacune des classes de l'école, l'emploi du temps, établi par la directrice conformément aux indications générales ci-dessus et avec les modifications que nécessitent les jeux scolaires et les exercices de gymnastique, sera approuvé par l'inspecteur primaire et par l'inspectrice des écoles maternelles. Il sera affiché dans les classes.



4.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et quatre Adjointes : A, B, C, D.*

SERVICE D'HIVER.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour
	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 à 9 heures ...	A	B	C	D
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	B	C	D	A
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	C	D	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	D	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. ...	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h. ...	B	C	D	A

Service du Soir : Comme ci-dessus.

SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour
	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 7 à 8 heures ...	A	B	C	D
De 8 à 9 heures ...	B	C	D	A
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h. ...	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	C	D	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4...	D	A	B	C
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h. ...	A	B	C	D
De 12 h. 1/4 à 1 h. ...	B	C	D	A

Service du Soir : Comme ci-dessus.

5.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et cinq Adjointes : A, B, C, D, E.*

SERVICE D'HIVER.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour	5 <sup>e</sup> jour
	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 à 9 heures.	A	B	C	D	E
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	B	C	D	E	A
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	C	D	E	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	D	E	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	E	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	A	B	C	D	E

Service du soir : Comme ci-dessus.

SERVICE D'ÉTÉ.

	1 <sup>er</sup> jour	2 <sup>e</sup> jour	3 <sup>e</sup> jour	4 <sup>e</sup> jour	5 <sup>e</sup> jour
	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 7 à 8 heures.	A	B	C	D	E
De 8 à 9 heures.	B	C	D	E	A
De 8 à 9 heures.	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice	Directrice
De 8 h. 1/2 à 9 h.	C	D	E	A	B
De 11 1/2 à 12 1/4	D	E	A	B	C
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	E	A	B	C	D
De 12 1/4 à 1 h.	A	B	C	D	E

Service du soir : Comme ci-dessus.

6.—*Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et six, sept ou huit Adjointes*

Mêmes règles que pour les Ecoles tenues par une Directrice et cinq adjointes, sauf que le roulement se fera en six, sept ou huit jours.

## APPENDIX L.

## MENUS IN ECOLES MATERNELLES.

Self-supporting at 10 centimes per child.)

- Monday.*—Pot-au-feu and lentils.  
*Tuesday.*—Soupe maigre and ragout of mutton.  
*Wednesday.*—Cabbage soup and sausage.  
*Thursday.*—Pot-au-feu and potatoes.  
*Friday.*—Pot-au-feu and haricots.  
*Saturday.*—Soupe maigre and haricots au lard.

- First Day.*—Soupe grasse and beef.  
*Second Day.*—Haricots, soup with sorrel and leek.  
*Third Day.*—Ragout of mutton and potatoes.  
*Fourth Day.*—Purée of peas or lentils and sausage.  
*Fifth Day.*—Soup, potato and cabbage with pork.

- Monday.*—Macaroni cheese.  
*Tuesday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Wednesday.*—Lentils au lard.  
*Thursday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Friday.*—Potato purée au lait.  
*Saturday.*—Pot-au-feu.

(At 20 centimes a child.)

- Monday.*—Ragout of mutton and potatoes.  
*Tuesday.*—Pot-au-feu.  
*Wednesday.*—Veal and macaroni.  
*Thursday.*—Pain de pommes and sausages.  
*Friday.*—Mutton and dried haricots.  
*Saturday.*—Roast beef and lentils.

## • MENU FOR ONE MONTH.

(Adopted by the 19th arr. in Paris for the *Ecoles Maternelles*.  
 Approved by Mme. Girard.)

## FIRST WEEK.

- Monday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Apples.  
*Tuesday.*—Sorrel and rice soup. Roast mutton minced. Macaroni cheese.  
*Wednesday.*—Haricot beans and onions. Roast veal minced. Whit beans mashed.  
*Thursday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast veal minced. Omelet.  
*Friday.*—Vegetable soup. Roast mutton minced. Spinach and gravy.  
*Saturday.*—Sorrel and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Sweet rice pudding and cakes.

## SECOND WEEK.

- Monday.*—Vegetable Soup. Roast veal minced. Mashed potatoes.  
*Tuesday.*—Onion and potato soup. Roast veal minced. Cheese scallops.  
*Wednesday.*—Leek and potato soup. Roast mutton minced. Cooked salad.

*Thursday.*—Sorrel and rice or semolina soup. Roast mutton minced. Mashed potato and milk.

*Friday.*—Onion and haricot water soup. Veal minced. French beans.

*Saturday.*—Vegetable soup. Veal minced. Rice pudding and eggs. Figs.

#### THIRD WEEK.

*Monday.*—Sorrel and haricot bean soup. Minced mutton. White beans mashed.

*Tuesday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced mutton. Mashed potato.

*Wednesday.*—Onion and lentil flour soup. Minced veal. Spinach and gravy.

*Thursday.*—Vegetable soup. Minced Veal. Cheese vermicelli.

*Friday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast mutton. Apples.

*Saturday.*—Sorrel and rice soup. Minced roast mutton. Sweet rice pudding. Fruit.

#### FOURTH WEEK.

*Monday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast veal. Mashed potato.

*Tuesday.*—Sorrel and rice or semolina soup. Minced roast veal. Macaroni cheese.

*Wednesday.*—Onion and haricot soup. Minced roast mutton. White beans mashed.

*Thursday.*—Leek and potato soup. Minced roast mutton. Rice pudding and eggs.

*Friday.*—Vegetable soup. Minced roast veal. Spinach and gravy.

*Saturday.*—Sorrel and potato soup. Minced roast veal. Potatoes in white sauce. Fruit.

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*Food flours.*—Pea, barley and chestnut flour, &c., to replace fresh vegetables in winter.

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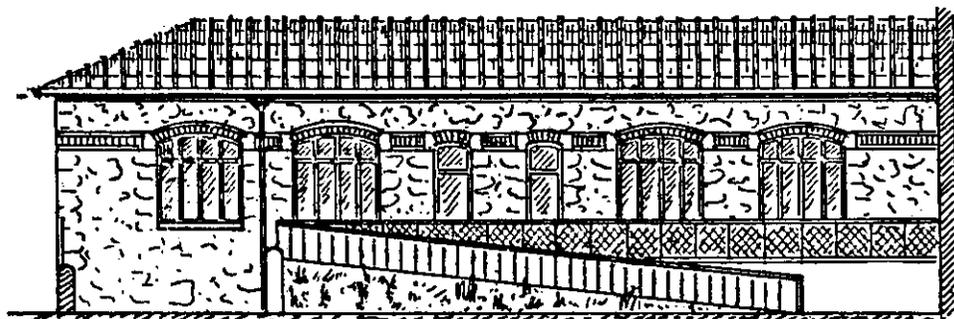
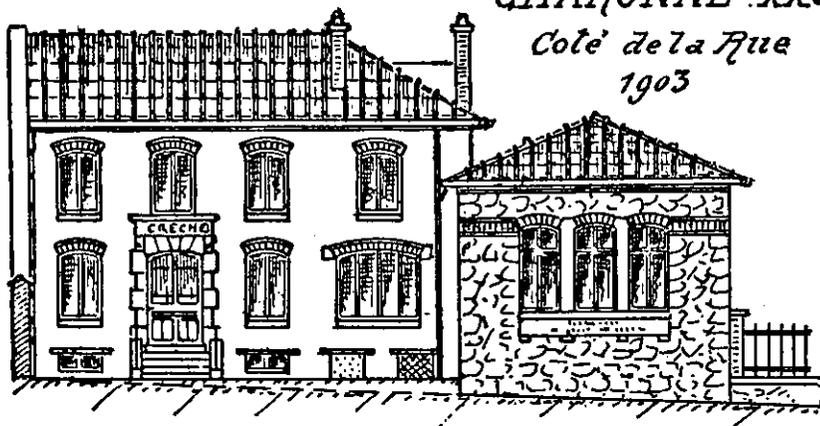
APPENDIX M.

PLANS AND DETAILED COST OF BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT OF VARIOUS CRÈCHES.

I.

CHARONNE XX<sup>e</sup>

Côté de la Rue  
1903



Côté de la Cour

Dépense : 85,000 fr. plus 11,000 fr. pour les substructions.

Terrasse - - - - -	2,500	Planchers, ciment armé, canali-	
Maçonnerie, Carrelage - - -	29,500	sation, dallage - - - - -	15,500
Charpente, menuiserie, ser-		Parquets chêne - - - - -	3,000
rurerie - - - - -	16,000	Fumisterie, marbrerie - - -	1,000
Couverture, plomberie, eau et		Peinture, vitrerie, papiers - -	5,500
gas - - - - -	8,500	Branchement d'eau - - - - -	500
Calorifère air chaud - - - -	2,500	Marbrerie - - - - -	500

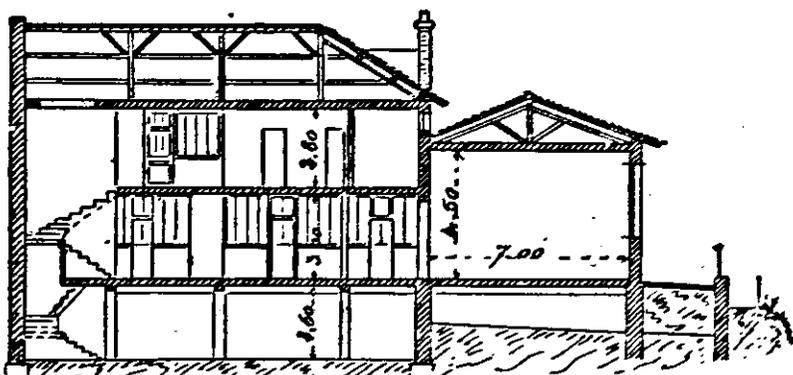
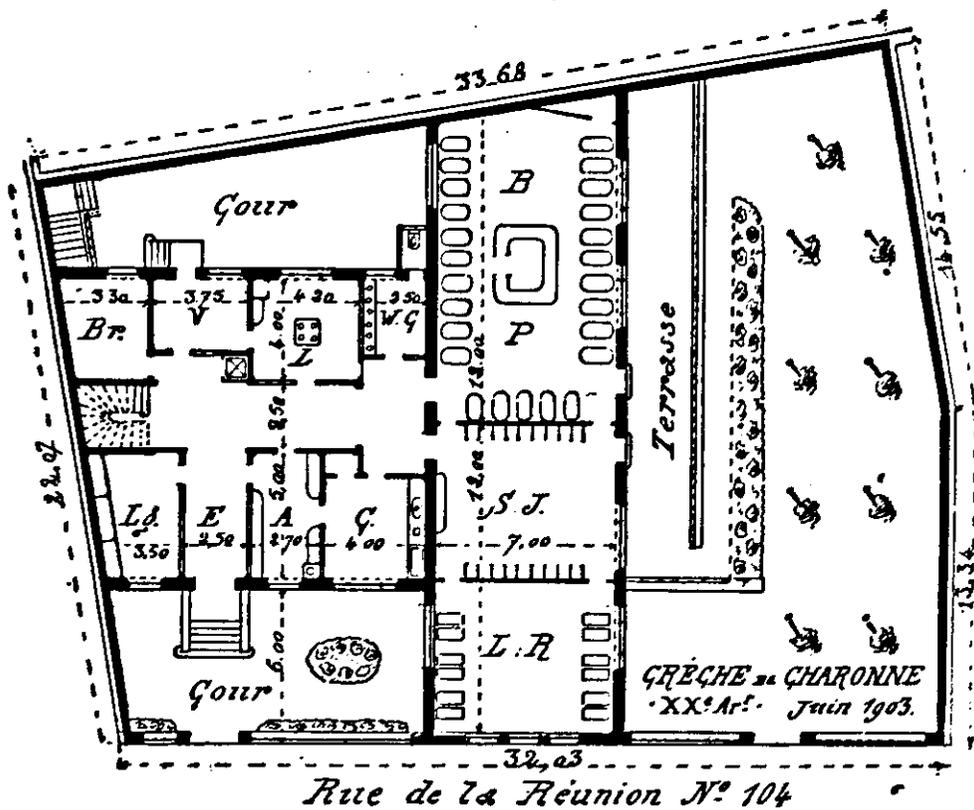
Cost of site not given.

Number of beds, 50.

Silver Medal, Paris Exhibition, 1900.

Architect M. PAUL MARBEAU.

L.—(contd.)



CHARONNE XXe Ar. dépend 200 m<sup>2</sup> 5<sup>e</sup> Salle „ Jardin

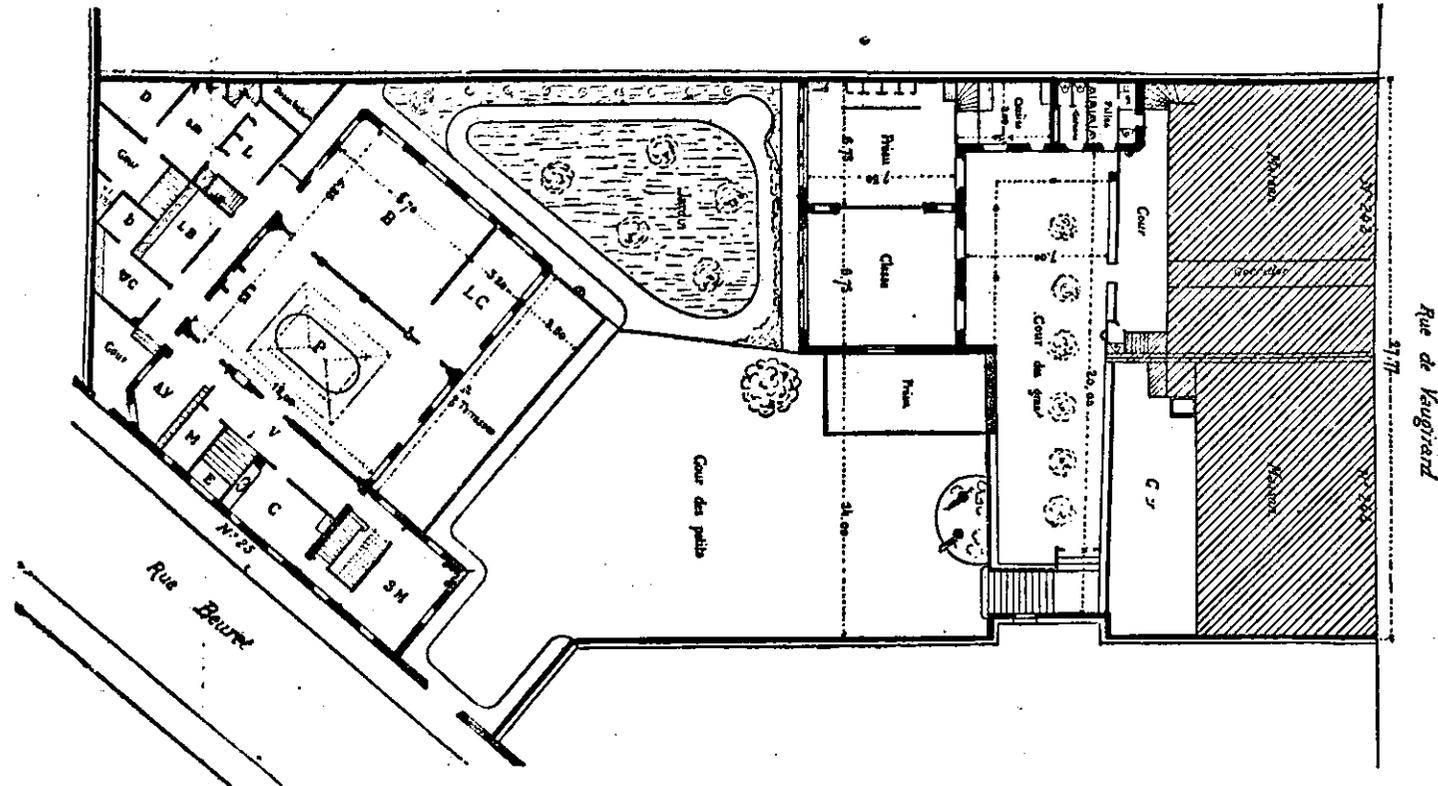
II.

CRÈCHE FOURCADE, 25 rue Beuret, Paris (XV<sup>e</sup> arrond.).

Architect, M. PAUL MABBEAU.

Number of beds, 50.

Inaugurée le 5 juin, 1895.



Total, 194,839 fr.	without site.	frs.
	Maçonnerie, charpente etc.	- 101,300
	Couverture	- 7,500
	Plomberie	- 6,500
	Peinture	- 13,276

	Calorifère, fourneaux	-	frs.	16,886
	Mobilier, lingerie	et		
	pouponnière	-		17,698
	Canalisation etc.	-		18,600
	Dépenses diverses	-		13,079

IIL

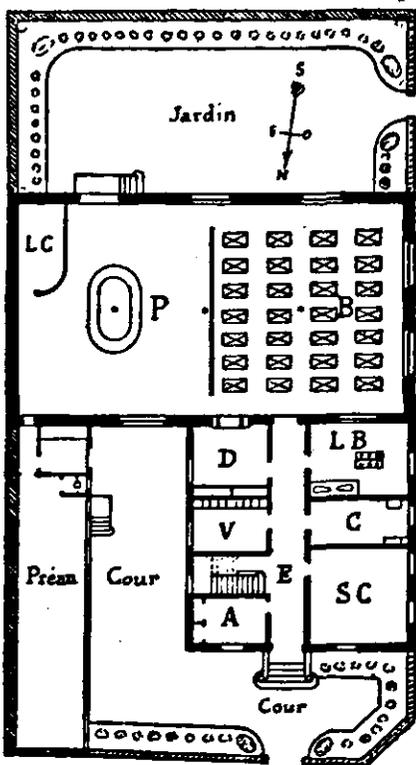
ARGENTEUIL (Seine-et-Oise)

*Rue des Augustins.*

Crèche construite par M. Girardin, architecte.

Inaugurée le 9 novembre, 1899.

56 places.



Rue des Augustins

Dépense totale  
de construction,  
53,480 fr.

Et le terrain (603 mètr.),  
à côté en plus,  
9,015 fr.

Rue Pierre Jolly	Maçonnerie - - -	21,450
	Carrelage - - -	720
	Bitumage - - -	966
	Charpente - - -	3,295
	Menuiserie - - -	5,030
	Serrurerie - - -	5,489
	Persiennes en fer - -	130
	Couverture, Plomberie -	4,159
	Installation des eaux -	302
	Appareil à gaz - - -	193
	Electricité - - -	408
	Fumisterie - - -	400
	Calorifère - - -	1,850
	Peinture - - -	1,856
	Mobilier - - -	898
	Lavabos (syst. Scellier) -	449
	Lingerie - - -	1,215
	Literie - - -	1,290
	Linoléum et stores - -	976

Le terrain à 33 m 50 sur 18 m.

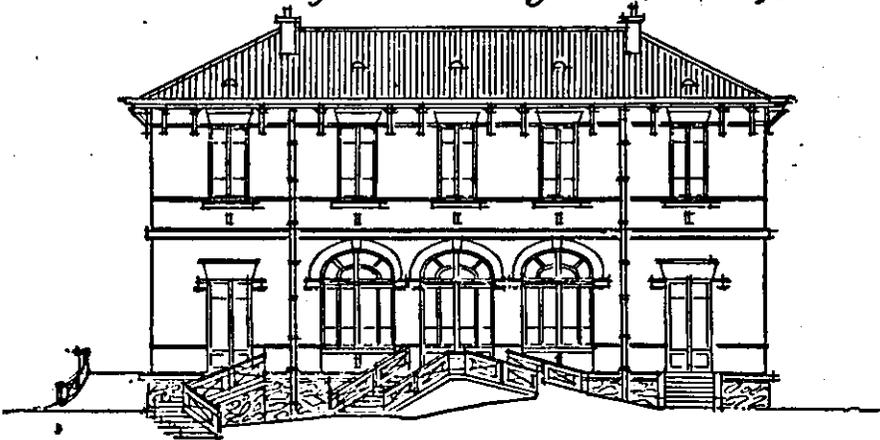
La salle des berceaux et la pouponnière mesurent ensemble 48 mètres sur 9 mètres 40.

Au sous-sol, la laiterie et la buanderie; au 1<sup>er</sup> étage se trouvent la chambre d'isolement, le logement de la Directrice, etc.

Total 62 495fr. including site.

Architect, M. GIRARDIN.

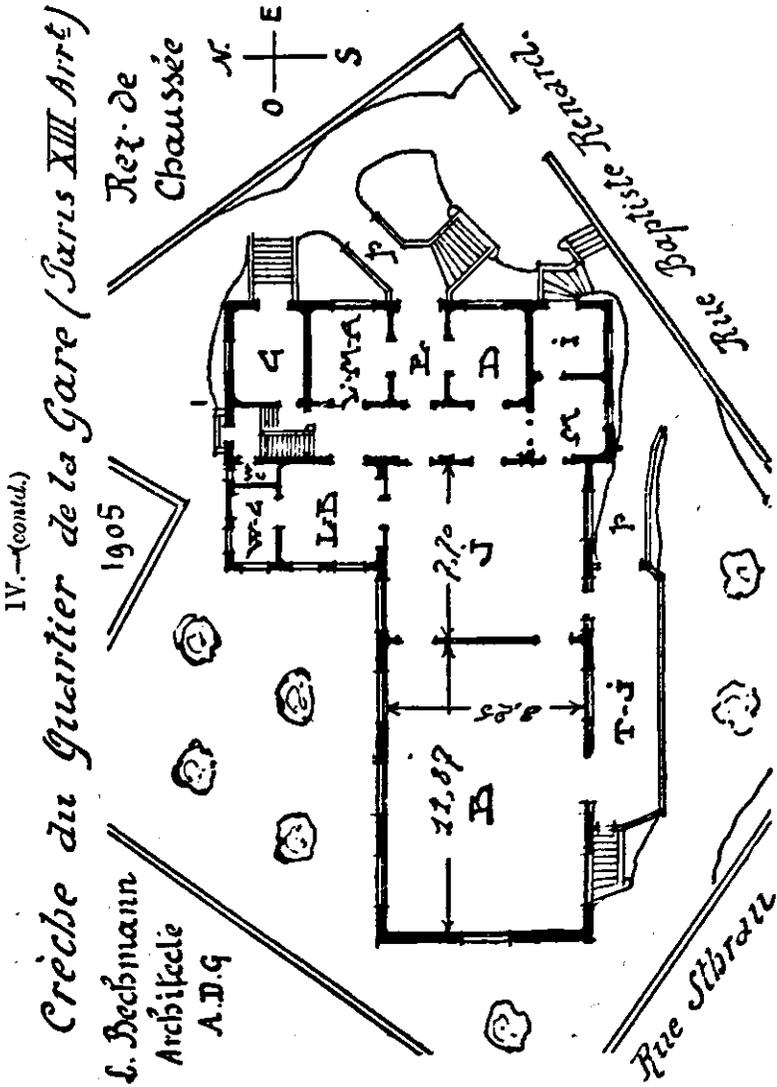
## IV.

*Crèche du Quartier de la Gare (XIII Arr<sup>e</sup>).**Quartier de la Gare (XIII Arr.)*

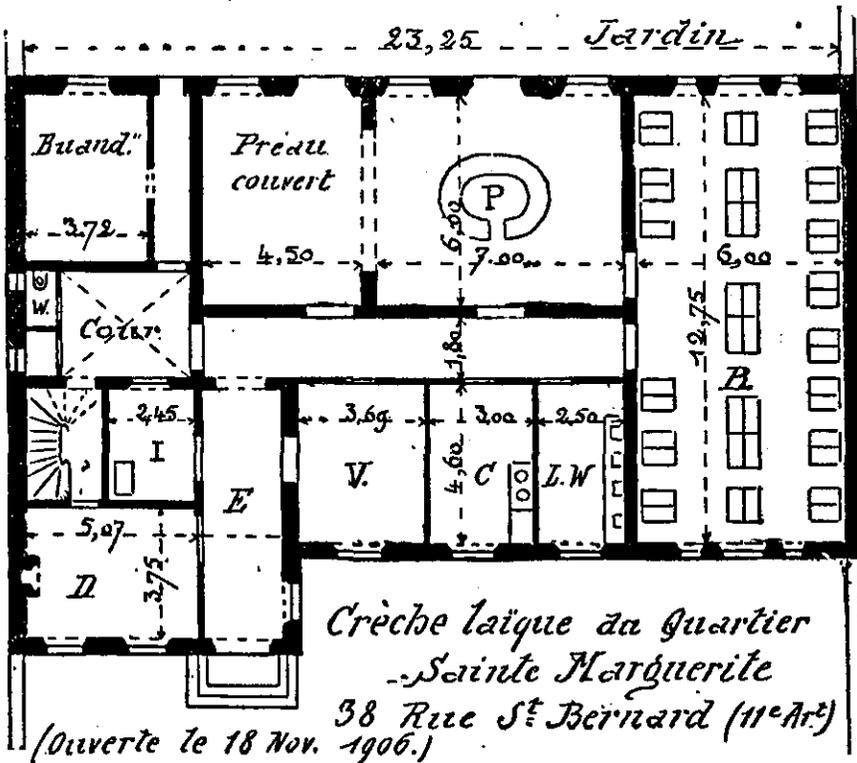
Total, 88,029fr. 60 c., without site.

Architect, M. BECHMANN.

	frs.		frs.
Terrassement - -	2,000.00	Plomberie, couverture - -	7,760.13
Maçonnerie - -	29,482.80	Peinture, vitrerie - -	3,199.98
Ciment et Béton - -	9,500.00	Calorifère à vapeur - -	4,100.00
Charpente, serrurerie - -	9,659.13	Fumisterie - -	994.28
Canalisation - -	2,394.45	Stores, Jardinage, etc. - -	1,147.00
Menuiserie et Parquets - -	7,797.05	Consolidation du Sous-sol - -	9,994.78
		Number of beds, 60.	



V.

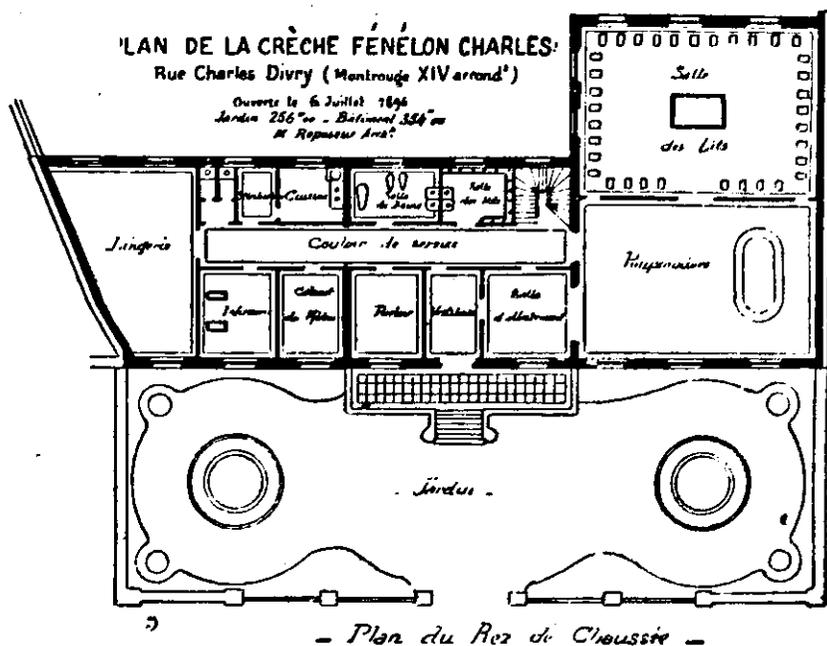


Total, 50,730fr., without site.

Architect, M. ADELGEIST.

	frs.		frs.
Maçonnerie	22,900	Calorifère	5,280
Serrurerie	4,500	Peinture	1,900
Charpente	2,800	Canalisation	2,200
Menuiserie	4,800	Mobilier, etc.	1,850
Couverture, plomberie	4,500		
	Number of beds, 45.		

VI.



Surface: 354 mètres.

Sur sous-sol comprenant caves, calorifère, étuve.

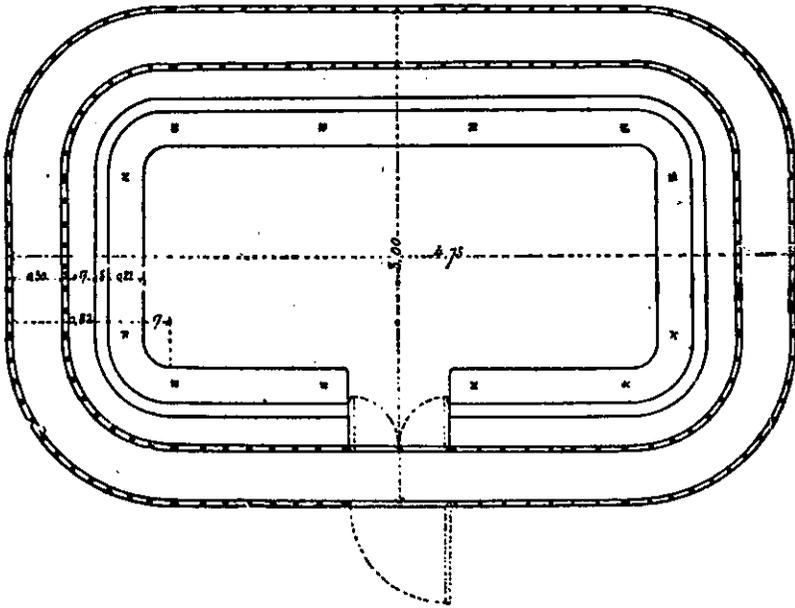
Façade principale (côté du perron)	-	30 m.	
Jardin	-	30 m.	sur 10 m.
Salle des lits et Pouponnière, chacune	-	10 m. 60	sur 7 m. 15
Coulloir de service	-	17 m.	sur 1 m. 75
Salle d'allaitement	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 85
Parloir	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 29
Cabinet du médecin	-	3 m. 99	sur 2 m. 95
Infirmerie	-	3 m. 99	sur 3 m. 60
Salle des Bains	-	4 m. 10	sur 2 m. 40

Total, 44.407fr., without site.

Architect, M. REPOSSEUR.

	frs.		frs.
Maçonnerie	- - 16,094	Plomberie	- - - 2,600
Charpente	- - - 7,747	Serrurerie	- - - 3,940
Ménisierie	- - - 6,744	Calorifère	- - - 1,615
Couverture	- - - 2,432	Peinture	- - - 3,235
Number of beds, 36.			

APPENDIX N.



Plan du Meuble (dit Pouponnière) qui a été fait pour la crèche Wunschendorf à Nancy.

# THE PROVISION MADE IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN UNDER THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

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(5) Düsseldorf	found im-
(6) Frankfurt-on-Main	Bewahran-
(7) Leipzig	
(8) Munich	
(9) Zurich	a oldest institu-
(10) Basle	founded in 1779
(11) Geneva	the well-known

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# THE PROVISION MADE IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN UNDER THE COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE.

## I.—INTRODUCTION.

### A.—GERMANY.

#### (i) NATURE AND HISTORY OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR YOUNG CHILDREN.

The institutions which exist in Germany for the care of children under the compulsory school age are of three kinds, *Krippen* or crèches, *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (or *Kleinkinderschulen* or *Warteschulen*), and Kindergartens. The *Krippen*, as a rule, form a distinct class by themselves, being concerned only with very young children up to three years of age, though in some cases older children are admitted; but the *Bewahranstalten* and the Kindergartens are not always to be distinguished from one another. Both receive children between the ages of two and a half or three and six years. The *Bewahranstalt* exists primarily for social reasons, its object being to afford a refuge for children whose mothers are at work; it is, therefore, open from early morning till evening, and provides the children attending it with a mid-day meal. The primary object of the Kindergarten, on the other hand, is education according to Froebel's principles, for which purpose it meets for a couple of hours, morning and afternoon. But in practice no hard and fast line can be drawn between the two classes of institutions. The Kindergarten is often also a *Bewahranstalt*, remaining open all day, and providing dinner, while the *Bewahranstalt*, especially when it is run on non-sectarian lines, is frequently a Kindergarten in Froebel's sense of the word. In towns where the distinction between the two institutions remains clearly defined, the poorer children naturally attend the *Bewahranstalt*, and the wealthier ones the Kindergarten. The tendency to-day, on the whole, is rather to level the distinction between the two classes of institution, though there remains a certain rivalry between them. The confusion between the two classes is shown by the Table given in *Appendix A*, where it has been found impossible to distinguish between Kindergartens and *Bewahranstalten*.

#### *The Kinderbewahranstalt.*

Historically, the *Kinderbewahranstalt* is the oldest institution. The first institution of this kind was founded in 1779 by Johann Friedrich Oberlin (1740-1826), the well-known

Protestant pastor, in the village of Waldbach in Alsace. It was opened in connection with a "Knitting School" for older children, also founded by Oberlin, where the children were taught sewing and where stories were told and object lessons given on maps of the district, and coloured pictures of subjects taken from Biblical and natural history. The idea of combining with this school a refuge for small children whose mothers were occupied in the fields is due really to Oberlin's maidservant Louise Scheppler, under whose charge the first *Kinderbewahranstalt* was opened; she carried on the work with single-hearted devotion till her death in 1837. The experiment excited much interest, and in 1802 the Princess Pauline von Lippe-Detmold started a similar institution in Detmold, in which children up to four years of age were received from June till October, when the mothers were at work in the fields. But the chief impetus to the movement in Germany was given by the similar movement for the foundation of infant schools in England in the early years of the 19th century. Robert Owen's experiment at New Lanark in 1800 and the proceedings of the Infant School Society aroused much attention in Germany, and the first twenty years of the century saw the foundation of *Bewahranstalten* in all parts of the country. In every case they were started and maintained by private persons, by religious philanthropic societies both Catholic and Protestant, such as the Oberlin Societies founded in memory of Oberlin himself and to carry on his work, or by various other charitable agencies, especially the many women's Societies (*Frauenvereine*), which play so large a part in German philanthropic life. Many of these institutions have a distinctly religious aim, as was the case with the original one started by Oberlin, and in places where the religious feeling is strong this has led to a certain rivalry between Catholics and Protestants in the founding of such institutions. In Germany, as in this country, it was, however, the change in industrial conditions, and the consequent employment of women away from the home, which first opened the eyes of the benevolent public to the need of making some provision for the children of such women.

#### *The Kindergarten.*

The early history of the Kindergarten is of course connected with the life of Friedrich Froebel (1782-1852), its creator. Froebel, though he was not the first to point out the importance of the early years of a child's life from an educational point of view, here Comenius and Pestalozzi, at least, had anticipated him, he was the first to draw up a system of education through the senses based on organised play, for children up to six years of age; he was the first also to declare that such education could be carried out exclusively by the mother.

The history of the development of the Kindergarten in detail has yet to be written, and the materials for it lie buried in the reports of its many societies. The first institution of the kind was opened by Froebel himself in 1837, at Blankenburg in Thuringia; and three years later he founded

the first training college for Kindergarten teachers.\* The movement soon spread, some sixteen or eighteen other Kindergartens being opened in Froebel's lifetime. The idea of the Kindergarten, however, was not everywhere kindly received. In 1851 the Prussian Ministry actually forbade Kindergartens to be founded in Prussia, on the ground that Froebel's teaching was socialistic and atheistic. The order was revoked in 1861, and it is supposed that it arose from some confusion of Froebel with a democrat of the same name; but it is the case that the Kindergarten was, and to some extent is, looked upon with suspicion in certain quarters, as wanting in a definite Christian atmosphere.\* In Austria, on the other hand, the Kindergarten found fruitful soil, and by an order of the Ministry of Education in 1872, it was recognised as part of the educational system, under the charge of the local education authorities.

The Kindergarten as Froebel planned it was to supplement and widen home training, and not to be a substitute for it, and therefore applied to children of all classes. In practice, however in Germany, Kindergartens exist chiefly for the poorer children, and the reasons which have led to the founding of them have been rather social than educational; *i.e.*, the primary aim has been to afford shelter for children whose parents are at work. Only in Munich can the Kindergarten be said at present to form part of the system of public elementary education, for the public infant schools that exist in Cologne and Düsseldorf appear to be far more of the nature of *Bewahranstalten*, and are not carried out on Froebel's lines. The development of the Kindergarten on educational grounds seems to belong rather to America† than to Germany. The German Kindergartens were founded by private Societies existing for that purpose, and there are no general statistics to be had as to the total number of Kindergartens and the number of children provided for in this way in Germany as a whole.

#### *The Krippe or Crèche.*

The idea of the *Krippe* or Crèche came to Germany from France. The first German one was opened in connection with a *Bewahranstalt* at Dresden in 1851; but two years before one had been started at Breitenfeld, near Vienna. *Krippen* now exist in most of the German towns. They are supported by private Societies, generally with help from the Municipal Authorities, and are run on much the same lines as our own day nurseries. (For further particulars as to the Crèche system in Germany and Switzerland, see page 174.)

#### (ii) ADMINISTRATION AND SUPPORT.

Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in Germany to-day are still maintained, generally speaking, by the various private societies that founded them, and the Kindergarten does not form part of the recognised system of public elementary education.

\* See the articles on *Kleinkinderschulen* in Schmid's *Encyclopädie des gesammten Erziehungs- u. Unterrichtswesens*, 2nd edition, Gotha, 1881.

† See "The Kindergarten," by Laura Fisher (Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1903, vol. i., chapter xvi.), Washington, Government Printing Office, 1905.

Institutions of this kind, however, entirely supported by Municipal Authorities, exist in Cologne and Düsseldorf, where they have been established for many years, in Frankfurt, where there are two and in Munich, where a number of Kindergartens were taken over by the town from a private Society in the beginning of 1907. Municipal grants for such institutions are, however, the rule in almost every town, and a varying amount of Municipal supervision and inspection is exercised in most towns. It is generally the case that permission must be had from the town authorities before a Kindergarten or a *Bewahranstalt* can be established, and in many towns, a register of all institutions for children between the ages of three and six is kept by one of the Town School Inspectors; the extent of the information required, however, and the nature of the inspection carried out appear to depend very much upon the interest taken by the educational officials in the institutions in question. In any case each town has its own policy in regard to the matter. Municipal grants to such institutions appear to be generally on the increase, but there does not seem any likelihood at present of Kindergartens being adopted generally as part of the educational system. Against the example of Munich must be set the fact that in certain North German towns the opinion was definitely expressed that the present policy is to leave the management of these institutions in private hands, and not to increase the number of public ones even where they exist. The reason urged for this is generally the expense that public institutions would involve, but some authorities (at least in Prussia) believe that institutions of this nature thrive better under the freedom of private management. It should be added that most private Societies complain of lack of funds. The management is vested, as a rule, in a committee, and expenses are met by subscriptions and to a certain extent by fees. These last are very small, ranging from about 3d. to 6d. weekly. There are also in most towns a few private fee-paying Kindergartens for the children of well-to-do parents. Kindergartens are, as a rule, unsectarian.

### (iii) STAFF AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Most *Kinderbewahranstalten* are conducted by Sisters or Deaconesses, belonging to the different religious orders, Catholic or Protestant. These nearly all receive a certain amount of training in the care and management of small children in a Convent or a Deaconesses' Institution (*Mutterhaus*). The Deaconess generally lodges in the *Bewahranstalt*, and a small salary (about £18) is paid yearly to the *Mutterhaus* with which she is connected, and which provides for her in sickness and old age. Some of the newer unsectarian *Kinderbewahranstalten* are, however, under the charge of trained Kindergarten teachers.

All Kindergartens proper are conducted by specially trained teachers (*Kindergärtnerinnen*), and Kindergarten training colleges exist in a large number of German towns.\* They form

\* See *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf (Handbuch der Frauenbewegung*, Parts iv., p. 347, and v., p. 190, W. Mooser, Berlin, 1902 and 1906) where lists of such institutions, including a few private colleges, are given.

indeed an integral part of Fröebel's scheme, which included the training of women for the care and education of small children, and especially for motherhood. These colleges are for the most part under private management, though municipal training courses for Kindergarten teachers are held in some places, e.g., Leipzig and Frankfurt. Generally speaking, two classes of *Kindergärtnerinnen* are provided for in these institutions.

(a) Regular Kindergarten teachers for a Kindergarten proper. Candidates for this course must have attended a Girls' Higher School, and must generally be over sixteen. The course lasts from one to two or two-and-a-half years, and includes, among other subjects, German, the theory and practice of education, natural history, geometry, hygiene, singing, gymnastics, the study of Fröebel's occupations, children's games and stories, as well as actual practice in a Kindergarten. The average fee is about £6 a year (without board), though some colleges are dearer, and some, with very short courses, cheaper.

(b) *Kinderpflegerinnen* (Nursery Governesses, or superior nursery maids). This course is open to girls leaving the elementary schools, and lasts from six months to two years. It aims at providing governesses for the home for very young children, or well-trained nurses, and includes, besides further study in elementary school subjects, instruction and practice in the care of children, and in house work. A usual charge is £1.16 (36M.) for the course.

Most institutions undertake to find situations for their students, and for both classes of student there is a large and growing demand. The reports of many training colleges state that they are unable to fill nearly all the situations offered.

#### (iv) SALARIES AND PENSIONS.

The average salary of a Kindergarten teacher of the first class ranges from £35 to £60 yearly (700M. to 1200M.), and of a *Kinderpflegerin* from about £6 to £30 yearly (120M. to 600M.), with board and lodging.\* (Women elementary school teachers in Prussia receive, on an average, an initial salary of from £38 to £54 (760M. to 1080M.), together with an allowance for lodging, which varies from £5 to £15. This salary rises to a maximum of from £84 to £116 (1680M. to 2320M.), inclusive of lodging allowance.)†

In the matter of an old age pension Kindergarten teachers are at a great disadvantage, and for this reason they would welcome a closer connection between the Kindergarten and the public educational system. Their salary is in most cases too small to do more than meet the daily expenses of life, and they can therefore rarely afford to save. It is true that compulsory "old age and invalidity insurance" (*Reichs-Alter- und Invaliditäts-Versicherung*), has been extended to teachers,

\* *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 331.

† *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 323.

other than public school teachers, but the pension is small (on an average about £10 (200M.) a year), and only begins after the age of 70, whereas it is stated that Kindergarten teachers find their work exhausting, and lose the vigour and elasticity necessary for it soon after 55. Some Societies have private funds for supplying pensions to their teachers, and there are other agencies which to some extent meet the necessities of the case. The "*Allgemeine deutsche Pensions-Anstalt für Lehrerinnen und Erzieherinnen*," for instance, pays pensions to over 700 female teachers.\* But the supply of retiring allowances generally is very insufficient. Munich, Cologne, and Düsseldorf are apparently the only German cities where the Kindergarten teachers are regularly entitled to a pension.

#### (v) BUILDING AND EQUIPMENT.

The accommodation provided for Kindergartens and *Bewahranstalten* varies very much in different towns, and indeed in the same town. Kindergartens are often accommodated in the elementary schools, where rooms and the use of the playground are placed at their disposal by the education authorities. In Munich the authorities have gone further, and a separate building with a separate playground is attached to many of the schools for the purpose of a Kindergarten. The newest and most admirable Kindergarten buildings are, however, to be found in Frankfurt. In some towns the newer *Bewahranstalten* are also excellently housed in buildings specially erected; otherwise they are to be found very variously lodged, for the most part in private houses adapted to the purpose. In all cases the equipment is simple, consisting of low tables with benches, or, in the newer buildings, of little chairs and round tables, with generally a blackboard and a piano. The usual arrangement is to have two rooms, one large one for games and a smaller one for occupations. A garden is an almost invariable feature of all classes of institutions.

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### B.—SWITZERLAND.

#### (1) GERMAN-SPEAKING SWITZERLAND.†

The same three classes of institutions for young children exist in German-speaking Switzerland as in Germany, and here also the history and development of these institutions have been different in different places. In Switzerland, however, the Kindergarten is more a recognised feature of elementary education than in Germany; inasmuch as the larger Swiss towns have a system of free public Kindergartens for children between four and six, though attendance at these is not compulsory. They are accommodated as a rule in the schools. In these towns, more-

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\* *Die deutsche Frau im Beruf*, Part iv., p. 332.

† Much of the following information is taken from the pamphlet by C. Auer, *Hebung der Kleinkinderanstalten: Ein weiterer Beitrag zur Totalrevision der Glarnerischen Schulgesetzgebung*; 1907.

over, private institutions of this kind are being more and more transferred to the public authorities. In the smaller towns and villages, however, the institutions which receive young children are more of the nature of *Bewahranstalten*, and are housed and conducted in various ways. Generally they seem to be supported by private societies, with assistance from the local authorities, but in some cases they are entirely under the charge of the latter.

In Switzerland, as in Germany, the materials for the history of these institutions is scanty and scattered.

Basle, which has to-day the most elaborately organised system of *Kindervanstalten* generally, appears to have been one of the first towns to open such institutions. In the famine year of 1817 charitable Women's Societies in that town started infant schools for children whose parents were unable to look after them. In 1843 the *Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft* took up and supported institutions of this kind, and in 1875 a Society for founding *Kindergartens* was established. The first public *Kindergartens* in Basle were opened in 1895, and in the nine years from 1898 to 1907 the public *Kindergartens* had increased by 72, while the private institutions had decreased by 24. In Zurich the first private *Kindergarten* was opened in 1872; in 1895 existing *Kindergartens* were taken over by the town, and their number was speedily increased. In 1893, for instance, there were 7 *Kindergartens* with 290 children; in 1899, 27 with 1026 children; and to-day 51 with 1000-1600 children. The private institutions which still exist are rather *Bewahranstalten* than *Kindergartens*. Training courses for *Kindergarten* teachers are held in the Girls' Higher Schools in Basle and Zurich. A Swiss *Kindergarten* Society, founded in 1881, does useful work by holding yearly meetings, at which subjects bearing on the work of the *Kindergarten* are discussed. It has at the present time some 400 members.

## (2) FRENCH-SPEAKING SWITZERLAND.

In French Switzerland the Infant Schools (*Ecoles enfantines*) generally speaking form a recognised part of public elementary education. An account of the regulations on the subject for the Canton of Geneva may be given as an example, though all French Cantons may not be so advanced. In Vaud, Neuchatel and Fribourg the organisation appears to be much on the same lines as in Geneva; in Valais the Froebel system is not employed.

Article 25 of the *Lois sur L'Instruction Publique* (1896) of the Republic and Canton of Geneva recognises the *écoles enfantines* as the lowest stage of primary education. The following extracts give the regulations for such schools.

“Article 26: The infant schools are organised in such a manner as to forward the bodily and intellectual development of the child, and to serve as a preparation for the primary school. They comprise:—

"A lower division for children from three to six years of age, and an upper division for children from six to seven.

"Article 27. In both divisions the instruction consists chiefly of object lessons, manual occupations, games, songs and moral talks."

Attendance at these schools, which are for both sexes, is free, but not compulsory before the age of six. Further regulations are laid down in the *Règlement des Ecoles Infantines*. There it is stated among other things that the instruction given is regulated according to a plan of lessons drawn up by the Department, to which the mistresses are bound to conform. The duty of these mistresses is "to work at the physical, intellectual, and moral education of the children committed to their charge. They ought to take care to inculcate good principles into them, to teach them good habits, proper manners and correct speech. They are bound to prepare their lessons in such a way that their teaching may be easily understood, attractive, and well within the comprehension of their pupils. They must carefully abstain from anything of a sectarian nature." They are also instructed to see that the children come to school clean, tidy and in good health. (*See Appendix D (4) and Appendix E.*)

Mistresses for the infant schools are appointed for Geneva by the *Conseil Administratif*, and for the other communes by the *Conseil Municipal*. The salary of a mistress begins at 800 francs, with an annual increment of 25 francs for ten years; an assistant mistress gets 600 francs. There is an Insurance Fund for the mistresses of infant schools, to which each mistress must subscribe; the annual subscription must not be less than 40 francs. The State pays in annually 50 francs for each member not already pensioned.

The infant schools are also under the general charge of an inspectress, who receives an annual salary of 2,300 francs. Her duties are to supervise the instruction given, and see that it conforms to the regulations, to instruct teachers in training and those newly appointed, to look after the hygienic conditions of the school buildings and to distribute school material.

It will be seen that the aim and the methods of the *écoles enfantines* are in many respects different from those of the Kindergartens in German Switzerland. In the *écoles enfantines* the time-table is much more strictly regulated, and the work directly prepares for the work of the primary school. The ideal of educational reformers in German Switzerland is in some ways altogether opposed to the French system. What they aim at is the establishment everywhere of free public Kindergartens where children shall be trained generally on Froebel's lines, but without any definite formal instruction; these institutions are to be altogether separate from the schools, if possible in a separate building, and are only to prepare for school work indirectly in the widest sense, by the general training given to the child's faculties.

## II.—ACCOUNT OF THE KINDERGARTENS AND KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN IN THE TOWNS VISITED.\*

### (1) BERLIN.\*

There are no institutions for children under school age directly maintained by the Municipality in Berlin, but the city supervises and aids private institutions. Certain difficulties in regard to the development of the elementary school system in Berlin, and also in the matter of continuation schools, have prevented the authorities from as yet paying so much attention as elsewhere to the question of the care of children under school age. A committee has, however, been appointed to bring the Kindergarten into closer connection with the public school system, and matters will be improved in four or five years.

In 1907 the Municipality contributed £300 (6,000 marks) to the Berlin *Froebel-Verein*, in aid of its *Volkskindergärten*; £425 (8,500 marks) to the *Verein für Volkskindergärten*, and £250 (5,000 marks) to the *Verein zur Beförderung der Kleinkinderbewahranstalten*.

#### (a) KINDERGARTENS.

There are some 16 or 17 Kindergartens in Berlin supported by private Societies, including one for children defective in speech and hearing, besides 18 private Kindergartens. The chief societies supporting Kindergartens are:—

(1) *Berliner Verein für Volkserziehung (Pestalozzi-Froebelhaus)* founded 1873, supporting four Kindergartens with 350 children.

(2) *Berliner Froebel-Verein*, founded 1859, supporting six Kindergartens (three for rich and three for poor children) with 340 children.

(3) *Verein für Volkskindergärten* in Berlin, founded 1863, supporting six Kindergartens. The number of children in attendance in 1905, when there were only five institutions, was 284.

#### *Fees.*

The fees in the above institutions seem to range from 15pf. to 1 mark monthly (excepting, of course, in the Kindergartens for the rich), with reductions and free places; dinner where provided is charged for at the rate of 1d. a day. In the majority of cases the Kindergartens seem to remain open all day till as late as 7 p.m. The holidays are the same as the school holidays, except that in the summer many of the Kindergartens have either shorter holidays or do not close. The salary of a head teacher is from £4 to £5 monthly; of an assistant £2 15s. monthly.

\* The towns marked with an asterisk were visited by His Majesty's Inspector, Mr. Darlington. To the Board's regret his illness and death prevented his writing a report on the work done in these towns, but the accounts given are taken from his notes and from material collected by him.

*Training Courses for Kindergarten Teachers.*

These are held in Berlin by:—

(1) The *Berliner Verein für Volkserziehung (Pestalozzi-Froebelhaus I.)*. This is a well-known training college for Kindergarten teachers, housed in a large and imposing building. The course for Kindergarten teachers lasts from one to two years. The candidate must be 16 years of age, and have attended a Girls Higher School. The fee for Germans is £2 10s. (50M.) quarterly, and for foreigners £3 17s. 6d. (77M. 50) quarterly. There is also a course for training *Kinderpflegerinnen*, lasting from one to two years, to which girls from the elementary schools over 14 are admitted. In 1906 there were 184 students in the first course and 30 in the second. There is a boarding-house (*Viktoria-Heim*) in connection with the college, where students can be lodged and boarded at the rate of £18 (360M.) a session. (For further particulars, see *Appendix F (1)*.)

(2) The *Berliner Froebel-Verein*. This Society also trains *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*. The first course lasts a year and costs £1 17s. 6d. (37M. 50) quarterly, with an entrance fee of 5s., which goes to form a fund for free places for poor students. The second course (school for nursery maids) also lasts a year and costs 3s. a month, with an additional 6s. a year for material, and 1s. entrance fee. In this course during the first six months the mornings are spent in a Kindergarten, and during the second six months in a family where the student takes part in the domestic work of the house and the care of the children under the guidance of the mistress. In the afternoons from three o'clock instruction is given in German, Arithmetic, Froebel's occupations, education, nature-knowledge, sewing, &c. Thirty-nine girls attended this course in 1906 (see *Appendix F (2)*).

Other training institutions are the *Froebelsche Kindergärtnerinnen - Bildungsanstalt der Hamburger Vorstadt* (six months' course) and the *Berliner Froebel-Schule* (three to four months' course). The *Oberlin-Seminar* trains Protestant (*evangelisch*) infant teachers, in from one to one and a-half years, at a cost of £4 10s. (90M.) yearly, with another £1 for books. Students are not bound to follow a deaconess's calling.

(b) *KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.*

In 1905 there were in Berlin 19 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* under the *Verein zur Beförderung der Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (2179 children); 5 under the *Gossner Verein* (327 children); 14 private institutions (1992 children); and 19 which seem to be religious in character (811 children). The number of children provided for in this way was thus 5299. The distinction between these institutions and the kindergartens rests not in the matter of hours, which seem

to be often the same, but in the fact that Froebel's method are more used in the one than in the other. There appears however, to be much confusion in the classification of the two kinds of institutions.

## (2) BRESLAU.\*

### (a) KINDEGARTENS.

There are 11 Kindergartens in Breslau under the *Kindergarten-Verein*, founded in 1861. One of these is for children who are backward in speaking. It meets in the afternoons four times a week from 3 to 5. In the other Kindergartens children are received between the ages of 3 and 6, and pay a monthly fee of 2s., with an entrance fee of 1s. and an additional charge of 3d. monthly for material, and of 1s. 6d. in October and January for fuel (*Heizgeld*). There are a certain number of free places, and the usual reductions are made for brothers and sisters. All these Kindergartens are open in the morning only, from 8 to 12, or from 9 to 12.30 according to the season, and they are all under the supervision of an inspectress appointed by the Society. In 1906 the Verein received £125 from the town.

#### *Training Course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

The *Kindergarten-Verein* also conducts training courses for *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*. The former course was attended in 1906-7 by 53 girls. It lasts a year or a year and a-half, and costs £6 yearly. The latter course lasts from 6 months to a year, and costs £1 each half-year. It was attended in 1896-7 by 65 girls.

The *Frauenbildungsverein zur Förderung der Erwerbsfähigkeit* also trains *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen*.

### (b) KLEINKINDEBEWAHRANSTALTEN.

The Breslau Directory for 1907 gives a list of some 30 *Bewahranstalten*. Of these 13 are Catholic and one unsectarian; the rest appear to be Protestant. The usual charge is 6d. a month, with free places, and in some cases free soup at mid-day. The Catholic institutions are poorer than the Protestant, owing to the constant flow of poor Catholics from Poland.

## (3) COLOGNE.

### (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

Public Kindergartens directly maintained by the Municipal Authorities have been in existence in Cologne for some thirty years. They are generally accommodated in a school, where two rooms are set apart for them. There are nine such Kindergartens at present in Cologne, attended in 1905 by 561 children. The fees charged are 6d. weekly (50 pf.), but there are a few free places. Except in two Kindergartens no meals are given.

The exceptions are situated in the neighbourhood of factories where women are employed, and in these cases dinner, and milk and bread in the afternoon are supplied at a charge of 1*d.* (10 pf.) a week. The hours are from 8 to 12 and from 2 to 4, and the age of admission from 2½ to 3 years. About sixty children are allowed for one teacher and one assistant. Salaries for teachers begin at £45 (900 M.) yearly, and rise to £75 (1500 M.); assistants receive £36 (720 M.). A pension of half the salary is allowed after 10 years' service with an annual increase of £1.

The total expenditure by the Municipality on the nine schools in 1905 was £993 (19,866 M.). The amount received in school fees was £288 (5754 M.), an average of about 10*s.* per child per year. The total cost per child per year was 35*s.*; the actual cost to the city (deducting money received from fees) was £705 (14112 M.) or roughly 25*s.* per child per year.

A course of training for Kindergarten teachers is held in connection with the Municipal Kindergartens.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

There are a large number of private Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in Cologne, under different committees. A list of charitable institutions in this city, published privately in 1905, gives in all 35 institutions for the care of children between the ages of 2½ and 6. Of these 18 are Catholic, eight Protestant, two Jewish, and seven non-sectarian. Unfortunately no figures are given as to the total number of children accommodated, and no statistics on this point seem to be published by the Municipal Authorities. Generally speaking, these institutions appear to be more of the *Bewahranstalt* type than Kindergartens proper. They are mostly under the charge of sisters, either Catholic or Protestant, and Froebel's methods are not followed to any great extent.

## (4) DRESDEN.\*

There are no Municipal institutions in Dresden for children under school age, nor does any Municipal supervision seem to be exercised over the private institutions, though some of these receive Municipal grants. The supply of such institutions is said to be very inadequate to the demand, which is increasing with the growth of industries, and some of the authorities hold that it is the moral (even the legal) duty of the town to supplement the number of existing institutions. This, however, the town authorities generally are most unwilling to do, on account of the expense. According to the *Haushaltsplan der Stadt Dresden* the amount contributed by the city in 1907 to Societies for the purpose of Kindergartens or *Bewahranstalten* was £730 (14,600 M.).

## (A) KINDERGARTENS.

There are some 11 Kindergartens in Dresden supported by Societies. Eight of these are maintained by the *Allgemeiner Erziehungsverein*, and are attended by about 800 children. The fees charged range from 1.50 M. to 2.25 M. a month. The hours are from 9.0 to 12.0, and in some cases also from 2.0 to 4.0. Teachers must have been trained in a Froebel college, and begin generally with a salary of £40 (800 M.) a year, rising to £70 (1400 M.). In other Kindergartens, where free lodging and sometimes board are given in addition to the salary, the latter ranges from £15 (300 M.) to £24 (480 M.).

There are also eight private Kindergartens with from 10 to 34 children in each, and fees ranging from 3s. to 5s. monthly.

*Training Course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

Courses of training for *Kindergärtnerinnen* and *Kinderpflegerinnen* are conducted in the *Froebelstiftung*, under the *Allgemeiner Erziehungsverein*. In each case the course lasts a year, and the examination at the end is conducted by a Government representative, generally one of the District School Inspectors. The fees for tuition are respectively £5 and £1 4s. (100 M. and 24 M.) yearly, with as much again for material. There is a hostel for students where board and lodging can be had for £27 (536 M.) yearly.

## (B) KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.

In 1901 there were altogether 8 *Bewahranstalten* in Dresden the majority of them being supported by the *Frauenverein*. The number of children in attendance at each institution varied from 60 to 100, and the fee charged is 1d. daily. The person in charge is generally a Deaconess, called the foster-mother (*Pflegemutter*), and in some cases she is assisted by a Kindergarten teacher. The usual salary for the Deaconess is £18 (360 M.) with free lodging, and £5 at Christmas; for the *Kindergärtnerin* from £11 (216 M.) to £12 (240 M.) also with free lodging and £2 10s. (50 M.) at Christmas. These institutions are open all day from about 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.

## (5) DÜSSELDORF.

In Düsseldorf all institutions for children between the ages of three and six have been for over 20 years under Municipal supervision. A register is kept, and each institution is inspected from time to time; new institutions can only be established with the permission of the School authorities. Besides aiding and supervising the 21 existing private institutions the city provides eight Municipal Kindergartens. It is not likely, however, that this number will be increased, or that the policy of direct Municipal management will be extended to private institutions. Rather the tendency in Düsseldorf at present is towards leaving

the management of all *Kleinkinderanstalten* in private hands, possibly with increased grants. It is found inconvenient to house the Kindergartens in the ordinary schools, where they are apt to be crowded out, and where their use of the playground at the hours when the other classes are at work leads to complaints as to noise, and the authorities feel that the supervision of institutions of this kind is very suitably left in the hands of the various charitable societies.

#### *Instruction.*

The rules laid down for the regulation of infant schools in Düsseldorf expressly forbid any definite school instruction. "The children are to be occupied with playing, singing, exercises in the powers of observation and speech (*Anschauungs- und Sprechübungen*), story-telling, and the like." No children are to be admitted who have not completed their third year. The hours are from eight to twelve and two to four with half-holidays on Wednesdays and Saturdays, and the usual school holidays.

#### *Training of Teachers.*

No definite rules are given as to the training of teachers for these institutions, and no course of Kindergarten training is carried out in Düsseldorf. Teachers begin as assistants, and thus pick up a certain amount of training in the course of time. But in neither public nor private institutions is a Kindergarten system on Froebel's lines carried out to any great extent.

#### *Salaries.*

The salary of a head-teacher is £23 (470 M.) yearly, and of an assistant £15 (300 M.) In addition the teachers in the Municipal Schools are allowed to take fees from the children to the extent of 6d. per child per month. No fees are taken directly by the Municipal Authorities. Pensions are given up to three-fourths of the salary received.

#### *Numbers and Cost.*

There are altogether in Düsseldorf 27 institutions for children between three and six, accommodating 4754 children, and attended in 1906 by 3752 children. Eight of these institutions are entirely Municipal. For the total number of institutions there were 35 teachers, and 27 assistants. The total outlay by the Municipality on all institutions was £734 (14,675 M.), but this sum does not include the cost of the upkeep, heating, cleaning, &c., of the premises in which the Municipal Kindergartens are housed, which is estimated with the expenses of the ordinary schools.

None of the institutions visited either in Cologne or in Düsseldorf, calls for particular description, and it seems to be the case that in both of these towns the organisation is better on paper than in fact. In both places large numbers of children are found under one teacher. Thus in Düsseldorf, though the

numbers given in the Municipal Statistics work out at about 60 children to each teacher (including assistants), yet out of the three institutions that I visited two had classes of 80 under one teacher. It is partly a result of these large numbers that so little has been attempted in the way of definite Kindergarten work.

(6) FRANKFURT-ON-MAIN.

The institutions in Frankfurt for the care of children under the compulsory school age are very well organised, and have some interesting features not to be found elsewhere. Since 1898 all institutions for children between the ages of three and six have been under careful Municipal supervision and they all receive yearly grants, though only two of them are entirely supported by the Municipality. One of the City School Inspectors keeps a register of all such institutions, in which particulars are entered in each case as to the number of rooms and the accommodation, the training of the person in charge, the name of the doctor in attendance, and whether there is a garden attached. Each institution is occasionally visited by this inspector. It is possible, perhaps probable, that in time all these institutions may be taken over altogether by the Municipality, though at present the expense is a deterrent factor. On the other hand some at least of the school authorities are doubtful whether it would be a good thing to have institutions of this kind directly controlled by a public body, as a certain amount of restriction as to time-tables and management would be the necessary consequence of such a step. In the case of very small children it is desirable that a good deal of freedom in the handling of them should be allowed to those in charge, and this, it is thought, may be better obtained by leaving the institutions under private management with Municipal supervision as at present.

There are altogether 30 institutions in Frankfurt for children between the age of three and six, attended by some 3,000 children. The total sum spent on such institutions by the City amounted in 1907 to £791 (15,830 M.), but this year it will be about £1,416 (28,330 M.), as the grants to one Society are to be largely increased. Certain regulations hold good for all institutions alike. One teacher is allowed for every 40 children, and salaries range from £4 to £6 monthly (80 to 120 M.) In many cases the Head Mistress lives on the premises and receives free lodging as well as her salary. In addition to the teacher or teachers, each institution has a maid-servant, who acts in some degree as nurse to the children and who receives a monthly wage of £1 5s. (25 M.) All institutions are medically inspected, the doctor's services in each case being given free. There is no regulation time-table, each teacher being allowed to draw up her own, and to regulate the length of each occupation as seems best. Occupations generally, however,

are carried out on Froebel's lines. In most schools a particular subject is taken each month, according to the season of the year, and talks, stories, &c., are grouped round this.

#### (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

The two Kindergartens directly controlled by the Municipality of Frankfurt are, so to speak, accidental in origin. They are situated in outlying villages which a few years ago were taken into the Municipal area. At the time of their incorporation these villages possessed public Kindergartens, and the City of Frankfurt was, therefore, bound to continue such institutions in these particular instances.

##### *Number of Children in attendance,*

About 200 children with five teachers are accommodated in these two Kindergartens, which, in the words of the regulations, offer children of from three to six years of age "shelter and occupation suited to their years, in cases where the parents are not able themselves to look after their children." In the form to be filled in by an applicant for admission to one of these Kindergartens, information has to be given as to the whereabouts of the mother at mid-day.

##### *Hours.*

The Kindergartens are open in Summer from 7 a.m. and in Winter from 8 or 8.30 a.m. to 5 p.m. Saturday is a half-holiday, and the other holidays are the same as in the elementary schools. Admission is free.

##### *School Dinners.*

Children whose parents are not at home in the middle of the day can receive dinner, but the Municipality has nothing to do with the arrangements for this meal, beyond providing the kitchen and cooking utensils. A woman undertakes to cook and supply a dinner at 7d. a head weekly (70 pf), and makes what she can out of it. She is supervised by the Head Mistress, who lives on the premises.

A detailed description of one of these Kindergartens will be found below (p. 156).

#### (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

As in other places private institutions in Frankfurt are supported by numerous committees. There are, for example, some thirteen committees each supporting one institution. It would be unnecessary to give a detailed account of the institutions in each case, but there is one Society supporting a large number of schools of which the working may be more fully described.

##### *Society for People's Kindergartens.*

This is the Society for People's Kindergartens (*Verein für Volkskindergärten*), founded in 1896, which maintains five Kindergartens, accommodating altogether 500 children, under the

charge of Kindergarten teachers trained on the Froebel system. These Kindergartens are intended primarily for children whose parents are at work, and, therefore unable to look after them, and they are open in Summer from 8 to 12 a.m. and from 2 to 5 p.m., and in Winter from 9 to 12 a.m. and from 2 to 5 p.m. The fee charged varies from 7½d. (75 pf.) to 3s. a month, according to the circumstances of the individual families. A further charge of ½d. a day is made for milk, which is given at 10 a.m. and at 4 p.m., the children bringing rolls with them, and, if necessary, dinner can be had for another ½d. daily. In some instances these Kindergartens are accommodated in very excellent houses built on purpose; a description of one of these will be found on p. 157 below. A doctor gives his services in connection with each Kindergarten, and there is also a large number of voluntary helpers, who assist the teachers.

#### *Training Course for Nursery Maids.*

An interesting and practical feature in the Kindergartens under this Society is that they are used also for training as nursery maids girls who have just left the elementary schools (see *Appendix F* (3)). These girls are received free of charge, but must follow the course of training for a year. They help in the work of the Kindergarten, and thus gain experience in the management and care of small children. Girls trained in this way can be sure of good situations on leaving.

#### *Cost.*

The cost of maintaining these five Kindergartens cannot be exactly estimated, as two institutions of another kind are included in the yearly statement of expenses. The sum received in school fees in 1906 was £178 (3,565 M.) and for food £338 (6,757 M.). The average attendance at the five schools for 1906 was 449.

#### TRAINING COURSE FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS.

\* A course of training for Kindergarten teachers, on the Pestalozzi-Froebel method is carried on by the *Frauenbildungs-Verein* in Frankfurt. The course lasts from 1½ to 2 years, according to whether the student is training as a private *Kindertgärtnerin* in a family or as a teacher in a Kindergarten School. The fee is £7 10s. yearly (150 M.). The course of instruction is similar to that in institutions elsewhere. There is a practising Kindergarten in connection with the training College.

This year (1908) the Municipality of Frankfurt hopes to open a large Training College for Women Teachers, which is being built at a cost of £35,000 (700,000 M.). This will include a Kindergarten Course and a practising Kindergarten School. The latter will be visited by all teachers in training, and not by Kindergarten teachers only, as it is considered desirable that all teachers should have experience of children of as young an age as possible.

## THREE FRANKFURT KINDERGARTENS.

The Kindergarten system of Frankfurt has been largely developed lately in the way of providing new buildings, and some of the institutions in this city are housed in a way that represents the very latest and best developments in institutions of this kind in Germany, or indeed anywhere. Three schools were visited, for instance, which had all been opened within the last six months, and which were admirably equipped. The sanitary arrangements in particular, in contrast to those found in certain institutions elsewhere, were excellent in every case. The offices were fitted with small "baby" closets, well flushed on the separate cistern plan, and the lavatories were supplied with hot and cold water. All these new buildings had central heating apparatus. The following notes were taken of the visits paid to these particular schools:—

*(a) Municipal Kindergarten at Oberrad.*

This is in a new building erected at a cost of about £3,000 or £3,500 (60,000 to 70,000 M.), and opened at Easter, 1907. The house is detached and of three storeys, standing behind a large elementary school, on high ground, overlooking a wide stretch of wood and field. It accommodates 120 children, with three teachers. The head teacher lives on the premises. On the first floor there is a large light playroom and a good classroom, with the offices and bathrooms and lavatory. In the play and classrooms the walls are colour-washed, with a dado of stained and varnished wood, in one room green and in the other red. Doors and window-frames match in each case. The furniture in the playroom consists of little round tables with small chairs; in the classroom of low tables and benches, and a black board. In the lavatories, etc., the floors are paved with red and white tiles, and the walls have a dado of glazed white tiles. There are eight wash-hand basins, six water-closets, and two small zinc baths. Pegs for hats and cloaks are in the hall.

On the second floor are two more classrooms, and offices similar to those below, but no lavatory or bathrooms. On this floor there is also an excellently fitted-up kitchen. Above again are the living rooms of the head mistress. The smaller children are put to sleep from 12.30 to 2.30, and instead of beds slapping wooden frames are used covered with brown canvas.

The garden is gravelled, and planted with trees. It contains the usual sand-pits and play-shed, with flower-beds in one corner. A low wooden fence divides it from the playground of the school behind, and in one place this fence was covered with a large pumpkin, the growth of which had been watched with interest by the children, from the planting of the seeds to the swelling of the great yellow fruit.

On the bright October day on which the school was visited doors and windows were wide open, and sun and air streamed in everywhere. The children were playing outside.

*(b) Kindergarten under the Verein für Volkskindergärten.*

This school occupies the ground flat in a tenement forming one of a colony of model Workmen's Dwellings. The dwellings in this case are built in horse-shoe shape round a court. The school accommodates 110 children, and is planned in the form of a long corridor with rooms on each side. On the one side there are three small class-rooms opening into one another by folding partitions, and on the other the play-room and a covered glass verandah. Here also the walls are colour-washed in a light tint to harmonise with the dado of stained red, green, or blue wood, and the furniture consists either of long tables with benches, or of round tables with chairs. In one of the class-rooms at the time of the visit tables were laid for dinner. The preparation consisted simply of putting three tables together and tying over them white wax cloth covers. At each place there was a white wooden square and a spoon. In this school also sloping canvas-covered wooden frames (roughly  $4\frac{1}{2}$  ft. by  $2\frac{1}{2}$  ft.) are used for the mid-day sleep. They are kept in a cellar below one of the rooms, and handed up through a trap-door when required. There are two baths, in which the children are bathed two or three times a week, and there is also a garden, laid out in the usual way.

*(c) Jewish Kindergarten.*

This Kindergarten, founded in 1800, has just moved into a very fine new building called after the donors, the "Moritz und Johanna Oppenheimerscher Kindergarten für Israeliten." The building is beautifully and most expensively fitted up, but is hardly typical of what it is possible to do in ordinary circumstances. The house is detached, and accommodates 70 children, and the total cost of ground and building was £10,000 (200,000 M.) All the rooms for the children, viz., two class-rooms, a play-room, a cloak-room, offices and lavatory, are on the ground floor. The play-room is exceptionally large and lofty, with a gay painted frieze representing the Four Seasons, and seats on a raised gallery at one end, so that the children can be gathered together there for any particular display. Out of the play-room there opens a sunny covered glass verandah. Here the children take their mid-day sleep, on small canvas deck-chairs with folding foot-rests. Each chair is numbered, and each child has his own. The verandah leads by three steps into the garden. The lavatory is all white, with porcelain baths and hand-basins. The offices open off it, and there are also smaller offices on the basement floor, entered from the garden. The floors in lobby and class-rooms are covered with plain dark-red linoleum. The second storey contains a large and admirable kitchen (whence the food is sent down by a lift), the head teacher's rooms, and the Committee rooms. There is also on this floor an isolation room for use in any case of illness. The wood-work and walls of this room are white. It contains a basin with hot and cold water, an invalid couch and a medicine cupboard. The

whole building is fitted with electric light. The children in this school are very poor, many of them being the children of Jewish immigrants. The fees are 2½d. weekly (25 pf.), which includes dinner, and milk and rolls in the afternoon. Overalls of dark-blue print and bibs for meals are supplied clean every day. Baths are given twice weekly. All children are made to gargle after the mid-day meal. A doctor is in attendance, and the children are weighed and measured every month. The School receives many gifts of shoes and clothing.

#### (7) LEIPZIG.

There is no direct Municipal supervision in Leipzig of institutions for the care of children under school age, though in many cases these institutions receive grants and sometimes the use of rooms in a school, from the Municipal Authorities. As no register appears to be kept of the different institutions, general figures for the whole subject are not to be had other than those given in the Table in Appendix A.

The institutions for children between the ages of three and six fall, generally speaking, into two classes:—(a) *Kindergartens*.  
(b) *Kinderbewahranstalten*.

##### (a) KINDERGARTENS.

*Kindergartens* are provided in Leipzig by the following Societies:—*Verein für Volkskindergärten*, *Leipziger Froebel-Verein*, *Pestalozzi-Froebel-Verein*, *Verein für Familien- und Volkserziehung*. The largest number is under the *Verein für Volkskindergärten*, whose object is to provide *Kindergartens* for the children of poor parents. It has at present six *Kindergartens* under its charge, attended in 1906 by some 394 children, the highest average daily attendance being 65. The report of the Society for 1906 states that in several cases the *Kindergartens* were overfilled, and about 300 children had to be refused admission. In consequence of this demand a seventh *Kindergarten* has been started by the Society. In several cases the Society is granted the use of a room or rooms in a *Bezirks* or a *Bürger* School; in other cases suitable localities are rented. The fee charged is 6d. (50 pf.) weekly, with an additional 1d. weekly for material. Teachers' salaries range from 50 M. to 75 M. monthly (£30 to £45 yearly). The children do not receive meals, but go home in the middle of the day. The cost of the maintenance of the six *Kindergartens* in 1906 was, roughly, £335 (6,707 M.); the sum contributed by the payments of the children amounted to £147 (2,945 M.)

The three other societies support altogether five *Kindergartens*, which serve also as practising schools for the course of training for *Kindergarten* teachers, conducted respectively by each society. These *kindergartens* are all run on much the same lines, and need not be described separately. The number of children in each school ranges from about 30 to 75. Fees vary according to the locality and the class of children. They run from 6d. to 3s. a month, and free places are provided in the institutions visited by poorer children. The children are admitted between the ages

of 2½ or 3 and 6 years. The hours are from 8.30 or 9 to 12, and from 2 to 4. Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are free, and the holidays are the same as in the Elementary schools. Salaries range from £30 to £45 yearly. In the regulations for the schools for the poorer children it is generally stated that "children must come punctually and regularly, cleanly clad, and provided with a pocket and a clean pocket-handkerchief. Parents must provide for the bringing and fetching of the children."

The Municipality gives grants to the different Kindergarten societies, ranging from £15 (300 M.) to £60 (1,200 M.) yearly.

#### *Municipal Kindergarten.*

A small Kindergarten attended by 30 children is maintained by the Municipal Authorities as a practising school for Kindergarten teachers in training in connection with the Municipal School for Women's Occupations (*Städtische Schule für Frauenberufe*). This Kindergarten is accommodated in a room on the ground floor of the school, and has the occasional use of the gymnasium. It meets only in the morning, in winter from 10 to 12, and in summer from 9 to 12. The children pay 2½d. (25 pf.) monthly.

#### *Training Courses for Kindergarten Teachers.*

##### (1) *Municipal.*

A *Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar* is conducted in connection with the Municipal School for Women's Occupations. Kindergarten teachers of Class I. (kindergarten teachers for the family, and for public Kindergartens) have a three years' course, while the training for those of Class II. (children's nurses and nursery governesses) lasts for two years. The yearly fee is £2 8s. (48 M.). Besides the practising school in the building, the Kindergartens of the *Verein für Volkskindergärten* are open to the students in training.

##### (2) *Private.*

Each of the following Societies has a training course for Kindergarten teachers, viz. :— The *Leipziger Froebel-Verein*, the *Pestalozzi-Froebel-Verein*, and the *Verein für Familien- und Volkserziehung*. Kindergarten teachers of both classes are trained in these courses, and in two of the colleges there is an additional course for those who wish to become teachers in a Kindergarten college. The course of study is much the same as in the Municipal *Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar*. The courses last from 1½ to 2½ years, and the cost of training ranges from £5 to £11 yearly. The conditions of admission are that the candidate shall have passed through the highest class of a *Bürgerschule*, and have obtained a satisfactory leaving certificate.

##### (b) *KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.*

There are some 24 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* in Leipzig, supported by many different committees. In a large number of cases these institutions are parochial, but as each society is

worked independently it is not possible to give general statistics. The persons in charge are either Sisters of different religious orders or Kindergarten teachers. The hours are from 6 or 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. in summer and from 7 or 8 a.m. to 6 p.m. in winter. The children pay 5d. or 6d. weekly and receive a mid-day dinner and milk or coffee and bread in the afternoon. They bring their breakfast with them. They are not admitted under  $2\frac{1}{2}$  or 3 years, nor, generally, after school age, though in one such institution at least a sort of *Kinderhort* is combined with the *Bewahranstalt*, and the older children come after school hours. Every institution possesses a garden, where the children spend most of the fine weather. The day is occupied with games and occupations on more or less Kindergarten lines, according to the tastes and training of the person in charge. A two hours' sleep after dinner is generally insisted upon; the elder children rest their arms on the table and their heads on their arms, while small wooden beds are provided for the younger ones. In many cases a doctor gives his services when required.

With one or two exceptions, the institutions visited in Leipzig, whether Kindergartens or *Bewahranstalten* were not remarkable, and do not call for detailed description. The accommodation varied in different institutions; but, as a rule, it was not free from the drawbacks almost inseparable in any alteration of a private house for other purposes. In every case, however, the garden was a pleasant feature, and there on a fine day the children were generally to be found. In one Kindergarten, for instance, visited in the afternoon, the children were sitting in three groups—about ten in each—round low tables under the trees. One group was modelling with clay, another was stringing beads into necklaces, while the third set was sticking slips of coloured paper together to form stars. This last occupation proved rather a difficult task for the small fingers, for the paper (bookbinders' waste to be had for the asking) was glazed and slippery and would not stick. The very youngest children were tumbling about happily by themselves on a heap of sand and gravel. Where the Kindergartens are held in the schools the children have to share the common playground, and are not able to be so much out of doors. Time-tables were little in evidence, and did not seem to be very strictly adhered to—at all events, in fine weather.

One admirably housed *Kinderbewahranstalt*, however, in a suburb of Leipzig, is worthy of a more detailed description. It is established in connection with a set of Model Workmen's houses built by a "Society for the Erection of Cheap Dwellings" (*Stiftung für Erbauung billiger Wohnungen*). The houses in question, which accommodate 344 families, are built in rectangular form, round about five acres of open ground, and the *Kinderbewahranstalt* forms one end of the quadrangle. It is a detached house of three storeys, the children's rooms being on the first floor. There are three of these, two for occupations, and one for games. The last is a bow-shaped room, looking out on to the ground enclosed by the houses, which is laid out with a

walk down the middle and strips of allotment-gardens on each side. The play-room is lighted by nine large windows, and faces south. In a small room off it, beds are provided for the youngest children. They consist of low wooden bedsteads, wide enough to hold five children in a row. The mattress is covered with a blanket, which, as well as the over blanket, is washed weekly. The other rooms are furnished with low benches and tables. Each table seats ten children, and for the different occupations the children are thus divided up into groups of ten. There is a good kitchen and larder also on the ground floor. Dinner is taken in one of the class-rooms, and eaten out of small enamel bowls. Pegs for the children's clothes are hung in the lobby. On the upper floor are the living rooms of the Kindergarten mistresses.

There is a small play-ground for the children, fenced in from the common ground and containing a play-shed, a sand-heap, and little plots for gardens. The children were outside at the time the institution was visited.

This institution is attended by from 60 to 80 children. The hours are from 8 to 6, though some children go home to mid-day dinner, with an hour and a-half's sleep in the afternoon. The age of admission is from two years to six. The fee charged is about 3½d. (35 pf.) weekly, which includes dinner (*see Appendix G*), afternoon coffee, and material for occupations. The children are provided with dark blue print overalls, one a week. The early breakfast (as well as a pocket handkerchief), is required to be brought by each child. Holidays are the same as in the schools. There are two mistresses, both trained Kindergarten teachers. This institution and a similar one of the same size in another "colony" are supported by the society which manages the buildings; they cost on an average (in addition to the payments of the children), about 4d. (37 pf.), per child, per school day.

#### (8) MUNICH.

The population of Munich is 538,983 (1905); there are 55 Public Elementary Schools (*Volksschulen*) attended by 61,758 children. Attendance at these schools only becomes compulsory on the children after they have reached the age of six. The provision made for the care and education of children between three and six years of age falls into two classes:—

- (1) The institutions supported by the municipality;
- (2) The institutions supported by private enterprise.

#### (1.) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

There are in Munich at present 23 Kindergartens under the care of the municipal authorities (*Stadt Gemeinde*). Up to January, 1907, these institutions had been directed and supported by a private society (*Münchener Kindergartenverein*) which

had existed since 1868. As this society, however, had no longer sufficient funds at its disposal to meet the necessary expenses, the municipal authorities agreed in September, 1906, to take over the entire charge of the Kindergarten Departments from the beginning of 1907. They had already for some time partially supported these departments, the *Stadt-Magistrat* giving a yearly grant of about £2,334 (46,693 M.), including a grant of £627 (12,548 M.) for teachers' salaries. A Kindergarten Department has been included in every new school for the last sixteen years, and the use of these buildings was granted to the society rent free, and without charge for heating and cleaning.

As the transference of the Kindergarten Departments has only taken place so recently the organisation is still in a transitory state.

#### *Building and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten Departments are on the ground floor, shut off from the rest of the school, and with a separate entrance. They consist generally of two rooms, with a cloak room, teachers' room, and lavatories for the boys and for the girls, these last being inside the building. There is always a garden attached, with a covered play-shed, and a plot either of grass or of gravel, surrounded by trees. The class-rooms vary in size in the different buildings. The furnishing is of the most simple description. One room contains long low tables with low benches, and the other is left empty in the middle for games, etc., and has benches round the walls. A piano and a few pictures and a cupboard or two complete the equipment, with the exception of the materials necessary for the various Kindergarten occupations. There are also benches and tables in the garden and in the play-shed, and the former often contains a sand-pit.

#### *The Staff.*

There are as yet no particular regulations as to the number of teachers in relation to the size of the classes. The number ranges at present from four in the largest schools (of about 140 children) to one in the smallest (40-45 children). There are at present in all 63 teachers.

#### *Qualifications and Training.*

Every teacher must have undergone training as a Kindergarten teacher. The Training College for Kindergarten Teachers in Munich (*Münchener Kindergärtnerinnen-Seminar*) is under private direction. The course lasts for a year, from September 15th to July 15th, and consists of instruction in the theory and practice of Kindergarten teaching. Candidates for entrance must be at least sixteen years old, and must have been at a Girls' Higher School, or some corresponding institution. These regulations have not hitherto been insisted upon very stringently. In future, however, they will probably be more strictly observed, and the period of training may be extended to two years. The cost of the year's training is about £9 (180 M.).

After leaving the Training College the Kindergarten teacher has to serve for a year in a school without salary as *Praktikantin*. She then serves for four years as *Hilfslehrerin*, and for three years as *Verweserin*; after these eight years she is recognised as a fully trained *Kindergärtnerin*.

The salaries are as follows:—*Hilfslehrerin* about £30 (600 M.) a year; *Verweserin* about £36 (720 M.); *Kindergärtnerin* £48 (960 M.), with five three-yearly increments, and five five-yearly increments of £3 respectively. Further the *Verweserin* is entitled to a pension of 65 per cent. of her salary, and the *Kindergärtnerin* to one of 70 per cent. in the first ten years of service, 80 per cent. in the second ten years, 90 per cent. from the twenty-first to the thirty-fifth years of service, 95 per cent. from the thirty-sixth to the fortieth; after fifty years' service she is entitled to the whole salary as pension. There is also an organising Kindergarten mistress (*Oberkindergärtnerin*) who receives an additional salary of £24 (480 M.)

#### *Holidays.*

The teachers receive the following holidays: *Praktikantin* 14 days; *Hilfslehrerin*, 4 weeks; *Verweserin* and *Kindergärtnerin*, 6 weeks.

#### *Conditions, etc., for Admission to Kindergarten.*

Children are received into the Kindergarten between the ages of 3 and 6. Attendance is voluntary, and entrance can take place at any time—the only conditions imposed are that the child shall be clean and free from any infectious or contagious disease.

#### *Fees.*

A fee is charged of 2s. (2 M.) a month; if two attend from the same family, half-price is charged for the second child. In the case of poverty the fees are remitted either in whole or in part.

#### *Hours, etc.*

The Kindergartens are open daily, except on Sundays and on certain public holidays, from 8 a.m. to 12, and from 2 to 6 p.m. They remain open during the summer vacation. It is possible to arrange for this and at the same time to give the teachers holidays without increasing the teaching staff, as the attendance is much smaller during the summer months.

#### *Instruction and Time-table.*

The instruction given is of the ordinary Kindergarten nature, consisting of games, action-songs, clay-modelling, paper-folding and weaving, etc. The object is to leave the children as free as possible, and to reduce anything approaching school discipline to a minimum. In summer the children are as much as possible in the garden, or at least in the open play shed. (*See Appendix D (1)*).

#### *Number of Children in Attendance.*

The latest available report of the Kindergarten Society, that for 1905, gives a total attendance in the year of 1,658 individual

children at twenty Kindergarten Departments. In the City statistics for the same year the number of children from one to six years of age is given as 64,157; thus about 2½ per cent. of the child population under the compulsory school age were in attendance at a Kindergarten. Out of these 1,658 children, an average of about 59, or roughly 3½ per cent. of the number attending, had free places. As there are now 23 Kindergartens under the Municipal Authorities the percentage of the child population in attendance will be higher. There are not yet sufficient Kindergartens to meet the demand.

#### *Cost.*

The cost of erecting a Kindergarten Department for between 60 and 80 children (exclusive of the cost of the ground) is reckoned at about £800 to £1,000 (16,000 to 20,000 M.). No exact estimate is yet to be had as to the cost of maintenance per child per year. The yearly expenditure on the part of the *Stadt-Magistrat* is estimated as likely to be about £3,000 or £3,500 (60,000 to 70,000 M.).

#### *Miscellaneous.*

The majority of the Kindergarten children go home to dinner in the middle of the day, but in those departments attached to schools where there is a soup kitchen, a dinner of soup with meat in it is provided at a charge of 1d. daily (10 pf.). Each child brings his own morning lunch, and also something to eat in the afternoon (*Vesperbrod*). The bringing and fetching of the children is not undertaken by the school authorities. They do not receive boots or clothing, nor are they medically inspected.

Four-fifths of the children attending the Kindergartens come from working-class families, but other sections of society are also represented. In the Kindergartens in the wealthier part of the city, for instance, there are to be found the children of officers, professors, teachers, etc. Such children often attend the Kindergarten for a part only of the day.

Under Municipal management certain alterations will probably be made in the organisation of the Kindergartens. The number of teachers, in particular, is likely to be increased, so as to reduce as far as possible the number of children under one teacher. The Kindergarten ideal of a home, as distinct from a school atmosphere, could only be obtained with very small groups of children (about 12) under each teacher.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

### (A) KLEINKINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN.

These institutions are of the nature of day-nurseries for children under school age of working-class parents. They are supported and directed by different charitable societies. The City statistics for 1905 give the total number of such institutions as 24, 20 being Catholic and 4 Protestant.

*Building and Equipment.*

The accommodation varies considerably in size, the average number of children in attendance monthly in the different institutions ranging from about 400 to 20. In almost every case the room or rooms provided form part of a larger building, used for other purposes. Generally speaking, the *Kinderbewahranstalt* consists of one large room, or two smaller ones provided with low tables and forms, lavatories, kitchen, and garden. The accommodation indeed is on much the same lines as in the *Kindergartens*.

*Staff.*

These institutions are conducted by Sisters of various religious orders, both Catholic and Protestant, sometimes with voluntary lay assistants.

*Admission Fees.*

Children are received between the ages of 3 and 6. A small fee is charged, generally about 3d. weekly (30 pf.), but poor children are received free of charge. Dinner, consisting of soup with meat in it, is provided for those children who do not go home in the middle of the day, at a charge of either ½d. (5 pf.) or 1d. (10 pf.) daily. This charge is also remitted in the case of poverty.

*Hours, etc.*

The *Kinderbewahranstalten* are open every week-day throughout the year from about 6.30 or 7 a.m. to 6.30 or 7 p.m.

*Instruction.*

The instruction in these institutions is more or less on *Kindergarten* lines, including action-songs, games, hand-work, &c. A time-table, however, is less strictly adhered to than in the regular *Kindergartens*, and religious exercises play a much larger part in the day's curriculum. In summer the children are as much as possible out-of-doors. All the institutions seem to be conducted on much the same lines.

*Cost.*

Exact estimates are not to be had of the cost of maintenance of the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, or of the cost of the buildings. In almost every case the *Bewahranstalt* forms part of a larger building, and other organisations are included in the year's expenditure.

The municipal authorities (*Stadt-Magistrat*) give a yearly grant of about £186 (3,716 M.), divided among different private institutions.

*Miscellaneous.*

No arrangement is made for bringing and fetching the children. At Christmas the poorer children receive gifts of clothing.

(b) *KLEINKINDER-SCHULEN (INFANT SCHOOLS).*

There are besides the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, four Catholic infants schools in Munich, supported by charitable societies. These institutions approach more nearly than the *Kinderbewahranstalten* to the regular *Kindergartens*. The teachers are paid, and do not belong to any religious order; they need not, however, have undergone regular *Kindergarten* training.

*Fees.*

The usual fee charged is 2s. (2 M.) monthly, with reductions in the case of more than one child attending from one family. A dinner of soup is provided at a daily charge of  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Free places and free meals are granted in cases of poverty.

*Hours.*

The schools are open every week-day, in winter from 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., and in summer from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m. They are closed for a short time in the summer holidays.

*Instruction.*

The instruction and occupations are of the ordinary *Kindergarten* kind.

The monthly average attendance at the Infant Schools in 1905 was 366.

*Jewish Kindergarten.*

There has also been in existence in Munich for the last two years a Jewish *Kindergarten* for the children of poor Jewish parents. It is supported by a private society, and worked largely by voluntary helpers. There are three rooms accommodating thirty children. The children are received free, and are given a free breakfast of milk and bread; they also receive a warm bath once a week. The hours are from 8.15 a.m. to 12, and from 2 p.m. to 4.

*Cost of Private Infant Schools.*

As in the case of the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, the Infant Schools almost always form part of a larger building, and no separate estimates are to be had as to the expense of erection or the cost of maintenance. In one instance, however, a separate building had been erected for an Infant School alone at a cost of, roughly, £500 (10,000 M.). This was for the building only, which was of one storey and contained two rooms, kitchen, cloak-room, visitors' room, and lavatories. The cost of the garden and play-shed was not included in the estimate given. The school had an average attendance of 180 children with one teacher and two assistants. Of these, ten were received free and 138 at half-price. The expenditure for the year 1906 was about £190 (3,806 marks), roughly, £1 1s. per child.

## (9) ZURICH.

## (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

*Supervision.*

In each of the five districts (*Kreise*) into which Zurich is divided a Committee (*Kindergarten-Kommission*) of from five to 10 members, formed from the District School Committee (*Kreis-Schulpflege*), is appointed to superintend the public Kindergarten classes. There are further three women inspectors, whose duty it is to visit Kindergartens, and private *Kinderbewahranstalten* in the City and surrounding district (*Bezirk-Zurich*). These women inspectors are teachers, one in a Kindergarten, and two in elementary schools, and the work of inspection is carried on in addition to their school work. Each of them is bound to visit each institution allotted to her twice a year, and she receives 6 francs for each visit. There are about 25 institutions for each inspectress.

*Regulations, etc.*

In the public Kindergartens children are admitted from the end of the third to the end of the fifth year. No fees are charged. The hours are from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m., with two afternoons free in the week. One teacher is allowed to every 40 children. Salaries begin at 1,400 francs a year, and rise gradually, till, after twenty-one years of service, the maximum of 2,400 francs is reached. A pension is given, amounting to 60 per cent. of the salary, at the time of retiring. (For the occupations, etc., of the Kindergartens, see *Appendix E (1)*).

*Accommodation.*

The public Kindergartens are held for the most part in the public schools, where a room on the ground floor is assigned to each class. They have generally the use of another room for playing. The Kindergarten children share the common playground, but have separate offices inside the building. In some quarters of the city, however, where there is no convenient school, rooms are hired for the purpose of a Kindergarten.

*School Dinners.*

In the poorer districts the Kindergarten children are given soup and bread at mid-day, and in some cases milk. This is supplied free out of a fund made up of Municipal and private contributions. This fund also provides clothes, shoes, and spectacles for poor children.

*Medical Inspection.*

The Kindergarten children do not come under the regular medical inspection, though the school doctor can be called in if necessary. They share, however, with the other school children in the periodical inspection of heads. This occurs twice or thrice a year, and is carried out, with the aid of a powerful magnifying

glass, by a woman appointed for the purpose, who acts as a sort of assistant to the school doctor. The parents of children who are found to be in a dirty condition are warned, and if the warning has no effect the authorities have power to have the offending child cleansed. Compulsory cleansings are rare, however, as they are looked upon as a great disgrace.

There are at present 47 Kindergarten classes in Zurich, attended in 1906 by 1,823 children. Of this number 266 children received mid-day soup. \*

The yearly cost of the Municipal Kindergartens is not estimated separately from the general school expenses.

### *Training of Teachers.*

A course of training for Kindergarten teachers is held in Zurich every second year in the Girls' Public High School (*Höhere Töchterschule*). The number of students is limited to 30. The course is free, and consists of 32 hours a week, 10 of which are occupied with practical work in the Kindergartens. The subjects consist of German (five hours), History of Education (three hours), Method (two hours), Hygiene (two hours), Natural History (two hours), Geometry (one hour), Drawing (two hours), Singing (two hours), Gymnastics (one hour), Handwork (two hours) (*see Appendix F (4)*).

### *Equipment : Time-table.*

The Kindergarten system of Zurich is well organised, and the occupations are carried out on broad and reasonable lines. The accommodation naturally varies. Where the class is held in a school the rooms are large, well provided with windows, and heated with hot pipes. The furnishing consists of low tables, seating four or five children a side, with either low benches or little chairs with arms. Pegs for hats and cloaks are generally in the corridor. Where rooms are hired for the purposes of a Kindergarten the accommodation may leave a good deal to be desired. One class which was visited, for instance, was held in a room on the ground floor of a corner house. Though the room itself was fairly large and well lighted, the lavatory accommodation and the offices were very deficient, and there was no garden. There was, however, a public square just outside, and country walks were within reach.

No general time-table is insisted upon in the Kindergarten classes, and the division of time is left largely in the hands of the individual teacher. Where it is possible country walks are taken on fine afternoons. One class was visited as it assembled in the morning. Proceedings began with a short prayer, which was followed by an individual inspection of hands, which were satisfactorily clean in each case. Then came the roll-call, and after some recitation of poetry, the children were divided into groups and placed round tables. One set was given large beads to thread, another bricks to build with, a third pricked cards to sew, while the fourth set made patterns on the table with porcelain buttons.

(Porcelain buttons of different sizes and colours are used in Zurich instead of cardboard discs. Though more expensive they have the advantage of being easily washed, and not easily destroyed.) Talking was allowed among the children.

(2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

In 1906 there were 19 *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* or *Spielschulen* in Zurich attended by 1,005 children. These are under the same Municipal supervision as the public Kindergartens, and have to conform to certain regulations laid down by the city. They are not allowed to take children before the completion of the fourth year, and all teachers must be trained. The hours are the same as in the Kindergartens, and the fee charged is from 60 to 100 centimes a month. These institutions receive no support from the city. Many of them are of old standing, and were founded as far back as 1830. Generally speaking they are not modern either in spirit or method, and they seem to exist largely for religious reasons. Much greater weight is laid in them on religious instruction than in the town Kindergartens. The object, for instance, of the *Verein für Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* (Zurich) is stated in the Society's regulations to be "to receive children under school age, to influence their education through the principles of the Christian religion, and to further their development, bodily and mental. For this purpose no other means are to be employed than those used by a Christian mother in a well-regulated family for the education of her children." In general the tone of the reports of the different private Societies (some seven in all) are rather on the defensive as against the public institutions. Some of them state, however, that they have not sufficient places to supply the demand, and congratulate themselves that "even in these days of State management many parents prefer schools for which they must make a sacrifice to the free schools."

As an example of the cost of these private institutions, the following extract from the accounts of a Society maintaining three *Bewahranstalten*, attended by about 160 children, may be given:—

Expenses (1905-6).	Fr.	ct.
(a) Salaries of Mistresses - - - -	6,900	—
(b) Upkeep, care and heating of buildings -	764	45
(c) Interest - - - - -	637	50
(d) Cost of building and repairing - -	1,264	50
(e) Divers expenses - - - - -	342	65
Total - - - - -	9,909	10

The total amount received in school fees was Fr. 1,250 20c.

## (10) BASLE.

## (1) MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

In Basle the same system of public kindergartens exists as in Zurich, and here also all institutions for children between three and six are under municipal supervision. In Basle, however, the number of municipal classes is larger than in Zurich, and private institutions are gradually being taken over by the city. Municipal organisation in this city dates from 1895

*Supervision.*

In Basle, the public Kindergartens, or *Kleinkinderanstalten* as they are called, are under the general supervision of the Education Department (*Erziehungs Departement*), and under the particular supervision of a special committee (*Kommission der Kleinkinderanstalten*), consisting of a president and eight members, three of whom must be women, chosen by the Municipal Council (*Regierungsrat*) for a period of three years. This committee has the power of appointing a Ladies' Committee of from three to five members for each individual institution.

There is further a woman inspector appointed by the Education Department at a yearly salary of from 3,000 francs to 5,000 francs, who has charge of all institutions public and private. Her duties are carefully laid down in the official regulations. She organises the public Kindergartens, keeps the accounts, and supervises the attendance returns. She visits the different classes, inspects the management of the children, the sanitary conditions, &c., and arranges any difficulties that may arise, such as those between parents and teacher. She reports to the special committee, to which she acts as secretary. She also arranges conferences with the teachers of the *Kleinkinderanstalten*, at which she takes the chair.

*Regulations.*

Children are admitted to the public Kindergartens from the end of the third to the end of the fifth year. Attendance is optional and free. The hours are from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m. There is one teacher to every 40 children; where the class is over 40 an assistant is appointed. The salaries for teachers range from 1,500 francs to 2,000 francs yearly with a supplement after 10 years' service, and another after 15 years' service, rising altogether to a maximum of 2,350 francs. Assistants begin with 1,000 francs yearly. Pensions are given of from 1,000 francs to 1,500 francs a year.

*Instruction.*

The occupations laid down in the official regulations as suitable for children between 3 and 6, are story-telling, observation and description of objects and pictures, practice in speaking, simple handwork, games and singing. No one occupation is to last more than three-quarters of an hour. It is expressly stated that no instruction in reading, writing or arithmetic is to be given. Teachers are to strive to train the children in obedience, honesty, and love of truth, and "to plant the seed of childish piety in their hearts." They are to pay great attention to the bodily care of the children, to see that they sit, stand and walk in a rational way, and to guard against any straining of sight or hearing. Corporal punishment is only allowed in exceptional cases, and then only in a way which would not go beyond mild paternal punishment ("nur in einer Weise welche die Grenzen einer mässigen elterlichen Zucht nicht überschreiten.")\* The children in the Kindergarten are not as yet medically inspected. The poorer ones get boots and clothing from the Municipality.

*Numbers, Cost, etc.*

In 1906 there were 73 Municipal institutions in Basle with 74 classes. The number of children in attendance was 3,213, with 42 teachers and 32 assistants. The estimated expenditure on the part of the municipality for 1903 is 280,000 francs. This includes rent, salaries, material, etc., as well as grants to private institutions.

*Training course for Kindergarten Teachers.*

A free course of training for teachers in *Kleinkinderanstalten* is held in the Girls' High School in Basle. The course lasts a year, and follows the same lines as the similar course in Zurich.

## (2) PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.

Private institutions for children between 3 and 6 years of age are under the same supervision and regulations as the public ones. A private institution can only be opened with the permission of the Council of Education (*Erziehungsrat*), which must be satisfied that the qualifications of the teacher, the size of the classes, the accommodation provided, etc., are satisfactory. All private institutions which charge no fees, and in which the mistress has a salary of at least 1,000 francs yearly, can receive grants from the municipality. These grants are from 500 francs to 600 francs yearly in each case. In 1906 there were 20 private institutions in Basle, attended by 836 children.

*Kinderhorte for Children under School Age †.*

There is a further interesting development of private enterprise in Basle. *Kinderhorte* are provided in some quarters of the

\* This regulation, however, is never taken advantage of and is practically a dead letter.

† See also Appendix J.

town for children attending the *Kleinkinderanstalten*. So far as is known Basle is the only place where such institutions exist for the small children, though in all German and Swiss towns a more or less flourishing system of *Kinderhorte* is carried on for children of school age. The need of such a provision for small children is not so apparent in many towns where the *Kinderbewahranstalten* are open till evening. But where, as in Basle, they shut at 4 o'clock, some further provision is obviously necessary in the case of children whose mothers are at work. It is probable that *Horte* for small children will soon be opened in Zurich also.

There are at present four *Horte* for children between three and six in Basle, accommodating about 40 children each. They are supported by the *Gemeinnützige Gesellschaft*, and are held in the same buildings as the *Kindergartens*. The *Hort* is open as a rule from October to March, between the hours of 4 and 6.30 p.m. It is under the charge of one of the kindergarten teachers, who receives 2½ francs or 3 francs an evening. The children play games, and amuse themselves with toys. They get bread and sometimes milk at 4 o'clock. The children attending a *Hort* are not necessarily the children who attend the *Kindergarten* in the same building, as the *Hort* serves a whole district and is intended only for the poorer children.

None of the *Kleinkinderanstalten* visited in Basle offered anything remarkable in the way of building or equipment. The whole system is excellently organised and supervised, but some of the buildings seemed to come far short, especially in sanitary matters, of the standard laid down in the official regulations. These regulations indeed would appear at present to be rather a counsel of perfection, and are not strictly obeyed in every detail.

#### (11) GENEVA.\*

##### *Regulations.*

The general regulations for the infant schools in Geneva have already been given (see p. 145). These Schools are open in the morning from 8.15 to 11, and in the afternoon from 1.15 to 4. Entrance takes place four times a year, viz., after the summer holidays in October, January, and after the Easter holidays. The holidays are the same as in the elementary schools. Classes may not exceed 40. Poor children are fed in winter, from November till Easter, either free or for a payment of 4 sous a day. The classes are medically inspected every two months.

Salaries.

The following extract from the Budget of the Canton of Geneva for 1906 gives the cost of salaries in the infant schools in the town and canton of Geneva in that year:—

		Ecoles Infantines.*		
		Fr.	c.	Fr. c.
A.	Traitement de l'inspectrice - -	3,300	00	} 3,900 00
	Frais de déplacement - -	600	00	
B.	Traitement de 156 maîtresses -			} 252,030 00
	de 30 sous-maîtresses - -			
	Part de l'Etat - - - -	168,020	05	
	Part des communes - - - -	45,209	95	
	Part de la ville - - - -	38,800	00	
C.	Indemnité aux maîtresses qui dirigent une division primaire - - - -			2,000 00
D.	Frais de suppléances - - - -			4,000 00
E.	Indemnité pour cours nouveaux - - - -			500 00
		Dépense totale - - - -		262,430 00
à déduire : Part de la ville et des communes - - - -				84,009 95
Rest à la charge de l'Etat - - - -				178,420 05

Training of Teachers.

Free courses of training for teachers in the *écoles enfantines* are conducted in connection with these schools.† Candidates have to pass :

(a) A preliminary examination to show that their general education has reached the stage of the third class of the *école secondaire et supérieure des jeunes filles*.

(b) A competitive examination for admission to the special training. Candidates must be between 17 and 30, and of Swiss nationality. The examination includes French composition, reading and discussion of a literary extract, recitation of poetry, the working out on the black board of a problem in simple arithmetic, singing, a simple sketch from nature, and a page of hand-writing. The examination may only be attempted twice.

(c) Successful candidates then enter upon a special training course (*le stage*), which takes place partly in special classes in the infant schools (*classes d'application*), partly in normal courses on education in general, and the methods of Froebel. The final examination consists of a composition on some educational subject, and the conducting of a class, including lessons, games and occupations, according to the programme of the *écoles enfantines*. Successful candidates receive the *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement dans les écoles enfantines*, which the Council of State demands from all teachers in the infant schools.

\* From *Budget du Canton de Genève pour l'année 1906, Section VI. ; Département de l'Instruction Publique.*

† See *Règlement concernant les examens et le stage des aspirantes aux fonctions de Maîtresse et de sous-Maîtresse dans les écoles enfantines*. Geneva, 1905.

### III.—THE CRÈCHE SYSTEM IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND.

Crèches or *Krippen* exist in most German and Swiss towns, and form as a rule a distinct class of institutions apart from the *Kindergartens* or *Bewahranstalten*. Generally speaking children are admitted into the *Krippen* from the age of from three to six weeks until the end of the third year, and though occasionally they may be kept until the compulsory school age is reached, children over three do not properly come within the sphere of the *Krippe*. In most cases they pass at the age of three from the *Krippe* into the *Kindergarten* or the *Bewahranstalt*. *Krippen* in Germany, and in German-speaking Switzerland, are not municipally organized or supervised, though they may receive grants from the municipality. They are supported always by private charitable societies. The number of such institutions varies greatly in the different towns. In Leipzig, for instance, there are none at present, those which previously existed having been given up, as the demand for them was so small; Munich, on the other hand, has some eight *Krippen* in the city itself, besides others in the suburbs; Dresden has four; Frankfurt, about six; Cologne and Düsseldorf one each; Zurich, four; Basel, five; and Geneva, four. As no register appears to be kept of the *Krippen* generally it is not possible to give the total number of children received in them in any one town.

#### REGULATIONS.

The rules of the *Krippe* are much the same everywhere. The average age of admission is six weeks, though in some cases much younger children are received. It is not considered desirable, however, to take infants of a few days into the *Krippe*, except in cases of absolute necessity, as it encourages the mother to work sooner than is advisable for her health. The *Krippe* is intended only for children whose mothers are at work, and is open from 5.30 or 6 a.m. till the factories close in the evening, or, in some towns, till 8 p.m. The charge made is generally 20 pf. (about 2d.) a day, in Switzerland from 20 to 30 centimes, and a reduction is allowed if more than one child attends from the same family. In some institutions a lower charge is made for nursing mothers who are able to visit the *Krippe* during the day. In Frankfurt, for instance, a nursing mother who comes once during the day is charged only 10 pf., and if she comes twice her child is received free. As a rule, however, few mothers are able to visit the institution by day. In nearly every institution free places are given. Illegitimate children are also generally received; if a regulation to the contrary appears among the rules of a *Krippe* it does not seem to be kept very strictly.

## STAFF.

The *Krippen* are in most cases under the charge of Sisters (Catholic or Protestant), often with voluntary helpers. In nearly every case the Sister is trained in the management and care of infants.

## CARE OF CHILDREN: MEALS.

When the children arrive in the morning they are completely undressed and put into clean clothes. The infants are bathed daily, the older children twice or thrice a week. Infants are fed every two or three hours with milk and rice or barley water, according to the directions of the doctor attending the *Krippe*, the older children get milk and bread in the early morning, dinner about 11 a.m., sometimes with meat twice a week, sometimes only of milk-food, milk and bread again in the afternoon, and in some institutions a further meal of soup before leaving. In some institutions, too, it is the custom to give the mothers properly prepared milk to use during the night, and also a supply over Sunday, as it is found that the children suffer from the change of food. The older children all have a two hours' sleep after dinner, and the rest of the time they are amused with toys and games; Kindergarten occupations are also employed in some cases. The children are as much as possible in the open air, a garden being an essential part of every well-equipped *Krippe*.

## COST.

No general rules can be laid down as to the municipal grants received by the *Krippen*, as these vary considerably. Nor is it possible except in a few instances to give the cost of such an institution per child per year, as the accounts are often not given in detail. A few examples are to be had, however. Thus, in Frankfurt in 1905-6, the cost in three *Krippen*, with an average attendance of 28, 23 and 14 children, was respectively 68 pf., 73 pf. and 93 pf. per child per day; in Munich, six *Krippen* were maintained at an average cost of 60 pf. per child per day; in Zurich, the cost per child per day for three *Krippen*, attended on an average by 68 children, was 1 fr. 09 cts.; the cost of a crèche in Geneva, attended altogether in 1906 by 93 children, was 1 fr. 04 cts. a day.

## NOTES ON INDIVIDUAL KRIPPEN.

The following notes of visits paid to *Krippen* in Frankfurt and in Basle describe the latest developments in the way of housing and arranging these institutions.

(1) *Krippe at Frankfurt.*

This *Krippe* is lodged in a flat in a colony of workmen's dwellings, just above the Kindergarten described on page 157. It accommodates 60 children under the management

of two Sisters, with a cook and a washerwoman. Voluntary helpers also give some assistance with the older children. The rooms consist of a receiving room, where the children are taken in on arriving and undressed, their own clothes being hung in string bags; a bath-room with two large zinc baths and one small one, all raised; a large play-room and an infants' room, as well as a kitchen and offices. There is further a covered glass verandah where the older children play. Some of the fittings of this *Krippe* are very practical. In the bath room, for instance, there is a sort of dresser with a ledge that puts up, on which the babies can safely be laid for dressing. In the play-room a kind of low sloping wooden locker runs along one side of the wall, and on this mattresses covered with dark American cloth are laid for the older children at sleeping time. When not in use the mattresses are kept inside the locker. The play-room also contains at one end circular wooden forms, surrounded by a railing. The babies' room is very dainty, as the cots, hung on wheels, are covered with white piqué, and have curtains of pink and white muslin. (The curtains, however, had been condemned by the doctor as unsanitary, and he preferred plain unadorned cribs of white enamelled iron.) The cupboards hold a plentiful store of clothes and linen, tied up with ribbons in the neat German way. The babies in this *Krippe* wear jerseys or little jackets knitted in white cotton, the older children suits of thick striped calico, pink and white or blue and white, according to the sex. There is also a good supply of toys. Sanitary arrangements are excellent and the play-room and verandah beautifully airy and sunny.

### (2) *Krippe in Basle.*

The latest institutions of this kind in Basle are built on lines of which the following *Krippe* is an example. In this building the entrance from the street leads into the courtyard or garden, which has a covered shed at one end. Here the perambulators in which the children are brought by the mothers are stored till the evening, and here the children are received. A door leads from the shed into the bath and reception-room, so that the children never enter the other rooms in their home clothes. These latter are stored for the day in a cupboard, and are disinfected with formalin once a week. Out of the bath-room opens a covered glass verandah which serves as play-room, and out of this again a sleeping-room with cots for the bigger children. Then comes the infants' room with small wicker cots like clothes baskets on wheels. This opens into a passage, into which the private entrance gives. On the other side of this passage are the kitchen, wash-house, bath-room and lavatory for the staff, and larder.

[For specimen regulations and tables of expenses of *Krippen*, see Appendix H.]

#### IV.—CONCLUSION.

In general it may be said that we have less to learn from Germany in regard to institutions for young children than is the case in other departments of her social and educational work.

A comparison of the institutions provided in the two countries is however difficult, owing to their different nature. In this country by far the greater number of children under school age who attend an institution at all attend an elementary school, and the number of children thus provided for is much greater than the number of children provided for in institutions in Germany. Unfortunately the latter number cannot be reckoned exactly. According to the statistics given in *Appendix A* the total number of children between three and six attending institutions in Germany in 1901-02 was about 79,117; in England and Wales in that year there were 613,473\* children under five attending school. The admission of children under five to the schools in this country seems to have been carried out on no very definite policy, either social or educational, although the modern institution of "babies' classes," containing some of the best features of the Kindergarten, has no doubt given a certain educational value to the attendance of very young children at school. In Germany the whole movement for the care of young children has been based on much more definite aims—the positive aim of providing shelter and wholesome surroundings for the children of the poor, and in the Kindergartens, the further positive aim of developing the faculties of the young child in accordance with his age and nature. We have nothing to compare in this country with the very large number of institutions, maintained by private charitable societies, which in Germany take charge of children between three and six; for our day-nurseries are few in number, and belong more to the class of institutions known as *Krippen* in Germany, where they are also not very numerous.

#### COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND GERMAN METHODS.

As far as the method of handling the children and the nature of the occupations are concerned, this country appears to be quite abreast of modern German ideas. It is now generally recognised here that the methods and subjects suitable for older children are often very unsuitable for children under five, and in the special "babies' classes," time-tables are followed from which formal instruction in the three R's is altogether excluded, and which are quite as good as anything to be found in Germany. Where German institutions are perhaps superior is in the general absence of anything of the set school-room, owing largely to the substitution of tables and chairs for fixed benches, and in the greater elasticity of the time-table. The duration of any particular occupation is left largely to the discretion of the mistress, and in the summer and fine weather the whole time-

\* This number included 2,484 under three. The numbers in 1905-6 between three and five had fallen to 497,643.

table is either modified or set aside altogether, to allow of out-of-door work or free play in the garden, or walks when the country is near. Rigid discipline is never insisted upon, and the relation between children and teacher (who is always addressed as *Tante*) seems everywhere of the happiest. Talking is allowed within limits, and the healthy noise that arises from the playground proves that discipline is not unduly repressive. Much attention is paid to the social side of life. As in all German institutions, public or private, the Christmas festivities form the crowning point of the year, and opportunities are taken at these of providing the poorer children with clothes; there are also many small excursions and treats in summer. *Elternabende*, too, evening meetings with parents, for discussion and explanation of the work, are known in the Kindergartens as well as in the ordinary schools. In all these ways home and institution are drawn together.

#### TRAINING GIVEN IN GERMANY FOR THE CARE OF CHILDREN

One point that emerges very clearly from the inquiry is the great weight laid in Germany on special training for the care of young children. This extends as we have seen not only to those in charge of institutions, but also to private nurses and nursery-governesses, and to individual mothers. In regard to institutions there exists in Germany (as also in America) a special class of teacher for young children, such as we do not know in this country. It is possible that the institution of some such class here might help to bring about the much needed reform of the reduction of the size of classes, as far as the infant room is concerned; it would in any case seem to be needed if "babies' classes" are to continue. What has been said as to the importance laid on training applies also to Switzerland. The organisation of all institutions for young children in that country, both public and private, under women inspectors, as carried out in Basle and Zurich, is thorough and sensible.

#### THE KINDERGARTEN.

It should be noted that in Germany the Kindergarten is carried further on in the child's life than with us, and that as the compulsory school age in that country starts with the end, instead of the beginning of the sixth year, definite formal instruction begins, generally speaking, a year later than in England. It is possible that some modification of the curriculum in the first year of school life might be introduced with advantage into some of our infant departments, especially in places where no "babies' classes" exist, and where there is thus a certain proportion of children under five in the infant room itself. The problems connected with the linking on of the Kindergarten to the school have not as yet received much general attention in Germany (*see Appendix D (3)*), and in that country, as elsewhere, there is some difference of opinion as to the value of the Kindergarten as a preparation for the ordinary school. It is urged against the Kindergarten that it

tends to deaden the children's interest in intellectual work, and in its favour that both the moral training, in the way of discipline, and the mental training are an excellent preparation for school work. It should be added that in Germany, as in this country, real Kindergarten training, "conscious nurture of the free self-activity of childhood," is often made impossible by the excessive size of the class allowed to one teacher.

#### BUILDINGS.

In the matter of buildings the average institution in this country, whether "babies' class" or day nursery, is probably as well housed as the average institution in Germany or Switzerland; in sanitary matters, indeed, our standard is higher. On the other hand we seem to have nothing so good in the way of building as the best and newest of the German institutions. And in one point all foreign institutions are superior to ours. All of them possess some sort of a garden or playground with a covered play-shed. These playgrounds are really pleasant places, always containing trees, frequently flowers, and small plots for children's gardens. Creepers grow upon the walls, and the sun often shines into the Kindergarten through a green frame of vine leaves. Few of our private institutions have gardens at all, and our school playgrounds are generally lacking in any of the qualities of a garden; and though it would be impossible for children in this country to be so much out of doors as on the Continent, still, we might be more prepared than we often are to take advantage of fine weather when we have it. At any rate, the provision of a garden should be aimed at, wherever possible, in the planning of a day-nursery, and education authorities might consider the question of a separate playground for the smallest children, which would be always at their disposal.

#### CLEANLINESS OF CHILDREN IN ENGLAND, GERMANY, AND SWITZERLAND.

There is one other important point in which foreign institutions, as well as elementary schools generally, are very superior to our own, namely, in the much greater cleanliness and tidiness of the children attending them. The regulation that children attending a Kindergarten must be provided with a clean pocket-handkerchief, though it may seem a small matter, is significant of the high standard of personal cleanliness set and obtained in Germany and Switzerland. A pocket-handkerchief in any condition is probably an article of dress unknown to large numbers of children in our poorer elementary schools. The general impression given by the children in the Kindergartens and *Bewahranstalten* was one of clean hands and faces, neat pinafores, and tidy heads. There were no bare-footed children, except in summer, when bare feet are a matter of comfort and convenience. Nor were there any visible signs of neglect

in the way of dirt and rags. It is true that the very neglected children would probably not be brought to a *Bewahranstalt* at all, but there was no evidence in the streets of the poorer quarters that such children exist to any extent, though the reports of charitable societies, bear witness to a certain amount of social distress. Something is due no doubt to the efforts of those in charge of institutions in regard to this matter, but the chief credit for the high level of cleanliness and neatness must be set down to the undoubtedly higher sense for these things which prevails in the poorer sections of the population abroad as compared with those in our own country.

The children in the municipal Kindergartens in Germany and Switzerland, it may be added, do not share in the weekly compulsory bath, which is a feature of both German and Swiss elementary schools. The buildings in all cases are kept scrupulously clean.

M. G. MAY.

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APPENDIX A.

STATISTICS<sup>1</sup> OF "KINDERBEWAHRANSTALTEN," "KLEINKINDERSCHULEN" AND "KINDERGÄRTEN" IN GERMANY IN THE YEARS 1901-2 (IN SOME CASES 1902).

Towns.	Existing Institutions.		No. in attendance at end of 1902 (including free scholars).		No. of Free Scholars.		Persons engaged in direction, charge, or attendance.		Total sum of Municipal Grants in 1901-2 (or 1902) to institutions in Column 3.
	Total No.	Municipal or receiving Municipal Grants.	in all institutions (Column 2).	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	in all institutions.	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	Total No.	No. of Trained Kindergarten Teachers.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10.
Aachen . . . . .	8	—	1,253	—	654	—	49	40	M
Altona . . . . .	6	3	863	563	177	56	25	24	1,500
Augsburg . . . . .	10	5	1,034	506	74	52	32	9	7,000
Barmen . . . . .	28	—	3,279	—	232	—	45	37	—
Berlin <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	62	?	5,061	?	?	?	?	92	?
Bochum . . . . .	6	5	650	550	80	50	10	6	2,025
Breslau . . . . .	45	24	3,319	1,776	638	477	88	57	3,760
Cassel . . . . .	12	5	889	494	23	21	30	13	3,750
Charlottenburg . . . . .	7	—	184	—	—	—	9	4	—
Chemnitz . . . . .	12	6	906	721	19	15	31	14	4,000
Cöln <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	35	12	3,754	1,196	277	73	86	49	16,148

<sup>1</sup> "Statistisches Jahrbuch Deutscher Städte, XII. Jahrgang," p. 397. (No distinction is made between the kinds of institutions.)

<sup>2</sup> Later figures are given in Appendix B.

APPENDIX A.—*continued.*

Towns.	Existing Institutions.		No. in attendance at end of 1902 (including free scholars)		No. of Free Scholars.		Persons engaged in direction, charge, or attendance.		Total sum of Municipal Grants in 1901-2 (or 1902) to institutions in Column 3.
	Total No.	Municipal or receiving Municipal Grants.	in all institutions (Column 2).	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	in all institutions.	in Municipal institutions, etc. (Column 3).	Total No.	No. of Trained Kindergarten Teachers.	
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
Crefeld <sup>2</sup>	19	—	1,107	—	119	—	33	20	M.
Danzig	13	1	712	340	655	22	43	18	1,200
Dortmund	20	7	2,049	529	280	172	52	38	19,007 <sup>3</sup>
Dresden	22	11	3,364	2,621	356	143	66	30	9,550
Düsseldorf <sup>2</sup>	25	23	3,298	3,226	825	51	39	—	12,495
Duisburg	8	—	1,199	—	104	—	20	8	—
Elberfeld	21	—	1,712	—	100	—	47	22	—
Erfurt	7	3	394	305	89	—	14	7	2,317
Essen	12	—	1,970	—	246	—	35	17	—
Frankfurt a. M. <sup>4</sup>	21	11	2,321	1,504	124	22	48	31	7,140
Frankfurt a. O.	7	5	471	400	42	40	7	2	540
Freiburg i. Br.	11	11	1,576	1,576	187	187	39	24	7,050
Görlitz	3	2	87	65	5	2	6	1	710
Halle a. S.	15	6	929	333	50	21	32	19	2,670
Hamburg <sup>1</sup>	36	—	2,699	—	108	—	139	54	—
Hannover	15	2	1,341	244	25	—	72	30	1,150
Karlsruhe	22	—	1,932	—	37	—	45	22	—
Kiel	2	—	132	—	9	—	4	2	—

Leipzig <sup>2</sup>	-	-	-	32	28	2,516	2,430	82	82	72	38	10,325
Liegnitz	-	-	-	6	2	357	160	78	5	6	6	500
Lübeck <sup>3</sup>	-	-	-	7	-	394	-	-	-	26	10	-
Magdeburg	-	-	-	20	2	1,036	165	91	25	50	26	1,050
Mainz	-	-	-	2	1	182	80	20	-	3	3	115
Mannheim	-	-	-	19	5	2,098	660	143	20	62	28	1,200
Metz	-	-	-	20	11	1,186	882	823	812	29	21	25,538
Mülhausen i. E.	-	-	-	23	23	3,820	3,820	764	764	72	23	47,222
München <sup>2</sup>	-	-	-	50	8	4,623	1,003	431	127	174	119	10,038
Nürnberg	-	-	-	27	17	2,752	1,913	136	73	50	36	2,150
Plauen i. V.	-	-	-	4	4	360	360	11	11	8	8	11,916
Posen	-	-	-	22	2	1,531	157	563	3	51	38	1,400 <sup>4</sup>
Spandan	-	-	-	1	1	50	50	5	5	2	1	-
Sirassburg i. E.	-	-	-	27	22	4,464	4,381	4,381	4,381	121	58	80,597
Stuttgart	-	-	-	25	17	3,879	3,146	448	382	90	32	13,500
Wiesbaden	-	-	-	2	2	312	312	17	17	17	5	8,547
Würzburg	-	-	-	7	5	832	701	42	29	22	14	3,229
Zwickau	-	-	-	1	1	130	130	14	14	4	1	800

<sup>2</sup> Later figures are given in Appendix B.

<sup>3</sup> Including a grant of 12,007 M. to two Municipal "Kinderbewahranstalten," attended also by children of school age.

<sup>4</sup> Hamburg does not support any institution directly, but the "Armenverwaltung" pays for the care of poor children, and thus indirectly supports most of the institutions.

<sup>5</sup> Lübeck gives no grant in money, but provides a number of meals.

<sup>6</sup> Including a grant of 900 M. to an institution, in support of the training of Kindergarten teachers.

APPENDIX B.

TABLE GIVING THE PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER SCHOOL AGE ATTENDING INSTITUTIONS IN THE TOWNS VISITED (EXCLUSIVE OF CRÈCHES).

Towns.	Total Population.	Population under school age.	Number of Institutions.			Approximate number of Children attending Institutions.	Percentage in attendance under school age.
			Municipal.	Private.	Total.		
Berlin - - - - -	2,040,148 (1905)	211,948 (1905)	-	63	63	5,688	2.67
Cologne - - - - -	428,722 (1905)	61,263 (1905)	9	35	44	No figures	available
Orefeld - - - - -	112,000	15,000	-	15	15	1,200	8
Düsseldorf - - - - -	253,274 (1905)	32,524 (1905)	8	19	27	3,752	11.53
Frankfurt - - - - -	340,000 (1906)	40,769 (1905)	2	28	30	3,000	7.35
Leipzig - - - - -	518,682 (1906)	61,139 (1905)	-	32	32	2,516	4.11
Munich - - - - -	538,983 (1905)	64,157 (1905)	23	30	53	5,506	8.58
Basel - - - - -	{ 130,000 (1906) 112,227 (1900) }	10,000 (1900)	73	20	93	4,049	25.30
Zurich - - - - -	169,400	20,002 (1900)	47	19	66	2,828	14.14

<sup>1</sup> The percentage is in some cases misleading; e.g., in Frankfurt, though the percentage is lower than in Düsseldorf, the standard of the institutions is much higher. A high percentage may be due to the fact that very large classes are allowed to each teacher.





(2) *Time-table of a Kleinkinderbewahranstalt.*

Hours.	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
7.30-9.30		Children	assemble and play together free			
9.30-10	Learning by rote. Singing	Bible History	As Monday	As Tuesday	Questions on Bible History	Storytelling
10-10.45			Lunch and Free Play			
10.45-11.10	Drill	Ring Games	Plaiting or Pricking	Drill	Ring Games	Free
11.10-11.30	Speaking or Object Lesson	Building	Embroidery Cards	Storytelling	Painting or Stick- laying	
11.30-12		If possible some other	Froebelian occupation, or Free Play			
12-2			Free Play			
2-3	Weaving, unravel- ling or colour lay- ing	Stringing beads	Laying out shells or rings	Arranging colours	Bead stringing or paper-folding	
3-3.30			Free Play or Finger Games			
3.30-4			Coffee and Bread			
4-5 or 6.			Free Play			

(3) *Suggested Time-Table for the first year in an Elementary School<sup>1</sup> (forming a transition from the Kindergarten).*

Hour.	Monday and Thursday.	Tuesday and Friday.	Wednesday.	Saturday.
8-8.50	Religion, Story telling, with Singing and Hymns.	Object lesson, with Drawing and Modelling.	Religion, Story telling and Singing.	Object lesson, with Singing <sup>2</sup> .
9-9.50	Mother Tongue: Reading and Writing.	Mother Tongue: Reading and Writing.	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.
10-10.50	Arithmetic with Stick laying.	Drill, with movement games.		

*Summary.*

Religion	-	-	-	3 hours (6 half hours) weekly.
Object lessons	-	-	3 "	(6 " " ) "
German	-	-	4 "	(8 " " ) "
Arithmetic	-	-	4 "	(8 " " ) "
Drill	-	-	2 "	(4 " " ) "
Singing	-	-	2 "	(4 " " ) "
<b>Total</b>	-	-	<b>18 "</b>	<b>including pauses.</b>

With this may be compared the following time-tables :—

(1) *Actual time-table of the lowest class in the Elementary Schools of Berlin :—*

Religion	-	-	-	-	3 hours weekly.
German	-	-	-	-	8 " "
Object lessons	-	-	-	-	2 " "
Arithmetic	-	-	-	-	4 " "
Singing	-	-	-	-	1 " "
Drill	-	-	-	-	2 " "
<b>Total</b>	-	-	-	-	<b>20 hours.</b>

(2) *Actual time-table of the lowest class in an Elementary School in Munich :—*

Religion	-	-	-	-	2 hours weekly.
German	-	-	-	-	10 " "
Arithmetic	-	-	-	-	6 " "
Singing	-	-	-	-	1 " "
Drill	-	-	-	-	2 " "
Needlework	-	-	-	-	(2) " " (for girls only.)
<b>Total</b>	-	-	-	-	<b>21 (23) hours.</b>

<sup>1</sup> Taken from a pamphlet by Frau Dr. Jenny Aech, of Breslau. "Wie kann man noch mehr, als es bis jetzt geschieht, eine entwickelnde Erziehung im ersten Schuljahr durchführen?" (Separat-Abdruck aus dem Journal *Kindergarten*, Heft. III, 1904.) (Published by the *Deutscher Fröbel-Verband*.)

## (4) Time-table of an Ecole Infantine.

## PLAN DE LEÇONS. (ECOLE ENFANTINE DE MALAGNOU.)

## Classe d'Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.

Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi. <sup>1</sup>	Samedi.
9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 10).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie (Leçons de choses).	Calcul intuitif (1 à 10).
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques (chants marches).	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.	Lecture, écriture.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage.	Piquage.	Broderie (exer. prép. à la course).	Causerie.	Découpage et Collage. <sup>2</sup>
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Dessin.	Construction (5 me. don.).	Perles (surfaces <sup>3</sup> ou cercles).	Dessin.	Construction ou bâtonnets.

<sup>1</sup> Thursday is a holiday.<sup>2</sup> "Découpage et Collage"—paper-cutting and pasting in a book.<sup>3</sup> "Surfaces"—squares, triangles, and parallelograms in wood.

## Classe d'Enfants de 5 à 6 ans.

9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 6).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie (histoire natur.).	Calcul intuitif (1 à 6).
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.				
10h.15 à 11h.	Exer. prép. de lecture et écriture.				

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Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi.	Samedi.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage ou lattes. <sup>1</sup>	Piquage ou cercles.	Broderie.	Pliage (éléments de géométrie).	Collage ou Découpage.
2 h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Dessin ou bâtonnets.	Construction (4 me. don.).	Perles ou surfaces.	Dessin.	Jeux de balles (ou surfaces).

*Classe d'Enfants de 4 à 5 ans.*

9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Calcul intuitif (1 à 3).	Poésie (exer. de langage).	Causerie (hist. natur.).	Piquage.
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Construction (3 me. don.).	Dessin.	Construction (3 me. don.).	Bâtonnets (dessin et calcul).	Dessin.
2h. à 2h.45	Tissage ou lattes. <sup>1</sup>	Bâtonnets.	Perles.	Jeux de boules.	Perles ou découpage.
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Boutons et jetons. <sup>2</sup>	Jeux de balles ou boules.	Broderie.	Pliage (les éléments de géométrie).	Jeux de balles ou surfaces.

<sup>1</sup> "Tissage" is mat weaving; "lattes" plaiting, preparatory to mat weaving.

<sup>2</sup> "Boutons" are ordinary porcelain buttons of different colours. "Jetons" are round pieces of cardboard of different colours.

## Classe d'Enfants de 3 à 4 ans.

Heure.	Lundi.	Mardi.	Mercredi.	Vendredi.	Samedi.
9h. à 9h.45	Causerie morale.	Bâtonnets (dessin).	Poésie et chant.	Causerie.	Surface.
9h.45 à 10h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
10h.15 à 11h.	Construction.	Pliage.	Boutons et jetons.	Boutons et jetons.	Pliage.
2h. à 2h.45	Perles.	Lattes ou tissage.	Construction.	Perles.	Bâtonnets (dessin).
2h.45 à 3h.15	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.	Jeux gymnastiques.
3h.15 à 4h.	Balles.	Chaîne ou perfilage.	Jeux libres ou jardinets. <sup>1</sup>	Cercles (dessin).	Boutons (jetons) cercles.

<sup>1</sup> "Jardinets" are sand-boxes.

APPENDIX E.

SPECIMEN REGULATIONS AS TO KINDERGARTEN WORK, &c.

(1) *Directions as to the "Occupations" in the Kindergartens of the City of Zurich (May 2nd, 1907).*

1st Stage—children of from four to five.

1. Building; (Box with 8 cubes, afterwards with 8 oblongs) after a model and free, with or without supplementary material.
2. Working with sand; after a model and free, until the children can carry out simple designs by themselves (gardens, &c.).
3. Making paper chains, with 1 and 2 colours.
4. Stringing beads, with 1 and 2 colours.
5. Cutting out simple forms.
6. Plaiting (eventually).
7. Paper sticking; chains of rings, simple rosettes, &c.
8. Figure laying, with square tablets; after a model and free.
9. Stick laying (eventually).
10. Making patterns with porcelain buttons, &c., after a model, a drawing and free.

2nd Stage—children of from five to six years.

1. Building with cubes and oblongs (16 pieces), after a model and free, with or without supplementary material.
2. Working with sand, for the most part unaided.
3. Paper chains, with 2 and 3 colours.
4. Bead stringing, single and double chains.
5. Cutting out.
6. Plaiting.
7. Figure laying with squares and triangles; after a model and free.
8. Figure laying with iron sticks and semi-circles (prototype) after a model and free.
9. Figure laying with peas, porcelain buttons, &c., after a model, a drawing and free.
10. Free drawing with chalk, blacklead or coloured pencil.
11. Clay-modelling (optional).
12. Paper-folding, from squares and rectangles (optional).
13. Paper sticking and cutting out (optional).

For both stages.

1. Walks and occupations in the open-air, as often as the weather allows.
2. Games; action games, ball and nine-pin games, imitation games, guessing games.
3. Short songs and verses (Book "*Spiel-und Liedersammlung für Kindergärten*").
4. Storytelling.

## (2) Programme of the Ecoles Infantines in Geneva (from the Bulletin de Semaine)

## DIVISION INFÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 3 à 6 ans.

*Enseignement intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel.**Causeries morales.*—Simple récits destinés à contribuer au développement moral et éducatif de l'enfant, et à lui donner de bonnes habitudes.*Leçons de choses.*—Causeries ayant pour but de faire connaître à l'enfant les choses, plantes ou animaux qui l'entourent. De 3 à 4 ans, la causerie morale et la leçon de choses devront se fondre en un seul récit.*Langue Maternelle.*—Exercices de langage qui amèneront l'enfant, soit à reproduire exactement des mots et des phrases simples, soit à lui faire trouver des mots ou des phrases simples, les exercices seront fait surtout à la suite des causeries et des leçons de choses.*Écriture.*—Préparation à l'écriture par le dessin.*Arithmétique.*—Préparation au calcul au moyen du matériel Froebel. Calcul jusqu'à 6. Partage de l'entier en moitiés et quarts.*Géométrie.*—Notions géométriques élémentaires au moyen du matériel Froebel.*Dessin.*—1<sup>re</sup> année.—Les enfants sont préparés au dessin au moyen du matériel Froebel.2<sup>me</sup> année.—Premiers essais de dessin. L'élève forme sur l'ardoise pointée des rangées en disposant les cubes du 2<sup>me</sup> don, les petites surfaces ou les bâtonnets. Les

## DIVISION SUPÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.

*Enseignement intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel.**Causeries morales.*—Récits dont le but essentiel est de développer chez l'enfant les sentiments affectifs, la conscience, l'amour du travail et du devoir. Le texte des autres leçons sera tiré de la causerie morale, qui, chaque semaine, donnera ainsi une certaine unité à l'enseignement.*Leçons de choses.*—Récits entre-tiens ou causeries dans lesquelles on donnera à l'enfant, en les mettant à sa portée les notions élémentaires scientifiques sur les choses, plantes ou animaux de son pays.

La leçon de choses aura pour but de développer chez l'enfant l'esprit d'observation, la réflexion et le jugement.

*Langue Maternelle.*—Préparation à la lecture par des exercices d'analyse et de décomposition au moyen desquels l'enfant apprend à connaître et à chercher les mots, les syllabes et les sons. Étude des consonnes. Lecture spontanée de syllabes simples, mots, locutions et petites phrases faciles. Études des équivalents au point de vue de la lecture et de l'orthographe. Exercices faciles de lecture courante. Reproduction orale et écrite de mots et de phrases faciles. Petits exercices oraux de rédaction.*Écriture.*—Exercices élémentaires gradués et rythmés au crayon, de syllabes et mots faciles préparés par la lecture. Exercices préparatoires à l'encre. Moyenne.*Arithmétique.*—Calcul intuitif au moyen du matériel Froebel. Les quatre opérations jusqu'à 10. Calcul oral et écrit. Partage de l'entier en moitiés, quarts, huitièmes. Petits problèmes oraux. Numération jusqu'à 20.*Géométrie.*—Notions géométriques au moyen du matériel Froebel (point, ligne, surface, solide).*Dessin.*—4<sup>me</sup> année.—Division de la droite en 2, 4, 8, 3, 6. Application à des motifs de décoration. Combinaison de droites et de courbes. Composition. Figures géométriques, triangles. Carrés. Rectangles. Dessin d'objets usuels sans indication du relief. Dessin

DIVISION INFÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 3 à 6 ans.

rangées sont ensuite dessinées sur l'ardoise pointée.

3<sup>me</sup> année. — Continuation des exercices au moyen des cubes, des carrés et des bâtonnets. Dessin d'après le pliage. Dispositions ornementales obtenues par la combinaison de droites. Préparation au dessin contenant des courbes. Composition. Dessin de mémoire.

*Chant.* — Mélodies simples et paroles faciles. Enseignement intuitif de la mesure.

*Gymnastique.* — Movements et jeux; marches, rondes et jeux de balles.

DIVISION SUPÉRIEURE.

Enfants de 6 à 7 ans.

des lettres en caractères imprimés. Quelques essais de dessin de feuilles par le décalque des points.

*Chant.* — Exercices d'intonation. Gammes *d'ut*. Accord parfait. Chants à l'unison et à deux parties. Mélodies et paroles faciles.

*Gymnastique.* — Movements et jeux; marches, rondes et jeux de balles.

*Couture.* — Exercices préparatoires.

APPENDIX F.

SPECIMEN COURSES OF TRAINING.

(1) SYLLABUS OF TRAINING COURSES IN PESTALOZZI-FROEBEL HAUS I.  
(*Berliner Verein für Volkserziehung*).

A.—Course of Training for Governesses and Kindergarten Teachers in the principles of Pestalozzi and Froebel.

*Subjects of Instruction.*—1. The theory of education (*Erziehungslehre*) on the basis of psychology. 2. Introduction to the works of Pestalozzi and Froebel. 3. History of Pedagogy. 4. Kindergarten theory. 5. Children's literature. 6. Health knowledge. 7. Nature Study in relation to education. 8. Theory and Practice of Education (*Unterrichtslehre*). 9. Geometry. 10. German. 11. Froebel's occupations and their carrying out. 12. Drawing. 13. Needlework. 14. Singing. 15. Gymnastics, Ball and Movement Games. 16. Practice in the Kindergarten, the Transition Class (*Vermittlungs Klasse*), the Elementary Class, and the Afternoon Home.<sup>1</sup> 17. Domestic occupations, and garden work. 18. Training in the bodily care of the child, bathing, the cooking of children's food, &c.

The theoretical instruction is for the most part in the hands of those persons who also give the practical training, or are otherwise occupied with the direction of the institution, which secures the close connection of all branches of instruction.

*Length of Course.*—1-2 years, according to the age and experience of the candidate, and the goal at which she aims. *Conditions of Admission:* The degree of preliminary education required is that of a full course Secondary School for Girls (9-10 classes).

*Time of Entry and of leaving after taking the examination:* April and October. *Fee for German Students:* 3 M. entry fee, 50 M. quarterly (to be paid in advance). For further training in the Elementary Classes, after taking the examination, the fee is 50 M. a session. A few scholarships are provided to reduce the fees, applications to be made to the Directress.

<sup>1</sup> *Nachmittagsheim* for school children, out of school hours, where instruction is given in Land-work, &c.

*For foreigners:* 3 M. entrance fee, 77·50 M. quarterly to be paid in advance.

*Objects of the Training.*—These depend on the age, capabilities, and general education of the students, and on the time spent in the institution; according to these students are trained as Governesses, or Assistants in families and Kindergartens; as Directresses (*Leiterinnen*) of small and large Kindergartens; as teachers in Kindergarten Training Institutions, for which purpose special preparation-courses are provided, if a sufficient number of students come forward possessing the requisite experience and capabilities.

*Conditions of Admission:* Production of the last school certificate, and of a certificate of health. Written consent of parents or guardians.

*Note.*—A student can only leave in April or October, after a previous six weeks' notice, otherwise the fees must be paid for the following quarter.

#### B.—Course of Training for Directresses of "Horte," Children's Homes, and such Institutions.

*Subjects of Instructions.*—(a) *Theoretical.*—Questions on the theory of education and social pedagogics, Lives and works of the great Educators, Children's Literature, the History of Civilisation, Hygiene in relation to the care of children, Nature Knowledge, Singing and Movement-games, Visits to Charitable and Social Institutions.

(b) *Practical.*—Cooking children's food, simple house-work, needle-work (darning, patching, simple cutting-out, machine sewing), the care of plants, the bodily care of children. Froebel's occupations and the making of toys, instruction in manual work (wood-work, pasteboard-work, book-binding, basket-work, raffa-work, brush-making, drawing), practice in the Afternoon Home for Boys and Girls

*Length of Course.*—1-1½ years, according to age and experience of candidate.

*Conditions of Admission.*—The degree of preliminary education required is that of a full course Secondary School for Girls (9—10 classes). Age not under 18, production of a health certificate, and of the last school certificate; in the case of a minor consent of parents and guardians.

*Time of Entrance.*—October.

*Fees,* quarterly 50 M. (to be paid in advance), 3 M. entrance fee.

*For foreigners.*—77·50 M. (to be paid quarterly in advance), 3 M. entrance fee.

Some Scholarships are provided to reduce the fees, applications to be made to the Directress.

#### C.—Introductory Course in educational and social work for Girls and Women.

In order to give the wives and daughters of the educated classes an opportunity of learning the principles of the educational ideas of Pestalozzi and Froebel, and of preparing themselves for social work, the Pestalozzi-Froebel House I. has for years taken occasional students (*Hospitantinnen*), for whom an individual time-table is arranged from the different courses of instruction, according to their particular wishes and needs.

Applications for less than six months will not be received. Women who are already engaged in professional work, and only desire guidance and further instruction, can, as an exception, enter for three months.

Fee 50 M., without reference to the number of lessons.

*Note.*—In the winter special courses of lectures are held on Education and Social Science, followed by discussions.

#### (2) COURSE OF TRAINING FOR KINDERPFLEGERINNEN (*Berliner Froebel-Verein*)

The course lasts a year. In the first six months the students attend a Kindergarten in the mornings, where they take part in the work, under the

direction of the *Kindergärtnerin*. In the second six months they spend the mornings in families under the charge of experienced housewives (*Schutzdamen*), to have practice in domestic work, and in the care of children; they receive there morning and afternoon meals.

The lessons (16 to 18 hours weekly for each division) are given in the afternoons from three o'clock onwards.

The subjects of instruction are :—

*German*.—Exercises in spelling, grammar, and style.

*Needlework*.—Knitting, crochet, darning, patching, marking linen, and machine sewing; practice in the making of blouses, aprons, children's clothes, &c.

*Froebel's Occupations*.—Drawing, weaving, building, pricking (cards), embroidery-cards, paper-folding, basket-weaving, &c.; story-telling, tales and songs for children, singing and movement-games.

*Arithmetic*.—Problems occurring in daily life.

*Theory of Education, Nature Knowledge, and Hygiene*.—Introduction to first aid in case of accidents.

### (3) REGULATIONS FOR THE TRAINING OF GIRLS AS SUPERIOR NURSERY MAIDS.

(*Verein für Volkskindergärten-Frankfurt*).

#### (i.) *Object of the Course.*

To give well recommended girls, who have completed their compulsory school education, the opportunity of making themselves familiar with the management and care of small children, so that they may be able to fulfil the duties of a superior nursery maid in a family, and at the same time receive a practical preparation for life.

#### (ii.) *Method of Training.*

1. Help with the work of the Kindergarten, under the special direction of the head-mistress.

2. Instruction in the following subjects :—

The theory of education.

Froebel's occupations.

Introduction to children's occupations and games.

Needlework.

Household work.

Singing, including finger and action games.

3. Practice in the bathing of children.

#### *Conditions of Admission.*

The training is free. The course lasts for a year. Admission can take place at any time, but a pupil can only leave either on April 1st or October 1st.

Candidates must possess the written permission of parents or guardians, a school certificate, and a certificate of health.

Before a pupil is finally admitted, further inquiries as to her suitability will be made.

#### *Rules for the Pupils.*

1. The pupil must come punctually to the Kindergarten, at the time shown on the time-table, and must stay there till at least 6 p.m.

2. She must obey the regulations of the head mistress, and fulfil the duties assigned to her conscientiously and diligently.

3. She must bring her lunch (*Frühstück*) and tea with her, and will receive midday dinner.

4. At the end of the course she will receive a certificate as to her work and behaviour.

5. Disobedience and dishonesty will be followed by instant dismissal.

6. After a sufficient period of training, satisfactorily performed, good situations can always be secured.

## (4) TRAINING-COURSE FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS (ZURICH).

*German.*—Five hours (per week). Selected reading material with special regard to the history and development of the Fairy-Tale. Andersen, the Brothers Grimm, the Odyssey. German Saga. Modern Fairy-Tales—“Käthchen v. Heilbronn,” by Kleist. Short original lectures. Story-telling and recitation. Essays and composition exercises.

*Education.*—Three hours.—The psychology of perception (*Anschauungspsychologie*) and its application to education; detailed and complete treatment of the three chief divisions: recognition, feeling and will. Reading and explanation of short passages from the writings of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Jean Paul. Short readings from the History of Education.

*Method.*—Two hours.—Theoretical and practical treatment of all the occupations of Froebel, with special attention to those which can be applied in the Kindergarten. Written treatment of themes on this subject. Relation and criticism of tales for children.

*Hygiene.*—Two hours.—Structure and functions of the organs and apparatus of the human body. Care of the same. External necessities of life: air, water, dwelling, clothing, nourishment. The care of children's health. Home sick-nursing and first-aid, with special attention to the rules for the prevention of infectious illnesses.

*Natural History.*—Two hours.—Plants and plant life in selected groups; the chief animals; excursions and discussion of the natural phenomena encountered. Great attention is paid to drawing.

*Geometry.*—One hour.—Elementary geometry with practice in geometrical drawing.

*Drawing.*—Two hours.—Perspective drawing from objects, and drawing from memory.

*Singing.*—Two hours.—Scales and practice in tune-singing. Songs for one voice and for two voices. Solo-singing. Special attention to selected children's songs. Elements of the theory of singing. Treatment of singing in the Kindergarten.

*Gymnastics.*—One hour.—Marching. Free and jumping exercises. Exercises with gymnastic apparatus. Games.

*Handwork.*—Two hours.—Preparation of collections of the occupations especially suitable for the Kindergarten, as well as of various employments for the family circle.

*Practice in the Kindergarten.*—Ten hours.—Games and occupations. Specimen lessons with criticism following.

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APPENDIX G

FORNIGHTLY BILL OF FARE FOR THE KINDERBEWAHRANSTALT IN LEIPZIG-EUTRITZSCH.

		FIRST WEEK.	Cost for 100 Children Mk. pf.
Monday	Oatmeal Soup	12 lbs. <sup>1</sup> Oatmeal prepared with Suet and Sugar	5 40
Tuesday	Beef with Rice	10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. 12 lbs. Rice at 20 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 65
Wednesday	Carrots and Potatoes.	5 lbs. dried Carrots at 65 pf. 1 3tr. <sup>2</sup> Potatoes at 2.50 Mk. 1½ lbs. Suet at 60 pf.	4 80
Thursday	Powridge <sup>3</sup> made with Milk with Sugar and Cinnamon.	12 lbs. Oatmeal at 18 pf. 2½ lbs. Sugar at 24 pf. 12 litres Milk at 18 pf. Cinnamon at 10 pf.	5 02
Friday	Macaroni <sup>4</sup> and Beef	12 lbs. Macaroni at 37 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	11 69
Saturday	Lentils and Sausage	90 lbs. Lentils at 18 pf. 1½ lb. Suet at 60 pf. 1 lb. Flour at 15 pf. 4 lbs. Sausage at 60 pf.	7 85
			44 41

<sup>1</sup> A German lb. is rather more than an English lb.

<sup>2</sup> 3tr. = 100 lbs. (German).

<sup>3</sup> *Milchgruel*, literally "gruel."

<sup>4</sup> *Nudeln*

		SECOND WEEK.	Cost for 100 Children Mk. pf.
Monday	Rice with Raisins	12 lbs. Rice at 20 pf. 1½ lbs. Suet at 60 pf. 2 lbs. Raisins at 40 pf.	4 10
Tuesday	Pearl Barley with Beef.	12 lbs. Pearl Barley at 20 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 65
Wednesday	Mashed Potatoes with Sausage.	1 3tr. Potatoes at 2.50 Mk. 4 lbs. Sausage at 60 pf. 1½ lbs. Suet at 60 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	6 85
Thursday	Oatmeal <sup>1</sup> Pudding with Beef.	12 lbs. Oatmeal at 18 pf. 10 lbs. Meat at 70 pf. Herbs 25 pf.	9 41
Friday	Millet <sup>2</sup> cooked with Milk.	10 lbs. Millet at 15 pf. 12 litres Milk at 18 pf. 2½ lbs. Sugar at 24 pf. Cinnamon 10 pf.	4 36
Saturday	Pea Soup with Sausage.	90 lbs. Peas at 14 pf. 4 lbs. Sausage at 60 pf. 1½ lbs. Suet at 60 pf.	6 90
			41 27

<sup>1</sup> *Gruea*. <sup>2</sup> *Milchkorn*.

## APPENDIX H.

## SPECIMEN REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN.

## (1) REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN IN ZURICH, 1903.

*(Schweiz. gemeinnütziger Frauenverein).*

1. The *Krippen* are open in Summer from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., and in Winter from 6.30 a.m. to 8 p.m. They are closed on Sundays and holidays.

2. Healthy children are received as a rule in the *Krippen* from the age of three weeks between May and October, and from the age of six weeks between November and April, till the fourth—in exceptional cases till the sixth year. They must belong to needy, but honest and industrious families, who have been settled in Zurich at least three months, and will only be admitted in cases where the Mother, owing to the small wage earned by her husband, is obliged to work out of the house. Children can also be received for a shorter or longer time in cases of illness or death.

3. The parents, foster-parents and guardians of the child to be admitted must apply at one of the *Krippen*, where they must fill up the form for admission. This form must be signed by the Member of Committee who is Superintendent for the week, and by the doctor attending the *Krippe*.

4. The birth certificate of the child must be brought at its entry into the *Krippe*; and this remains in the *Krippe* in question as long as the child is attending it. Parents must produce their written consent.

5. Every child received in the *Krippe* must be brought to the institution in a clean condition, by the Mother, or by some person to whom she has entrusted it, between 6 and 8 a.m., and fetched every evening not later than 8 p.m.

No child can remain in the *Krippe* overnight. As long as a Mother is nursing her child she should visit the *Krippe* twice daily for that purpose.

If the Mother, for any particular reason, does not intend to bring the child to the *Krippe* on a certain day, this intention should be announced if possible on the day before; in the same way information should be given if a child falls ill. If a child is not brought to the *Krippe* for eight consecutive days, a new application must be made. If a child falls ill in the *Krippe* it must be sent home at once. Every Mother is therefore obliged to give the address of the place where she works, so that she can be fetched if necessary.

The state of health of the child must be certified by the doctor of the *Krippe* when it enters and when it leaves an institution.

If a member of a family of a child attending the institution is suffering from an infectious illness, such as scarlet fever, diphtheria, measles, small-pox, whooping-cough, &c., the child must remain away until the doctor allows it to be re-admitted.

6. The fee charged is 30 cts. for one child, 50 cts. for two children. The money must be given every morning, when the child is brought, to the person in charge of the institution.

7. The *Krippen* provide all necessary food and care, as well as linen and clothing for the small children during the day, in the evening the children are dressed again in the clothes in which they are brought in the morning.

8. The Mothers or relations of the children should not remain longer than necessary in the *Krippe* for the sake of order. No presents may be given to the Head Sister, or to any of the staff. All gifts belong to the *Krippe*.

9. The relations of the children must follow the regulations of the Head Sister absolutely; complaints should be made to the President or a Member of the Committee.

10. Each *Krippe* is visited daily by the doctor connected with it.

(2) SANITARY REGULATIONS FOR THE KRIPPEN (ZURICH).

*Airing of Rooms.*—Rooms must be well aired in the morning. Care must be taken in doing so that a window is half open in the rooms. When the outer temperature is good, and the ground dry, the children are to be allowed to be out of doors. In the evening, when the children have left, windows and doors are to be opened, and bedding put to air.

*Temperature.*—14–15° R. [rather over 60° Fahrenheit]. In the evening before the children are fetched the temperature should be rather lower. In autumn, winter and spring the home clothes should be brought into the warm rooms an hour beforehand, so that the children may not catch cold through cold clothes.

*Nourishment.*—Healthy regular nourishment corresponding to the age of the child; unadulterated milk, neither sweetmeats nor cakes. An infant's head should be raised while drinking, and the child should not be incited to laugh or cry.

Bottles and mouthpieces must be cleaned according to the Sister's orders. Milk should be given to the children neither too warm nor too cold, and at regular intervals of from 2 to 3 hours.

*Cleanliness.*—The greatest cleanliness should be preserved in the *Krippe* among both children and staff. Floors must be wiped daily, and thoroughly washed once a week; this must take place in the absence of the children.

Further, no dirty linen is to be left about, or anything to cause a bad smell. Soiled bed clothes must be removed at once. Nothing wet must be left on or under the child.

Wet and soiled napkins should be placed in a copper with a lid, and no outlet.

Every time a child leaves its bed covering and counterpane must be turned down over the lower end of the bed. Bed clothes must never lie about in confusion.

Every child should have face and hands washed twice daily, and its hair twice combed.

While the children are being bathed or washed, windows and ventilators in the room in question should be shut.

Each child has its sleeping place (cot, perambulator), its spoon, pocket handkerchief and washing-cloth, and each baby its glass with mouthpiece and *zapfi*.

*Further Precautions.*—The curtains of the cots should never be quite drawn. Children should be protected from draughts, and care should be taken that the sun does not shine on their heads.

Breathing must not be hindered by the clothes, and movement as little as possible by swathing-bands.

Children should be rocked as little as possible.

Children should be as early as possible trained in habits of cleanliness, but not allowed in this connection to sit or lie too long in one position. Infants should be laid on the right and the left side in turn, with the head somewhat raised. Care should be taken that the child's arms are as far as possible outside the bed-clothes.

Children should be taken into the fresh air as much as possible.

Children should be lifted by *both arms*.

Nothing should be left in the neighbourhood of the children which might hurt them, or which they could put altogether into the mouth.

Nothing painted should be given to the children, nor anything with which they could hurt their small neighbours.

The children should be treated as kindly as possible. Care should be taken that children who like each other should sit or lie together.

The children should be allowed to sleep as long as they please.

Whenever it is observed that a child is unwell, it should be brought to the person in charge, who should inform the doctor as soon as possible, and in the meantime keep the child in her private room, apart from the other children.

## (3) SPECIMEN ACCOUNTS OF A CRÈCHE.

(a) Average Monthly Housekeeping Expenses of a Crèche in Frankfurt :—  
(24 Children in average daily attendance.)

	Mks.	pf.
Bread - - - - -	31	37
Milk - - - - -	66	26
Meat and Fish - - - - -	66	99
Eggs and butter - - - - -	16	59
Fruit, Vegetables - - - - -	13	19
Flour, sugar, groceries - - - - -	21	41
Drinks ( <i>Getränke</i> ) - - - - -	24	39
Heating and Lighting - - - - -	48	39
Washing and Water-Tax - - - - -	26	81
Small Expenses - - - - -	14	26
<b>Total - - - - -</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>66</b>

(b) Yearly Expenses of a Crèche in Geneva :—  
(Visited altogether by 93 Children.)

	Fr.	c.
Rent - - - - -	1,100	00
Salaries - - - - -	1,725	35
Furniture and upkeep - - - - -	164	40
Fuel - - - - -	423	70
Milk - - - - -	827	00
Bread - - - - -	260	10
Groceries - - - - -	797	40
Meat - - - - -	487	65
Vegetables, butter and eggs - - - - -	965	35
Gas - - - - -	80	70
Tips and presents - - - - -	127	00
Chemist - - - - -	5	40
<b>Total - - - - -</b>	<b>6,964</b>	<b>05</b>

## APPENDIX J.

## KINDERHORTE.

*Kinderhorte*, as a rule are institutions for children of school age only and so do not come strictly within the scope of this report. Some account of them may be given here, however, partly because there is a tendency in some places (e.g. Berlin) to receive quite young children in the *Kinderhorte*, partly because in other places (e.g. Switzerland), *Kinderhorte* are being started expressly for children under school age.

The object of the *Kinderhort* is to take care of children out of school hours, by providing a refuge from the street. It is open from the close of the school day till six or seven in the evening. The institution is of comparatively modern origin, the first *Hort* having been started in 1871 in Erlangen, but it is now very widely spread in Germany. An inquiry\* made by the *Berliner Mädchen-Verein* in 1904, received returns from 91 of the larger German towns giving particulars of *Horte*, from which it appeared that there were altogether in these towns 438 *Horte* visited by some 26,000 children. *Kinderhorte* are maintained by private societies established for the purpose, separate *Horte* being provided for boys and girls. They are generally unsectarian, though charitable and religious societies sometimes provide *Horte*, often in connection with other institutions, such as *Kinderbewahranstalten*. In most towns they are held in the school buildings, where rooms, free of charge, are placed at the disposal of the *Hort* Committees, by the Municipality, which in many cases further supports the *Horte* by grants of money. The *Hort* is generally under the charge of a paid *Leiter* or *Leiterin*, often a teacher, who is sometimes assisted by voluntary helpers. About 40 children are allowed to one person. In Berlin the salary of a male *Hort* teacher ranges from £26 to £50 yearly (525 - 1,000 M.) and of a female from £31 to £48. (630 - 960 M.). The children are charged in most cases a small fee (10 - 20 pf. weekly), as part payment for the food given.

In most *Horte* proceedings begin with an afternoon meal of bread and coffee, or milk; the children then prepare their lessons for the next day, and after that the rest of the time is devoted to handwork in the case of boys (woodcarving, &c.), and to needlework, sometimes cookery in the case of girls; in both cases, however, occupations are varied by games, and walks in fine weather. On half-holidays the *Horte* are open for a longer time, and in summer in many towns they form a kind of "Vacation School," being then open all day. (In Munich the Municipal Authorities take entire charge of the *Horte* during the summer holidays).

The activities of the *Horte* on the social side are many and various. Christmas festivities, and excursions in summer, visits to school baths and to swimming baths, the visiting of parents by members of the *Hort* Committees Savings Banks, the placing of children in trades and occupations as they leave school, all come within the scope of the *Hort* societies. Some *Horte* provide lending libraries for the children; others arrange for a mid-day dinner for necessitous children, and for visits to Holiday Colonies in the summer. In many cases small plots of ground are provided for gardens for the *Horte* children.

The average cost per child per year in the *Horte* supported by the *Hauptverein Kinderhorte*, Berlin, was 27 M. 36 pf.

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\* *Tabellarische Uebersicht über die deutschen Kinderhorte, zusammengestellt von Schulrat Dr. L. H. Fisher (Anlage zum Jahresbericht des Vereins Mädchenhort in Berlin für das Jahr 1904) Berlin, Rudolf Mosse, 1904.*

APPENDIX

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NOTES

ON THE

PROVISION MADE

FOR THE

TEACHING OF YOUNG CHILDREN

IN

FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND BRITISH COLONIES.

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FROM MATERIAL COLLECTED BY THE FROEBEL SOCIETY OF  
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

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## APPENDIX.

NOTES ON THE PROVISION MADE FOR THE  
TEACHING OF YOUNG CHILDREN IN FOREIGN  
COUNTRIES AND BRITISH COLONIES FROM  
MATERIAL COLLECTED BY THE FROEBEL  
SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The following report is based on the results of an inquiry undertaken during 1907 by the Froebel Society of Great Britain and Ireland. This inquiry was conducted by correspondence with the help of a schedule of questions drawn up by a small committee appointed by the Froebel Society. In all, 103 schedules were received in reply from various foreign countries and British Colonies. This information has been summarised under each country and preceded by a short general statement. At the end, a few typical specimen schedules have been printed in full. For purposes of comparison three schedules relating to schools in this country have been included.

## I.—GENERAL REMARKS.

## CHARACTER OF THE EVIDENCE.

The countries with which the evidence deals are: Austria, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, the German Empire, Holland, Italy, Japan, Norway, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States, and some of the British Colonies.

In drawing general conclusions from the data supplied in answer to the inquiry, the limitations of the evidence, both in nature and quantity, must be borne in mind. In the first place, written testimony, embodied in answers to printed questions, cannot have the same freshness and fulness for the investigator as is given in first-hand experience of the conditions. In the second place, the mass and character of the evidence from the different countries varied very much. In some cases only a few returns were sent, or the answers to the inquiries were merely a bare outline of the information required; in other cases, by means of a large number of returns, printed copies of regulations, programmes, etc., a very fair picture of the conditions could be realised. Hence, the summaries given under the different countries will be found to differ in fulness and exactness. Due regard being paid to the circumstances of the inquiry, we think, however, that there is an adequate basis of fact for the instituting of a comparison between the English system of education for children under seven and that in other countries.

The returns to the inquiry had reference almost exclusively to the provision made for children between three and six years of age; hence, very little information is supplied about institutions of the nature of crèches.

#### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF INSTITUTIONS.

The data supplied may be classified under two different kinds of institution. In the first place there are those of the Day Nursery type. Instances of these are the *Kinderbewahranstalten* of the German-speaking countries, and the children's Day Nurseries of Scandinavia.

In these institutions are gathered together the young children of widows or of parents who are both of them wage earners.

At the cost to the parents of a few pence weekly, in some cases without any cost, these institutions provide shelter, warmth, nutritious food, opportunity for play free from the perils of the streets, and for rest and sleep in intervals of play. The children come at seven or eight in the morning and leave at six or seven in the evening. They are kept clean and warm, and they receive such training in the minor decencies of life, in connection with the care of the person and social behaviour, as is given naturally in a well-ordered home. Some of these nurseries receive about 40 children; some accommodate two or three hundred. In the former case the conditions approximate more nearly to the family type, and where there is adequate and intelligent supervision, the results to the children in improved health, manners and morals must be of great value to the community.

A second type of institution for young children of which information is supplied in the evidence is the Infant School or Kindergarten, with both of which we are familiar in England.

The *Ecole maternelle* of France and the Kindergarten of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the United States are examples of this type. These receive the children for a few hours daily—three, four, or five, as the case may be. Meals are not provided. The children are organised into groups according to age, and their activities are guided in certain definite directions during the whole of the school day. The staff of these institutions are not primarily nurses as in the *Kinderbewahranstalten*; they are teachers, and have generally been specially trained for the work.

A cursory glance at the evidence was sufficient to give the above-described categories of classification. Further analysis, however, showed that it was not possible to make clear lines of distinction between the two types of institution for young children. They tend in practice to blend their functions.

Many of the *Ecoles maternelles* in France, for example, while primarily places of learning and education, keep some of the children under supervision for some time before and after the ordinary school hours, and provide meals for them at a small

cost or gratuitously. In this way they combine the functions of school and day nursery.

On the other hand, many of the *Kinderbewahranstalten* of Austria-Hungary whose object is primarily to place the children under responsible care, and to free the guardian elder brother or sister for attendance in the primary school, approximate by the employment of a trained *Kindergartner*, and by the use of the Froebelian exercises during part of the day to the functions of a regular Kindergarten.

#### THE AUTHORITY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN UNDER SEVEN.

In England, the Infant School is part of the State primary school system; the attendance at school of children over five years of age is compulsory, and children are admitted between three and five. Most English Infant Schools, therefore, include many children under five years of age, as well as those between five and seven years.

In France also, and in the French Cantons of Switzerland, the Infant School is part of the State primary school system, and children from two to six years of age attend, though attendance below the age of six is optional and free. In no other European country, except Great Britain, is attendance at school compulsory before the age of six. Indeed, in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, the minimum age for entering the State school is seven years. Moreover, there is no State education for children under six in most parts of the United States, nor in Japan, two other countries dealt with in this inquiry.

Nevertheless, in other countries besides England and France, public local authorities make themselves responsible for the education of children under seven years of age. In some towns in Germany, for instance in Wiesbaden and Frankfurt, there are People's Kindergartens supported in part out of municipal funds, and supervised by the town authorities. In the same way, local authorities support Kindergartens in German Switzerland, in Holland, Italy, Austria-Hungary, the United States and Japan. In Austria-Hungary the State compels each commune according to its resources to provide institutions for the education and training of young children.

Private endeavour supplements local effort, or is substituted for it, to a greater or less extent in all European countries and in America. Religious bodies anxious to give instruction in their particular tenets, lay associations anxious for the propaganda of Kindergarten principles and methods or interested in social amelioration, have established and support Kindergartens or Children's Nurseries in Scandinavia, Holland, the German-speaking countries, Italy, and the United States.

It is impossible to tell from the returns sent, what proportion of the child population under seven in any country is receiving instruction or training in Infant Schools, Kindergartens, or

Child Nurseries. In certain cases, however—*e.g.*, Austria-Hungary, the United States and Japan, statistics were obtainable, and will be found in the special reports for each country.

#### CURRICULUM OF WORK FOLLOWED.

Children under five in the English infant school often receive instruction in the beginnings of reading, writing and number, and the larger part of the school work of children above this age consists of instruction in these subjects, while only a relatively small part of the time is devoted to talks about animals and flowers, story-telling, hand-work, singing and exercises in language. In going through the evidence furnished by the returns, we find that nearly all other countries differ entirely from the common English practice in this matter.

In Norway, Sweden, and Denmark the children do not receive formal instruction until they enter the primary school at seven years of age.

In Germany, German Switzerland, Austria, Italy, Finland, Japan, and the United States, children do not enter the State primary school till six years of age, and in the public or private Kindergartens or other institutions for children under this age there is no instruction given in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Consequently, the children in these countries are not taught to count, to add or subtract, to read or write until they are six years of age. In France and French Switzerland the children between five and six years of age learn the elements of reading, writing and number, and preliminary exercises in reading and counting also appear on some of the time-tables from Holland. There is no attempt made in these countries, however, to teach children under five to read, write, or perform exercises in number.

If we drop out all reading, writing, and number work from the time-tables of the children under six or seven years of age, the problem is how to fill these hours with activities appropriate to the needs and aptitudes of such children. How this is done can be discovered from the special reports given under each country.

It will be seen that there is always a good deal of hand-work. Most of this consists of the traditional Froebelian occupations—building with the cubes, weaving in paper or with laths, laying tablets, paper-folding, embroidery, pea-work, clay-modelling, etc. Organised play, story telling, and talks about the children's experiences fill up the intervals between the manual exercises.

It is a matter for regret that the returns do not give more detailed account of the actual work done. One or two conclusions can, however, be safely drawn.

Certain forms of hand-work—*e.g.*, pricking, cardboard embroidery, fine weaving, and the drawing of stereotyped patterns on squared paper, are still persisted in to a large extent.

although physiological research shows that they may produce eye-strain while they demand a finer muscular adjustment in arm and hand than the young child's physical development allows. On the other hand, clay-modelling does not always occur, while modern exercises, like brush drawing and free-arm drawing, which are becoming more common in our progressive infant schools, are rarely mentioned in the schedules.

#### SIZE OF THE CLASSES.

According to the Annual Report of the Board for 1906-7, the proportion of teachers to the number of children in average attendance continues to increase. Nevertheless, it is no uncommon thing for a teacher to have 60 or 70 children of five to six years of age under her charge. Judging from the evidence supplied in answer to this inquiry, children under six years of age are usually organised in classes smaller than those often found in the English infant school.

In Paris there are evidently, however, classes of 55, 60, and 70 children under one teacher, though there are a larger number quoted as containing 40 and 45 children. In Wurtemberg there are said to be 2,573 children in the Kindergartens under 33 teachers; this would give an average of over 70 to each class. In Holland, the classes given in the schedules contain generally 40 or 45 children. There is only one instance from Switzerland where the number exceeds 40. In the schedules from Austria there are examples of classes containing 50 and 55 children, but these seem to be exceptions to the general rule. From Finland the numbers given are 24 to 30, from the United States 24 to 30. In Japan, the maximum number of young children in a class is 40.

#### PROVISION FOR PLAY.

According to the English Code, the period for recreation in a session of one and a half or two hours' secular instruction for children under five years of age must be fifteen minutes in duration, and may be extended to half an hour; for children over five years of age the interval must be ten minutes. The time given to free play in most of the foreign schools and Kindergartens is, however, longer than this. In the French *Ecoles maternelles* half an hour is given to all the children in both morning and afternoon sessions, making a total of one hour per day. In one school at The Hague given in the returns, there are 11 hours' play a week, while another schedule from the same town explains the absence of a time-table for the summer season on the ground that most of the day is spent in the garden at play.

In some of the German-Swiss Kindergartens the ordinary routine is often suspended in the fine weather, and the children ramble in a neighbouring wood. Again, according to some of the Austrian schedules the children are taught in the garden

on fine spring and summer days, or they play all the afternoon in the garden.

There is, as a rule, in the American Kindergartens only a morning session of two and a half or three hours; in this case the interval for free play is generally fifteen minutes.

In the French schools, besides the tree-planted playground, there seems generally to be a covered portion with low benches where the children can rest when tired of unrestrained movement. In the returns from the Dutch, German, Austrian, Finnish and American Kindergartens, there are frequent references to a playroom, with low benches round the walls. In many cases there is in addition a garden or playground. For example, one of the newer schools in Rotterdam has six classrooms, two playrooms, and two playgrounds, one of which is covered. Another school in Amsterdam has seven classrooms, two playrooms, and a spacious playground planted with trees. In many of the German and Austrian Kindergartens of which particulars are supplied, there is usually a playroom. In some of the smaller Kindergartens, where there is only one room, it is expressly stated that one half is clear for play. A new school in Finland for 200 children has a playroom in addition to the four classrooms. Such a liberal recognition of the child's need of play as is afforded in some of the newer schools quoted above is presumably not to be accepted as typical of the general conditions in these countries; the instances to which reference is made serve, however, to show that public opinion tends more and more to regard the place of education for little children as a nursery rather than as a school, properly so called.

One excellent feature of many of the Kindergartens in the German-speaking countries is the large sand-pile in the garden or playground. To add to the children's pleasures, there are often also spades and pails. Other toys are frequently enumerated for use in the playroom or playground—*e.g.*, balls, dolls, skipping-ropes, etc. It is also in the schedules from the German-speaking countries that mention is made of the school garden as serving other purposes than those of a playground. Sometimes a part, occasionally the half, of the whole space is planted with flowers, etc., while the sowing, watering, and tending of the plants are done by the children in common. Several of the schedules mention that each child has a small plot for himself.

#### PROVISION FOR MEALS AND BATHING.

According to the evidence, the French schools make the most systematic attempt to solve the problem of feeding the hungry children. The money furnished by the *Caisse des Ecoles* is drawn from a fund which must be raised in every school district, and which is composed partly of voluntary subscriptions, and partly of grants from the local educational authorities and the State. By means of this fund, boots, clothing, and free meals are supplied to the needy children. The municipal authorities and voluntary helpers co-operate in the administration of this

fund. Kitchens are attached to each school, and in some instances there is a dining-room. Where there is no special room provided, the meal is taken in the covered playground, or in one of the classrooms. The cost for a meal of soup and vegetables or of meat and vegetables to those who can afford to pay is 10, 15, or 20 centimes.

According to some of the schedules from Amsterdam and Rotterdam, the children who live at a distance bring their midday meal, but are given a glass of boiled milk. Those who can do so pay, but to others it is given without payment. In some of the German Kindergartens, for example in those in Wiesbaden, milk and bread are supplied for the morning lunch at the cost of about  $\frac{1}{2}$ d., while dinner is provided for 1d. to those who remain at school. In Hamburg and Mainz the children bring bread for the morning lunch, and the school supplies milk. In the Day Nurseries in the Scandinavian countries, one hot meal is generally provided in the middle of the day, and bread and butter and milk, or porridge and milk, at other times; for this a small payment is made.

There does not seem to be much provision for washing or bathing other than the ordinary lavatory accommodation with which we are familiar in our own schools.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten there is a bathroom with five baths, where in summer five or six children are bathed daily. The returns from Frankfurt also mention a bathroom and bath. The new school in Finland already referred to, besides class and play-rooms, has a kitchen and bathroom. Bathrooms are also annexed to the Kindergartens in the crowded quarters of Chicago. Even in Japan, the land of the hot bath, only one schedule mentions a bathing tank in which the children bathe on Saturday. These instances seem to be isolated cases rather than typical of what are the prevailing conditions in the various countries.

One very useful institution in the *Ecole maternelle* of France is the *femme de service*. She supervises the children before and after school hours, helps in giving them their dinner, and superintends them in the lavatories. In the German Kindergartens there is often also a *Wärterin* (nursemaid), whose functions are similar.

## II.—SUMMARY OF INFORMATION SUPPLIED ON THE SCHEDULES.

### (i).—AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The application of Kindergarten methods to education in Austria dates back more than fifty years, when various games and occupations were introduced into an institution near Vienna for mentally defective children. The first private Kindergarten was established in Austria in Vienna in 1863. The first training course for Kindergarten teachers was opened in 1868 in connection with a Jewish children's Day Nursery (*Kind-*

*bewahranstalt*). Since that time, 1,000 Kindergarten teachers certificated by the State have owed their training to this course.

In the meantime, other Kindergartens, Day Nurseries, and Training Schools were established, including among others, Kindergartens for 200 children in Trieste, founded in 1870. Poor children are here received gratuitously, supplied with a nourishing midday meal, and with boots where necessary. Every month the school doctor examines pupils, and the medicines he orders are supplied free of cost. At their reception in the Kindergarten the children are weighed and measured, so that their progress in health can be estimated.

In 1872 a State commission was appointed, and as the result a Government ordinance was passed establishing the Austrian Kindergarten system on a firm basis. Numerous Kindergartens in addition to the Day Nurseries already in existence were founded, as well as Government training courses in connection with the institutions for teachers already existing.

The result of this was that in 1904-5 there were in Vienna 72 Kindergartens, 19 established and maintained by public authorities, 37 by private associations, and 16 by private persons. Thirteen of these were free; the fees in the others varied from 1 to 8 kroner monthly (10d. to 6s. 8d.). A midday meal was supplied in 11 Kindergartens, of which four made no charge. Three of the Kindergartens were connected with training institutions for Kindergarten teachers. In these various schools there were 139 teachers, 39 being nuns; the pupils numbered 7,436 in all.

In addition, there were in Vienna 50 Day Nurseries (*Kinderbewahranstalten*) and crèches for children under three; in 43 of these the Kindergarten games had been introduced. In 38 of these a midday meal was provided; 10 of these institutions supplying it gratuitously. The average number of children attending these institutions was 5,600.

Similar organisations exist in the other chief towns and districts of Austria—*e.g.*, in Brunn, Prague, Trieste. In the school year 1902-1903 in the whole of Austria there were 77,002 children between three and six years of age in Kindergartens, and 74,110 children in the *Kinderbewahranstalten*, or in all, 6 per cent. of the total number of children in Austria between three and six years of age.

According to the above-mentioned ordinance of 1872, "the aim of the Kindergarten is to confirm and complete the home education of children under school age, so that through regulated exercise of body and mind they may be prepared for instruction in the primary school." All instruction in the ordinary school acceptance of the term is forbidden; the means of education are to be hand-work, games, singing, the training of observation and speech in connection with things and pictures, stories, verses, and easy garden work.

The children are not to be received into the Kindergarten until the beginning of the fourth year, and are not to stay

longer than the completion of the sixth year, when they are received into the primary school.

No teacher is to have more than 40 children in her charge.

The Kindergartens are to be open every day, except Sundays and festivals for two to three hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon, but the children may be received before these hours and kept afterwards for oversight and care.

The situation of the Kindergarten must be healthy, the rooms well lighted and sufficiently spacious, and there must be either a garden or courtyard suitable for free play. The seats and tables must be in accordance with the bodily needs of the children; the tops of the tables must be marked off in squares.

The Kindergarten can be established either by public authority or by a private association, or by an individual; it may be in connection with a primary school or not, but if the Government conditions are not complied with the local education authority will close it.

The *Kinderbewahranstalten* come under similar regulations.

Other laws fix the course of instruction for those in training as Kindergarten teachers; the head teachers in the Kindergarten must possess at least the State qualification for teaching in the primary school, and show that they have been in a good Kindergarten for at least three months. Girls in the upper classes of the primary and burgher schools may, where practicable, assist in turn in the games and occupations of the Kindergarten. The head teacher of a Kindergarten may give instruction in Kindergarten practice and methods to such a girl when she has completed her school course, and can then testify to her fitness as a children's nurse.

By a law of the school authority of Lower Austria in 1892, detailed directions are given as to the hand-work to be done in the Kindergartens. Pricking, sorting seeds, bead-threading, string-work are strictly forbidden, evidently on account of the eye-strain involved. The occupations permitted are ball-play, building, stick and ring laying, drawing, clay-modelling, paper-folding; weaving, paper cutting out and pasting are allowed, provided that there is a good light and sufficient supervision on the teacher's part.

In Hungary, the Countess of Brunswick founded in 1836 an association by whose means many *Kleinkinderbewahranstalten* were established. Much later, an institution for training those who were to have the care of the children in such nurseries was founded, with a one-year's course of instruction. A further step was taken when the Central Froebel Verein was formed, which proceeded to establish a training school for Kindergarten teachers. Owing to the efforts of this latter association the institutions already in existence were remodelled on Froebelian lines.

In 1891 the then Hungarian Minister of Education laid before the Hungarian Reichstag a law which was passed by both houses and received the Royal assent, and which made provision for

the education and care of children between three and six years of age. This law ordained that children of this age whose parents are absent at work must have proper care and oversight provided for them.

For this purpose there must be two sorts of institutions established; *Bewahranstalten*, staffed with capable Kindergarten teachers, and *Asyle* (child nurseries), officered by nurses, open either all the year round, or for the summer season only.

Those Communes which contribute 30,000 kroner (about £1,250) in taxes to the State must provide Kindergartens; those whose tax contribution amount to between 20,000 and 30,000 kroner (between £830 and £1,250) must establish *Asyle* open all the year round; while those Communes whose contribution is less than this, but where provision is necessary for at least 20 children, must establish *Asyle* open for the summer season.

A Kindergarten teacher must never have more than 80 children under her charge. Where there are over 40 children, there must be, in addition, a nurse in the case of *Bewahranstalten*, and a woman servant in the case of *Asyle*. The Kindergarten system must stand in organic connection with the primary school.

As a result of the passing of this law, there were in 1904 in Hungary 233,023 children between the ages of three and six years in institutions for little children, 154,310 in *Kinderbewahranstalten*, 21,640 in refuges open all the year round, and 57,073 in refuges open in the summer only, making 21.44 per cent. of the whole number of children between these ages. There were 1,541 *Kinderbewahranstalten* and 994 refuges for children; 2,114 of these were public, and 421 were private. The teaching staff in these institutions consisted of 2,880 qualified and 1,042 non-qualified teachers or helpers, and 796 domestics. There were nine training schools with a two-years' course.

[The foregoing account is taken from "Der Kindergarten," by A. S. Fischer, the Director of the First Training School for Kindergarten Teachers in Vienna, published in 1907.]

#### The Schedules.

Eleven schedules were received from Vienna, Brunn, Prague, Klagenfurt, Jablonitz, Graz, etc. Six of these related to private Kindergartens, five to public ones. A private Kindergarten in Bohemia has for its chief aim the teaching of the German language to the children of Czech parents, who are described as being chiefly factory workers. This is evidently one of a number of Kindergartens and schools supported by the German School Society for the extension of the German language among some of the non-German subjects of the Austrian Empire.

Another schedule describes the Jewish *Bewahranstalt* mentioned in the preliminary account. The children are very poor, and it forms a practising ground for the training school, of which it is the annexe. Another relates to a small private Kindergarten in Vienna, which is closed for three months in the

summer, and is attended by the children of tradesmen, officials, etc., where the children pay monthly fees.

One of the schedules gives particulars of the Kindergarten organisation in Brunn. There are 38 Kindergartens in all, with one to three classes in each. Every one has a properly qualified Kindergarten teacher, and all are under the control of the municipality and the school inspector of the district. They are all free.

According to the schedules, the distinction between the *Kinderbewahranstalt* and the Kindergarten is that the former is open from seven or eight in the morning till the evening, and the latter is open for five hours daily—three in the morning and two in the afternoon.

#### *Children.*

The children differ in social condition, though they are generally described as "poor" or "very poor." In Graz there is a Kindergarten Verein which has established 11 Kindergartens. The parents of the children in five of them are described as belonging to the middle classes, in two to the artisan class, in three they are spoken of as "poor," and in one as "very poor." The classes generally contain 40 children or under; sometimes the number is greater—*e.g.*, 48, 50, 55.

#### *Staff.*

The usual qualification for teachers is to have undergone a year's course in a normal school for training Kindergarten teachers and to have passed an examination; more frequently than otherwise there seems to be a nursemaid or domestic servant who plays the same part in these schools as the *femme de service* does in the French schools. She appears to be responsible for the cleaning and heating of the rooms, as well as for the physical care of the children.

#### *Curriculum.*

From 23 to 26 hours a week seems to be allotted to organised activity. There is no instruction in reading, writing, or arithmetic in any of the schools. The morning appears to be given up to observation exercises, picture talks, or the children's narration of their experiences, the repetition of verses, and story telling. These exercises are interspersed with marching, drill, finger, ball, and circle games. There is generally an interval for lunch at about 10 o'clock. The afternoon is occupied with different forms of hand-activity, paper-folding, plaiting, building with the gifts, embroidery, stick-laying, pea-work, etc. Some of the schedules mention that the occupations are taken in systematic order throughout the year. Free-arm drawing with both hands is taken in one town, and exercises for training the colour sense. Even where there are two or three classes, and the children are graduated according to age, there is no express statement of a corresponding graduation in the activities of the

day. Clay-modelling and brush-work are not mentioned anywhere. The following is the only set time-table given:—

Monday:

8 to 8.30.—Assembly; games at the tables, imitation and guessing games, etc.

8.30 to 9.—Conversation—children recount experiences.

9 to 9.30.—Lunch and play.

9.30 to 10.—Marching, drill, games.

10.30 to 11.—Building and singing.

1 to 1.45.—Sewing and finger games.

2 to 3.—Circle games.

Tuesday:

8.30 to 9.—Observation talk.

9 to 9.15.—Manners and cleanliness talk.

9.15 to 11.—Lunch, marching, gymnastics. Drawing for the rest of the morning—*i.e.*, till 11.

1 to 2.—Older children paper-plaiting. Younger children making paper chains. Jumping and circle games and prayers till 3.

[*The rest of the week is on the same lines.*]

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

One classroom for each class is the general rule, and there is usually a playroom, with low benches all round. Sometimes, where there is only one room, it is expressly stated that one-half of it is kept clear for play. In nearly every case a garden is mentioned, a sand heap, seats, and gardening tools. Sometimes it is said that the children spend the whole day in the garden in the spring and summer; or in other cases we are told that they play all the afternoon in the garden.

Low tables and benches are the usual schoolroom equipment. Toys appropriate for both boys and girls are usually mentioned. A classroom serves as dining-room when dinner is taken. There is no information given about special arrangements for bathing, medical inspection, and gratuitous feeding of the children, though one return says that clothes are distributed at Christmas to the needy children.

#### (ii.)—DENMARK.

##### *Kindergartens.*

Children in Denmark do not go to school under six years of age, and do not learn to read and write before that time. The custom is growing, however, of sending children to the Kindergarten, though even now only a small percentage of the children of Kindergarten age attend these institutions.

There are about 50 Kindergartens in Copenhagen, and two or three in each of the other Danish towns. All these are private venture schools, sometimes attached to a school for older

children, though most of them are managed by a mistress who has had Kindergarten training, and who has one or more trained assistants. It is said that in many cases the training has not been sufficient to give a thorough comprehension of the principles of Froebel.

Whatever knowledge there is of Froebelian principles in Denmark is obtained direct from Germany. One of the schedules, for instance, gives details of a Kindergarten where the head teacher received a year's training in Dresden in the Froebel Seminar there.

Ten of the 50 Kindergartens in Copenhagen have from 20 to 30 children—the others have fewer. The children attend for three or four hours daily, and a typical time-table is as follows:—Between 9 and 10 there are singing, gymnastics and play. Between 10 and 10.45 the children recount their experiences, and there is story-telling. From 10.45 to 11.30 there is the second breakfast—the children lay the tables. Between 11.30 and 12 there is free play. Between 12 and 1 the children do hand-work. In fine weather they play for a much longer period in the garden and occupy themselves in cultivating their garden plots. There are 10 half-hours a week given to gymnastics, games and songs, five half-hours to painting, drawing from nature and modelling; one to building with the gifts, three to observation and story work, two to Sloyd. There are 26 children in this school.

Another programme is:—9 to 9.30, morning song and free play; 9.30 to 10 on alternate mornings, a story, observation exercise, repetition of verse; 10 to 10.20, the Froebel gifts; 10.20 to 11, breakfast; 11 to 12, free play, or cultivation of the garden plots; 12.15 to 12.45, Froebelian occupations. Sometimes there are excursions to the woods, or walks in the fields or by the sea-shore.

In 1899 the Danish Froebel Verein was founded for the propagation of Froebelian principles and methods in Denmark. It provides lectures and meetings during the winter for the discussion of all sorts of problems connected with the teaching of little children. The association is under the patronage of the Crown Princess of Denmark. A Froebel Seminar was founded by this association for the training of Kindergarten teachers and nurses and assistants in the children's asylums. The Seminar receives support from the State. The Froebel Verein has a branch society which establishes Kindergartens for the people in different districts in Copenhagen. These Kindergartens are jointly financed by the association, the children's payments, and contributions from the city purse. In one of these Kindergartens there is a department for the care of deaf and dumb children.

#### *Day Nurseries.*

There are no Kindergartens attached to the primary schools. For the children of the poorer classes, especially where the

mother works away from home, there are 1. children from three to seven years are received, 2. of these in Copenhagen, and most of the smaller to three each. These asylums are open from 6 or 7 to 10.

The children bring bread and butter for one meal, and milk in the Day Nursery, together with one hot directress is called "asylum mother," and she has 100. There are rooms both for working and playing. The children are occupied in various ways. Sometimes they are engaged in one or other of the Froebel occupations, but only such as need simple and inexpensive material. Further, the teachers engaged in these asylums have not had, as a rule, sufficient education and training to give a Froebelian education. Training students sometimes come for practice in the management of children in work and play.

In Copenhagen an asylum may contain from 100 to 200 children, and sometimes more. The children are very seldom taught reading, writing, and number. They are occupied in all sorts of hand-work, and, in the case of the bigger children, in a great deal of garden work and activities connected with the house. The children pay about 1½d. per week, and the rest of the expenditure is met by voluntary gifts and subscriptions.

About two hours daily are allowed for resting and sleeping. The little ones of three to four years have rooms specially constructed for sleeping. The bed is a sort of big box holding four children, with a mattress and a blanket in a linen case.

### (iii.)—EGYPT.

Children from three to seven years of age are educated in what are known as "Kuttabs." Some of these (the number is increasing each year) are under the direct control of the Ministry of Public Instruction, but the greater number are private, though some receive a Government grant.

Nothing in the nature of Kindergarten or hand-work is at present attempted in the "Kuttabs," though reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught. Formerly the whole time was given to the memorising of the Koran, success in which was accompanied with exemption from liability to military conscription. An attempt is now being made in one of the girls' secondary schools to form a preparatory or Kindergarten department for the children of the middle and better classes, but the lines on which this work is conducted have nothing of a special nature about them.

There are also various schools organised by different missionary societies. The Church Missionary Society's schools at Cairo and Helwan, for the children of the middle and higher classes, have each a Kindergarten department for children from four to nine years of age, but only a limited time can be given to Kindergarten work. Drawing, pasting, pricking, and sewing, mat-weaving, sand trays, blocks, tablets, songs, stories

or games, are taken for about an hour and a half each day. The parents desire that much time shall be given to Arabic, English and embroidery.

The children attending the Egypt General Mission Girls' School at Suez belong mostly to very poor, ignorant families, and are descendants of generations of utterly uneducated and untrained people. Their ages range from four to twenty, and it has been found that the Kindergarten occupations, such as card-pricking and embroidery, mat lacing and weaving, have been most useful in training both eyes and hands of even some of the older girls, and are invaluable for the physical and mental development of the little ones. Singing with action songs is taken twice a week by all but the oldest girls, and needlework for two hours every afternoon, during one of which the smaller children are taught with Kindergarten materials.

(iv.)—FINLAND.

*General Account.*

According to the returns sent in, in answer to the inquiry, there are 30 Kindergartens in Finland, of which nine are in Helsingfors. Others (including three more in Helsingfors) are to be established this year, and will be supported by the various communes. Some of the Kindergartens have been established by the State for the children of railway officials and workmen and for other artisans.

*Children.*

The children are described as mostly "poor" and "very poor." The average number in a class varies from 20 to 40. The period spent in the Kindergarten is from three to seven years of age. There is no afternoon session, and the hours of attendance vary from 9 or 10 a.m. to 1 or 2 p.m. The newer Kindergartens, however, are said to be open all the year and in the afternoons for the poorest children.

Two of the schedules mention that there are one or two housemaids attached to these particular Kindergartens, who attend to the physical wants of the children, and are responsible for the cleaning of the school.

*Staff.*

There is a seminar in Helsingfors where the teachers are trained. The course lasts for two years. Students must be eighteen years of age at entrance, and must have been educated in a high school. The course consists principally of instruction in Kindergarten principles and methods, hygiene of children, Sloyd, and the activities and crafts of the home—a knowledge of these last is deemed necessary for all those who are to help in the education of the children of the poor. The Government

contributes an annual grant to the seminar. The head teacher in one of the Kindergartens of which particulars are given was trained at the Pestalozzi-Froebel House in Berlin.

### *Curriculum.*

A special feature of the Finland Kindergartens seems to be the prominence given to such housekeeping activities as are possible for small children. They help in the getting ready and the clearing away of the midday meal, and in cleaning the kitchen utensils; they wash dolls, dust, sweep, and help in the care of the window flower-boxes. There is a separate room for the pursuance of the household occupations. The other activities given are the ordinary Kindergarten occupations—*e.g.*, embroidery, paper-folding, bead-threading, weaving, drawing, modelling, stick-laying, and painting. There is some observation and language work, but hand-work is most prominent.

The course is graduated according to the age of the children, and the younger ones have more free play and more movement generally than the elder. There is no reading or arithmetic given in the time-tables quoted; writing occurs in one, but what this means is not further explained. Lessons, for which the pupils are seated, last from half an hour to three-quarters.

### *Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergartens are said to differ much in building and equipment; some are spaciouly constructed and well equipped, while others have not enough rooms. One Kindergarten for 60 children has two classrooms and a playroom. All the rooms in this Kindergarten are large, sunny, and well ventilated, with paintings on the walls by Finnish artists. There are 60 small tables and chairs. Besides the playroom, there is a large and sunny court with clean, fine sand, and there are balls and skipping ropes.

In another Kindergarten for 120 children, there are four classrooms, one playroom, two dining-rooms, and a kitchen. A midday meal is supplied in all the Kindergartens described in the returns; the proportion of children who partake is given in the case of one as 25 out of 60. In two of the Kindergartens scheduled there is a small bathroom. In another, all the children are expected to sleep after mid-day dinner (between 12.30 and 1). Particulars are given of a new school, where there will be play and work rooms for at least 200 children, a kitchen, bathroom and lavatory, a room for the teachers, and an excellent garden.

### (v.)—FRANCE.

#### *General Account.*

Eleven schedules were received—one from Dijon, the remainder from Paris. All the schools referred to were

municipal and State institutions with one exception, viz., a Kindergarten pure and simple, attached to a philanthropic settlement situated in what is evidently a "slum" district in Paris. The numbers in attendance in the schools scheduled vary from 120 to 510, and the ages of the children from two years to eight and a half. Morning school, according to the returns, generally lasts two hours, from 9 to 11, and afternoon school for two and a half hours, from 1 to 3.30. Half an hour in each session is allotted to free play in the open air. The returns mention that the schools are open all day from seven or eight in the morning to six or seven in the evening, according to the season, for the children whose mothers go out to work, but the lesson hours are five hours, or, omitting recreation time, four hours per day.

### *Children.*

The children in the *Ecoles maternelles* vary in age from two to six years, but, as several of the schedules show, there are often *Classes Infantines* attached to the *Ecoles maternelles* for the children from six to seven, or six to eight years of age.

In two schools the children are described as belonging chiefly to the "comfortable classes," but in the rest the majority are grouped as "poor," or "very poor." The classes vary in size from 32 to 70 children; apparently most of them contains from 45 to 55, children, but in one school of 500 the average number in a class is 60; in another school of 510 the average number in a class is 70; in another of 408 the average is 68.

### *Staff.*

The staff comprises a directress, or head mistress, with as many assistants as a rule as there are classes. The qualifying certificate is the *Brevet de Capacité* for primary education; in a few cases there is mention of a special certificate implying aptitude for teaching little children. The directress, and sometimes the assistants, have the *Certificat d'aptitude pédagogique*. There is always a *femme de service*, who attends to the children's physical needs, and takes care of them before 9 and after 4.

### *Curriculum.*

There is no formal instruction in reading, writing, and number for children under five years of age. Above this age, the time given to reading, writing, and language varies, according to the school, from four or five hours weekly to ten hours. There seems little gradation as to the number of hours given to formal instruction per week in the classes above the "babies." One hour is given to the moral talks per week—sometimes the youngest children have more. The time given to the object-lesson (*leçon de choses*) varies from one to two hours a week, but as far as one can judge there does not seem much of the

nature study work that is so rapidly increasing in English infant schools.

The hand-work, which occupies from two to four hours per week, seems to be of a somewhat old-fashioned type. Pricking and embroidery are frequently given; weaving, the folding, cutting, and mounting of paper, bead-threading, and drawing on squared paper are the most common types of hand-work mentioned. None of the returns give clay-modelling or sand-moulding, brush-work or free-arm drawing. Circle games and other forms of Kindergarten play are not as a rule specifically mentioned; simple gymnastics seem to be the more ordinary type of organised physical movement. Nothing is said, moreover, of the "story" lesson, though it may possibly be included under the term "language lesson." The following are examples of time-tables:—

## I.—A SCHOOL OF 209 CHILDREN.

—	Children from 5-6 years.		—	Children from 2-5 years.	
	hrs.	mins.		hrs.	
Reading - - -	1	40	Talks - - -	1½	weekly
Writing - - -	1	40	Hand-work - - -	5½	"
Arithmetic - - -	0	15	Story - - -	1	"
Recitation - - -	0	30	Language - - -	1	"
Singing - - -	0	30	Recitation - - -	1	"
Object and Moral Lessons - - -	1	40	Organised Play	1½	"
Drawing - - -	1	40			
Handwork - - -	2	0			
Organised Play	1	40			

1 hour 25 minutes per day are given to instruction in the various subjects.  
35 minutes to hand-work.

¾ hour instruction in the various subjects given daily.  
1 hour hand-work.

## II.—A SCHOOL OF 510 CHILDREN.

—	Classes Enfantines. 6-8 years.		Classes Maternelles.	
			5-6 years.	2-5 years.
	Hours.		Hours.	Hours.
Language - - -	3½	weekly	1½	weekly
Recitation - - -	1½	"	1½	"
Lessons in Morals - - -	1½	"	1½	"
Reading and Writing	4	"	5	"
Object Lessons - - -	1½	"	2	"
Number - - -	2½	"	1½	"
History and Geography	1	"	—	—
Singing - - -	1½	"	1½	"
Drawing - - -	1½	"	1½	"
Hand-work - - -	2½	"	2½	"
Games - - -	—	—	—	—
Gymnastics - - -	1	"	1½	"

## III.—A SCHOOL OF 216 CHILDREN.

	Children of 2-4 years.		Children of 4-6 years.
	Hours.		Hours.
Recitation - -	2½ weekly	Reading and Language	4 weekly
Singing - -	2½ "	Writing - - -	2½ "
Talks - -	3 "	Number - - -	1½ "
Hand-work - -	5 "	Recitation - - -	1½ "
Games - -	7 "	Drawing - - -	1½ "
		Singing - - -	1 - -
		Hand-work - - -	1½ "
		Pictures, Object Lesson	2½ "
		Games - - -	4 "

A comparison of the foregoing time-tables shows that there is considerable difference in the time allotted to the various subjects. Five hours instead of three hours twenty minutes are given to reading and writing weekly for the children between five and six years in the second school as compared with the first. There are also one and a half hours given weekly to arithmetic in the second case instead of fifteen minutes in the first. In this second school much more time is given to actual instruction than in the first. In the second school the younger children occupy in games and gymnastics the time passed by the older children in receiving formal instruction. According to a model time-table for the schools in the Seine Department, five formal lessons weekly are given in the afternoon, each of 45 minutes' duration; in the morning the object-lesson lasts for 45 minutes.

Thursday is a holiday; but some of the schools are kept open so that the children whose parents are at work may not be left without care. The Thursday classes are sometimes open all day from 8 a.m. to 6 p.m., but often only in the afternoon. Special teachers are employed by the municipality for these classes, or additional payment is given to such of the regular teachers as like to take part in the work.

Some of the schools in the poorer districts are open during the summer holidays. There is no regular work, but attractive occupations and walks fill up the time. Special teachers are employed for these vacation schools, while the ordinary teacher, if engaged on this work, receives additional payment beyond her salary.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

There are, as a rule, as many classrooms as classes; the seats and tables are of varying heights, and are generally said to be dual. There is always a playground, gravel or asphalt, with trees, and a covered portion with low benches, where, according to several returns, the *déjeuner* is taken in fine weather. Not one of the returns mentions anything about a sand pile or any material for outdoor games. One return says that there are plenty of balls, but the remainder of the toys are

made by the children themselves. A few more elaborate tables are kept specially for Thursdays. In fine weather the classes especially those for hand-work, are held in the playground.

The meals are provided from the resources of the *Caisse des Ecoles*, and are partaken of under the supervision of the head mistress, and with the help of the *femme de service*.

The *Caisse des Ecoles* administers a fund composed partly of voluntary subscriptions and partly of grants from the local education authority and the State. The object is to provide food, clothing, and boots to the children who need them. It also provides funds for sending children into the country during the summer.

The *Caisse des Ecoles* is an institution which is found in every commune and municipal district in France, and the committees concerned in its administration always include members of the municipality as well as private donors.

Soup, minced meat, purées are the principal dishes according to the schedules. The price asked is so little, says one schedule (10 centimes), that eggs cannot be given.

Another says that meat and vegetables are generally provided. Twice a week soup is given. According to one schedule, the children bring something to drink—water or milk—which is warmed in winter at school. In summer the water is boiled.

Some of the schedules mention a dining-room, but others say that the meal when taken indoors is eaten in one of the classrooms or in the *préau* or hall. The proportion of children who take their dinner in school is not mentioned in all the schedules. One gives it as one-tenth, another as one-seventh of the total attendance. The price is variously given as 10 and 15 centimes per child. One schedule says that 20 children out of a total of 500, and another 30 to 35 out of 400, are given free meals.

All the returns speak of a lavatory with basins supplied in some cases with hot as well as cold water. One schedule describes a bathroom furnished with small baths, not large enough for the child to sit down, but where he can be washed all over standing up. This is done in the case of neglected children.

Half an hour every day is given to the supervision of the children in the lavatories under the charge of the *femme de service*. Great attention is paid to cleanliness, and hands and faces are washed both before morning and afternoon school.

There is nothing said in any of the returns of medical inspection. One schedule gives an account of the school medicine-chest, which contains remedies in case of accident or sudden indisposition.

#### (vi.)—GERMAN EMPIRE.\*

##### *General Account.*

Germany is the country where the Kindergarten originated, and where, perhaps, it is more generally developed than any-

\* For additional particulars as to Kindergartens in Germany, see Appendix C., page 281 below.

-where in the world, except in the United States. Yet, judging from the schedules sent, the State has nothing to do with the development of Kindergarten education in Germany.

Fourteen returns were sent in, chiefly from Berlin, Frankfurt, Leipzig, Hamburg, and Wiesbaden.

The institutions described in them were named variously as *Kleinkinderschulen*, *Kinderbewahranstalten*, and *Kindergartens*. Among the returns there are examples of institutions maintained by private associations, together with examples of others maintained by the municipality, as in Frankfurt and Wiesbaden.

From Linden, in Hanover, there came particulars of a type which is evidently not uncommon in Germany. This Kindergarten belongs to some works; the payments made by the parents amount to one-third of the expenses, and the rest is contributed by the proprietors of the works. In Berlin, the Octavia Hill Verein, an association for the better housing of the poor, maintains a Kindergarten for the children of those who live in the houses under the control of the association. The Froebel Verein in Berlin maintains six Kindergartens, three for children of the middle classes, and three for the children of the poor. The Pestalozzi-Froebel House has three—two for children of workmen, and one for the middle classes.\* At Stuttgart, an association has established one for the children of the poor and lower middle class whose parents are at work away from home all day. In Breslau there are 11 Kindergartens. In Wurtemberg there are 32. In Bosenheim (Rheinliessen) there is a *Kleinkinderschule* belonging to a religious association taught by Sisters, who give religious instruction for half an hour in the morning, while the rest of the time is spent chiefly in games.

Some of the Kindergartens, or kindred institutions, are open early in the morning, at 6, 7, or 8 a.m., and are closed at 6 or 7 p.m. In others the hours are from 9 to 12 and 2 to 4. In the middle-class Kindergartens belonging to the Froebel Verein in Berlin the hours are from 9 to 1. In the Kindergartens of the Froebel Verein in Berlin the work is unbroken throughout the summer; the regular teachers have a month's holiday, and supply teachers take their place.

The following particulars are supplied about the People's Kindergarten belonging to the town of Wiesbaden:—

Children of the lower middle and working classes who are over three years and under six years of age are received irrespective of the religious opinions of the parents.

An entrance fee of 50 pfennigs (about 6d.), and a monthly fee of 50 pfennigs, is to be paid by each child. If there are several children in a family, fees in proportion are paid, and if the parents are poor, a lower fee or none at all is allowed at the discretion of the Kindergarten Commission.

The hours of instruction are from 9 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 4 p.m. In summer children may be received from 8 a.m. till 7 p.m., and in winter from 8 a.m. until 6 p.m.

\* The number has now been increased to four.

The children must be sent punctually to the Kindergarten and be clean and well clad.

Children suffering from infectious diseases cannot be received in school after recovery without a doctor's certificate, and brothers and sisters of the sick child cannot be received during his or her illness.

Milk and bread are supplied at lunch at a cost of 5 pfennigs (about  $\frac{1}{2}$ d.). Dinner can also be supplied at 10 pfennigs (1d.), and milk and bread again in the evening for 5 pfennigs.

Similar details are given with regard to the *Volkskindergärten* (People's Kindergartens) belonging to the Verein für Volkskindergarten in Frankfurt-on-Main. The People's Kindergartens offer to children between three and six years of age whose parents work away from home and are prevented from giving them care and supervision, instruction and occupation appropriate to their age. The schools are in the charge of a teacher educated in the principles and methods of Froebelian education.

The Kindergarten hours are 9 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 5 p.m. in the winter, and 8 to 12 a.m. and 2 to 5 p.m. in the summer. On Saturdays the Kindergarten is open only to noon.

The fees are from 50 pfennigs (6d.) to 2 marks (2s.) monthly, and are to be sent on the first day of the month.

The children bring 5 pfennigs daily ( $\frac{1}{2}$ d.) for milk, which is supplied at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. Two slices of bread are also brought. The regulations with regard to the cleanliness of the children and infectious diseases are the same as in the case of Wiesbaden.

### *Children.*

The minimum age given in the schedules is in most cases three years, and in some two years. In one case where the minimum age is three, it is said that some children are taken below this age when the mother's work compels absence from home, and if the children can speak and are clean. The leaving age is always six.

The number of children in these different types of institution varies from about 40 to 140; the average attendance is about 80.

The children are described generally as "poor" or "very poor"; sometimes the parents' callings are given in the returns—e.g., "factory worker," "railway official," "postman." In one school the mothers are much employed in field work.

### *Staff.*

The teachers have generally had special training in Kindergarten institutions, such as that of the Froebel Verein Seminar in Berlin, one of whose objects is to train girls of the educated class as Kindergarten instructors in schools and families.

The course in this institution lasts a year, though half-yearly courses are given for the purpose of increasing the knowledge and skill of those Kindergarten teachers who are already qualified.

The training deals specially with the art and theory of education, the methods and principles of Froebel, the activities and crafts of the home, and the hygiene of the child. The students of the Seminar practise in the Kindergartens, and thus supply additional teaching staff.

The Pestalozzi-Froebel House is also a well-known Seminar for the training of Kindergarten teachers and teachers of domestic science and crafts. Frankfurt has a Seminar and three Kindergartens where the students practise.

#### *Curriculum.*

According to the official regulations of the various towns, the teachers or nurses are to make the health of the children their concern, to keep them from bodily harm, to train them in order and cleanliness and Christian morals. Formal instruction in reading, writing, and calculation is forbidden. In none of the Kindergartens scheduled is instruction given in these subjects. Stories, talks about pictures, building with the gifts, weaving, paper-folding, clay-modelling, etc., are the usual activities. Work in the garden, the care of animals and plants, and various house activities are more common than in the returns from other countries.

\* The Froebel Verein report affirms that the Kindergarten curriculum is not regarded as something fixed, but as capable of further development in consonance with advance made in child psychology. In some cases, however, "pricking," and other occupations formerly believed to be educational but now considered harmful, are retained. In the schedules from the Hamburg Kindergartens it is said, however, that while the older Kindergarten occupations are chiefly followed, fine work is not done so much as formerly, on account of the eye strain involved. In the Frankfurt schedule visits to farms and industries are included. The schedule from the Pestalozzi-Froebel House says that it is very difficult to give a time-table, as the object of the Kindergarten is to retain the family spirit as far as possible, and this, it adds, precludes a fixed routine.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

<sup>1</sup> The classrooms are described generally as sunny and airy. There is a playground, sometimes a special playroom. Generally there are plenty of toys, and sand heaps are provided. Movable and low tables and seats are the usual equipment.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten there is a bathroom with <sup>4</sup> five baths. In the summer five or six children are bathed daily. In the schedule from Frankfurt there is mention also of a bathroom with seven basins and a bath. In the Hamburg Kindergarten there is a special room with a mattress where children are put to bed.

In the Wiesbaden Kindergarten three meals a day are provided. In Hamburg and Mainz the children bring bread for lunch; the Kindergarten supplying milk. In the Mainz

Kindergarten, meat soup is provided three times a week, and milk rice on other days. In the Froebel Verein Kindergartens in Berlin, midday and evening meals are provided at a small cost. In the Kindergarten of the Pestalozzi-Froebel House, at Berlin, the children have milk for lunch, and dinner is provided at a cost of 10 pfennigs (1d.). In Frankfurt, as before mentioned, milk is provided at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m. at 5 pfennigs, and the children bring rolls.

For lunch in the Limmer Kindergarten the children have bread and milk in the morning, with a hot dinner at midday of soup, vegetables, and meat; in the evening, bread and milk are again provided.

(vii.)—HOLLAND.

*General Account.*

Sixteen schedules were received from Holland. Seven of these were from Amsterdam, which, according to the returns, has 110 infant schools, though none are supported by the city. In Holland the State is not responsible for the education of children below six years of age, and they are left to the initiative and care of local authorities and private associations. In Amsterdam, therefore, the infant schools were founded and are supported by philanthropic associations, or by religious bodies, or by private persons.

Seven schedules were received from Rotterdam, where there are 38 infant schools belonging to the city (29 for the children of the poor or second-class schools, and nine for the children of the comfortable classes or first-class schools), and 37 private schools. The private schools get a subsidy from the city if the teachers are well trained. In the second-class schools the children pay 3d. a week, or 1½d., or, if they are very poor, nothing at all. In the first-class schools the fees are 6d. a week. Schedules were also received from The Hague, Leyden and Utrecht, which show that these towns support infant schools. According to the returns, Leyden has three public infant schools and three private ones. The schools scheduled vary in size from 400 (the Sophie Rosenthal School in Amsterdam), where the children attending are described as "poor" and "very poor," to 25, a village school in Gelderland, partly supported by the village and partly by a society which gives £80 annually.

*Children.*

According to the returns, the children usually enter the infant school at the age of three, and leave at the age of six. Only in two schedules is the average number in a class higher than 45. Generally it is 40 or below that number. The children are usually classed as "poor" or "very poor." Four of the schedules dealing with schools marked "private" describe the children as well-to-do or in comfortable circumstances. The hours of attendance seem to be usually 9 to 12, and 2 to 4.

Staff.

The usual proportion is a head teacher with an assistant teacher for each class. A schedule from The Hague and another from Amsterdam mention also students from the normal school of the respective cities as practising in the infant school in question. There are generally apprentices or pupil teachers in the schools. The girls are apprenticed at the age of 14 or 15 for five years. As an instance of the character and distribution of the teaching staff, there is a school at Leyden of 350 children divided into six classes, with a head mistress, three assistants, and six pupil teachers. Further information adds that Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, Leyden, Dordrecht, and Groningen have their own training institutions for infant teachers. The certificates granted by these colleges have different values, those of The Hague and Leyden taking first rank. According to the information given, the infant schools are not always officered by women who have received a specific or indeed any training, and hence the schools are of unequal merit.

Curriculum.

The lesson periods are usually 30 minutes long. One schedule gives half an hour for each lesson, except in the case of paper work and modelling, in which the lessons last for 40 minutes each. In the time-tables for the older children preliminary exercises in reading are sometimes included. These are described in detail in a schedule from Rotterdam as exercises in pronunciation, exercises in developing the power of hearing, and analysis of words. The beginnings of number are also taught, sometimes in the case of children from five to six years of age. The chief activities are singing, reciting, hand-work, the various Froebelian gifts and occupations including clay-modelling, marching, and gymnastics.

In one school the disposition of the time is as follows:—

	Children from 3 to 4 years.		Children from 4 to 6 years.
	Hrs.		Hrs.
Scripture - - -	1 weekly.	Scripture - - -	2½ weekly.
Recitation - - -	2½ "	Recitation and Singing.	1 "
Singing - - -	2½ "	Games - - -	1 "
Drawing - - -	2½ "	Drawing and Hand-work.	15 "
Story - - -	½ "	Stories - - -	½ "
Gifts 1, 2, 3 and 4	1 each.		
Mosaic work, modelling, lath and stick laying.	1 "		
Games - - -	2½ "		
Total - - -	20 hours.	Total - - -	20 hours.

The following is the time-table for another school:—

No. of hours spent in school weekly, 22.

The children between 3 and 4 years of age play half of the time.

The children between 4 and 5 years of age play a third of the time.

The children between 5 and 6 years of age play a quarter of the time.

The rest of the time-table is :'

—	3-4 Years.	4-5 Years.	5-6 Years.
	Hours weekly.	Hours weekly.	Hours weekly.
Froebelian Gifts - - -	5	4	2
Drawing - - - - -	1	3	4
Singing - - - - -	1½	1	2
Recitation - - - - -	1	1	1
Stories from Pictures - - -	1	2	1
Modelling - - - - -	1½	1	1
Paper Construction - - - -	—	3	5
Counting - - - - -	—	—	½
Speech-Training - - - - -	—	—	½
<b>Total - - - - -</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>17</b>

In a school at The Hague there are 11 hours play per week ; exercises for the hand 12 hours, counting one hour, story-telling one hour, singing one hour, speech-training one hour.

Another schedule from The Hague gives the time-table for the winter only, and adds that there is none for the summer, because at that season there is chiefly play in the garden. The returns from Rotterdam say that the Kindergartens are considered a great boon for the children of the poor, yet some are opposed to them because they think that the health of the children would be improved by more time being spent in the fresh air.

Some interesting notes are supplied on what are called the Leyden and Rotterdam methods of infant-school instruction. The "Leyden method" emphasises the importance of hand-work and the children doing everything as far as possible for themselves ; it begins at the age of four and a half years to give a notion of quantities as preliminary to the study of arithmetic, and bases the counting exercises on small groups of objects of three and four. It postpones till the age of five preliminary exercises in reading, phonetic drill, and the phonetic analysis of words ; it lays stress on the children's work in the garden, and does not give set observation lessons, but seeks to make profit out of every opportunity that occurs naturally, and especially by the actual handwork, to make the children keen observers. The Rotterdam method makes more of pictures and the teacher's words, the child is more passive, the teacher does more, the exercises in counting begin at three years of age with groups of ten objects. Formal lessons in observation are given, and

The reading exercises draw attention to the symbol rather than the sound in word analysis. In other words, the methods of Leyden seem more closely in harmony with the fundamental principle of Froebelian teaching, that the education which stimulates the child to self-activity is the best.

Curriculum of the schools which follow the method of Rotterdam. (Every exercise lasts half an hour.):

	1st Class. 3-4 years.	2nd Class. 4-5 years.	3rd Class. 5-6 years.
	Hours a week.	Hours a week.	Hours a week.
Object Lessons - - -	2	2	3
Exercises in Language -	2	2	2
Learning short pieces of Poetry - - - - -	2	2	2
Singing - - - - -	2	2	2
Counting - - - - -	1	2	2
Telling Stories - - - -	2	2	2
Drawing - - - - -	2	5	5
Froebel Exercises - - -	15	11	10
Play - - - - -	11	11	11
Total - - - - -	39	39	39

Curriculum of the schools which follow the method of Leyden:

	1st Class. 3-4 years.	2nd Class. 4-5 years.	3rd Class. 5-6 years.
	Hours a week.	Hours a week.	Hours a week.
Froebel Exercises - - -	15	13	8
Treating of the Surround- ing Objects - - - -	2	2	3
Counting - - - - -	—	2	2
Play - - - - -	11	11	11
Telling Stories - - - -	1	1	1
Learning short pieces of Poetry and Singing -	4	4	4
Expression in Words and in Drawing - - - - -	—	—	6
Drawing - - - - -	6	6	4
Total - - - - -	39	39	39

The school hours are from 9 to 11.45 in the morning, and from 2 to 4 in the afternoon, except Saturday afternoon, which is a holiday.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

Sometimes there are as many classrooms as classes, but very often two classes appear to occupy the same room. According to one schedule, three classes occupy each of the two rooms, but there is always one class away at play, and the other two are then quite far enough apart not to disturb each other. The equipment seems old-fashioned in some cases; *e.g.*, seats without backs, but in other cases low desks or tables with seats with backs are provided. There is generally a playroom with toys, and a playground with a sand pile. In the newer schools more accommodation is being provided for play, and there is evidently in Holland a widely spread feeling that a young child's chief business is free movement. In Rotterdam one of the newer schools has six classrooms, two playrooms, and two playgrounds, one of which is covered. The Sophie Rosenthal School in Amsterdam has seven classrooms, two playrooms, and door-windows opening into a spacious garden with trees. In some schools without space for play there are regular school walks, or the children play in a neighbouring park or square.

The above-mentioned Sophie Rosenthal School—a school of 400 children—has a bathroom with two baths. Some of the children are washed every day, and each child has his own towel. One of the returns, describing a school where some of the children are poor, remarks that the parents would feel insulted if the children were bathed at school. According to information from Rotterdam, it is rare that a child has to be washed. Additional confirmation of the traditional Dutch cleanliness is given by several schedules, which affirm that there is no necessity for bathing accommodation. In Rotterdam the children who live at a distance from the school remain for their midday meal. They bring their lunch, but receive a tumbler of boiled milk. In the first-class schools they pay 1½d. a week for it; in the second-class schools it is given to them. One of the schedules from Amsterdam also mentions that milk is given freely to the children who dine at school.

## (viii.)—ITALY.

*General Account.*

Infant schools are established by the communes, religious or lay associations, and private individuals. The Ministry of Public Instruction supervises them, and even assists them with subsidies. It is said that 25 per cent. of the communes have established such schools, and this is considered a large proportion when it is remembered that previous to the war of 1870, about 75 per cent. of the people were illiterate. In Italy children enter the primary school at six years.

Four schedules were received from Rome. General information was given in one of them, according to which there are 157 communal *Salles d'Asile* or *Classes Infantines* in the city, with

a total of 20,297 children; 184 of the teachers belong to religious bodies, and 186 are lay persons. The children in twenty of the schools are described as belonging to the "comfortable" classes, in 102 of them the children are poor, while twenty-five of them are of mixed social character, with some poor children and some comfortably placed. The 157 schools are divided into 406 classes.

Forty-six of the *Classes Infantines* are said to follow the methods of Froebel exclusively, and five those of Aporti, while the larger number combine the methods of Froebel and Aporti.

It is difficult to say in what way these two methods differ from each other. Ferrante Aporti, according to Buisson's *Dictionnaire de Pédagogie*, was an Italian ecclesiastic born in 1791. His attention was directed to the physical, moral, and intellectual needs of little children, and, like Pestalozzi and Froebel, he was convinced that real education must begin in the cradle. A school for infants was established in Cremona in 1827, in which he attempted to put his ideas into practice. The government of Milan of that day approved of the scheme, the newspapers praised it, and the first venture was so successful that other *Salles d'Asile*, as they are called, were established all over Italy. Aporti gave the rest of his life to the support and extension of the movement, and published a manual for infant schools. According to the account given in Buisson's *Dictionnaire*, the leading principles of Aporti's method are attention paid to bodily development, longer periods of recreation than those of work, gymnastic exercises appropriate to infant age, mind culture by teaching in the concrete, which will often take the form of a game rather than work. The "object lessons" in this method, according to the above article, are less developed than in more modern days, being reduced to the simple naming and classification of things.

### *Children.*

Attendance at these schools is between the ages of three and seven years. Of the 20,297 children in attendance in the Roman *Asiles* in 1906, 7,271 are between the age of three and seven years, 11,761 between the age of four and six years, and 1,265 between the age of six and seven years. Some at least of the schools are evidently open between 8 a.m. and 4 or 6 p.m., according to the time of year, for the reception of children whose parents are absent at work. The hours of instruction seem to be from 9 to 9.30 a.m. and 1 to 3.30 p.m. in the summer, and 2.30 to 5 p.m. in the winter. Particulars are given of others where the children are not poor, and where the hours are from 10 a.m. to 1.30 p.m.

### *Curriculum.*

The time is apportioned in only one schedule sent; seven or eight hours weekly are given to repetition and object lessons,

two and a half or three hours to the gifts, seven and a half to nine hours to handwork, including drawing, and seven and a half hours to singing, games, and gymnastics. Five hours weekly are given to religious teaching. The variation in hours is in accordance with the season, the longer time in each subject being given in the summer.

One of the schedules gives an account of the Crandon Institute, a boarding and day school of 250 children, which has a Kindergarten attached. The children are from four and a half to nine years of age, and belong to the well-to-do classes. In the lowest class half an hour is given daily to learning English, and half an hour to French. Both languages are taught by means of charts, songs, etc. The rest of the time is spent in the ordinary Froebel occupations. The children from five and a half to nine years of age learn in addition to the English and French languages, reading, writing, and arithmetic. In the upper class of children from six to nine years, half of every hour is taken for either English or French.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

There are 406 classrooms, corresponding with the number of classes given in the general return. They are described as "large, very sunny, with a minimum of two windows," and there is a garden attached to each school. According to the special returns there are playrooms, in one case two to seven classrooms, while in another case there is a covered playground in addition to a room for meals and games. According to the general return, soup, bread, and water are provided generally in the schools.

#### (ix.)—JAPAN.

##### *General Account.*

"The Department of Education superintends the educational affairs of the country. In a similar way each local office superintends the educational affairs in its own jurisdiction, and maintains at its own expense the schools required in it, and this remark also applies to each district, municipal, or rural corporation. . . . The institutions maintained by the Department are called Government institutions, while those maintained by local, district, or corporation expenses are called public or communal schools. . . . Normal schools . . . are schools which the provincial offices are obliged to maintain in their jurisdiction. . . . The schools which a municipal or rural corporation is under obligation to maintain are primary schools."

"The first Kindergarten in Japan was established in Tokyo in 1876. The number has since been considerably increased, so that at present every province has one or more Kindergartens. . . . The number of children to be taken

into a Kindergarten is limited to 100, which number could in special circumstances be increased to 150. Each nurse has to take charge of not more than forty children."

"At the end . . . of 1901 . . . there were 254 Kindergartens throughout the country, and they comprised one Government establishment, 181 public establishments, and seventy-two private establishments." (From a chapter in "Japan at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century," compiled by the Department of Agriculture and Commerce (London, John Murray, 1904), and quoted in the Report of the U.S.A. Commissioner of Education for the year ending June 30th, 1904. Vol. 2, pp. 1252).

Ten schedules were received from Japan in answer to the inquiry; one being from a Kindergarten in Tokyo, which is governed by the Imperial Household, and is for the young children of nobles. Four give particulars of Kindergartens attached to Norman Schools (Osaka, Akashi, Kyoto, and the Higher Norman School for Women at Tokyo, a Government institution). There are four described as communal or municipal Kindergartens, while one is described as the Charity Kindergarten, Futaba, Tokyo.

#### *Children.*

The children who attend these various types of Kindergarten are mostly described as belonging to the comfortable classes, the children in the "Charity" Kindergarten at Futaba, about 120 in number, are all "poor"; in the Kindergarten attached to the Kyoto Normal School, sixty out of a total of seventy-six are "comfortably placed," twelve are poor, four are very poor; in the Communal School at Kinnamoto, out of a total of 100, seventy are described as "comfortable," thirty as "poor." In the Kindergarten attached to Tokyo-Shi Chokai common school, the 120 children marked as "comfortable" are further particularised as the children of Government officials, of those engaged in manufacturing industries, and of those engaged in mercantile pursuits.

The children of one of the Tokyo Kindergartens are, as before stated, the sons and daughters of nobles attached to the Imperial Household. There are 100 children in this last school divided into four classes.

The Kindergarten attached to the Higher Normal School, Tokyo, has 160 children, divided into two sections, the main section, 100 in number, belonging to the comfortable classes, and a "special section" containing sixty who are described as "very poor," and as having no tuition; presumably they are occupied in play all the time. The average number in a class in this school is forty. In this Kindergarten the fees for the main section are a yen and a half monthly—about 3s. In all the schools the children are between the ages of three and six, after which age they are admitted into the primary or common school.

*Staff.*

The teachers are generally graduates of a Kindergarten Normal School—this is more especially the case when the Kindergarten is attached to the training school itself. In other Kindergartens, graduates from the Higher Normal School for Women in Tokyo are members of the staff. A male principal or director seems often to be the chief member of the staff—*e.g.*, in the Communal Kindergarten, Osaka, containing 240 children, there are seven female teachers and a male principal.

The date of establishment of the Higher Normal School Kindergarten at Tokyo is given as 1876; the most recently established is the Akashi Girls' Normal School Kindergarten, which opened in 1904.

*Curriculum.*

The aims of the Kindergarten attached to the Higher Normal School for Women, Tokyo, are set forth as: the fostering of healthy physical development, the training of the senses, the formation of good habits.

The means used for training in this Kindergarten are games, singing, story-telling, and hand-work. The number of hours daily given to each is three hours for games, and one hour for singing, story-telling, and hand-work combined. The games are described as of two kinds—spontaneous play, and games played in company. The stories are fables and child stories, stories relating to the home, to society, to nature; stories strongly exciting the feeling of terror, and those representing deeds of cruelty, and the success of evil intentions are to be avoided.

The materials for hand activity are balls, blocks (cubes and oblongs), tablets, sticks, rings, string, shells, embroidery on cardboard, paper, peas, and clay. The drawing is to be done at first on slates grooved in squares; when advanced, paper is used. As children take great interest in colour, colour pencils are given for practising; when advanced, simple paints may sometimes be given. Clay modelling is to be done from May to October. Building with the blocks is used through the three classes. Tablet, stick, and ring-laying are also common to all the grades; string-laying is done by the middle grade only; paper cutting, pea work, and clay modelling belong to the middle and higher class; embroidery, paper weaving, and paper entwining to the latter. It is considered most essential to make the children act according to their own ideas and their own imaginative powers.

The other returns give curricula which are about the same—*e.g.*, in a Kindergarten attached to another normal school the programme is: Hand-work six hours, play twelve hours, singing six, language three; in yet another, games and free play occupy twenty hours a week, language three hours, hand-work eight hours, singing three.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten attached to the Women's Higher Normal School, Tokyo, contains three classrooms, a large playroom, and a room in another part of the garden for the "special section" consisting of poor children. There is a spacious playground, with flower beds, a mound, a sand pile, and a merry-go-round. There is the usual equipment of blackboard, pianos, American organ, Kindergarten material, toys, etc.

In another Kindergarten of 240 children there are six classrooms, each for forty children, with twenty dual desks and seats. Two or three of the schedules mention the climbing wistaria in the playground, and the dwarf flowering trees in pots in the schoolroom. Another distinctly Japanese feature are the tea cups and tea pot in all the schools. As one schedule says, under the heading meals, "There is special provision for tea to quench the children's thirst at dinner and whenever they want"; some add "chopsticks" as a part of the meal apparatus.

One schedule says that there is a Japanese resting-room and a bed. Another that there are pillows, blankets, and cushions. In most cases there seems to be some provision of this nature. In the column headed "provision of play" in the one Kindergarten that is described as "philanthropic" in its aims and origin, we read: "Sand hills, ditch without water, six swings, a large pond with about 100 gold fish, red carp, mud turtles, etc., a chicken house, a pigeon house, and a dog, many flower beds, and in the back garden wheat, potatoes, and other things sown by the children and taken care of by them."

This same schedule is the only one that says anything about bathing arrangements—"bathing in a large tank every Saturday." In the Kindergarten for the young children of nobles, "barley tea, a decoction of roasted barley in boiling water," is provided. In the playground attached to the latter is a "sand pile, provided with spades, buckets, bamboo baskets; there is also a see-saw, a bridge, a hill, a garden, a pond." A physical examination is made of each child on its entrance into the Kindergarten of the Higher Normal School, Tokyo. This is in accordance with an ordinance issued by the Japanese Department of Education. Particulars are recorded of age, height, head and bust measurement, eye, ear, and teeth conditions, with a general description of physique.

**(x.)—NORWAY AND SWEDEN.**

The Norwegian primary school course extends from seven to fourteen years of age. The children from seven to ten years of age are said to belong to the Junior classes, as in Sweden.

In Norway the Kindergarten proper does not seem to have taken root. Particulars are given of two in Bergen, but these are for the children of parents in comfortable circumstances. The children are between four and six years, and they attend from 10 to 12.30 daily. They sing for twenty minutes daily,

and for the rest of the time are occupied in such occupations as paper-folding, bast-weaving, cardboard construction, modelling, drawing, sand-work, and simple gymnastics. In fine weather they play in a neighbouring park.

There are Day Nurseries, however, which are open from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. for a fee of 3½d. per week. For this the children obtain a slice of bread and butter on arrival, dinner at 12, and either bread and butter and milk, or porridge and milk, when they leave. Children are admitted from three to nine years of age. They are not taught anything, except perhaps knitting in the case of the older girls. Seven is the age at which children are required to go to school, so those children who are over seven in the Day Nurseries go to the State Elementary School, and return to the nursery for dinner and after school hours. There is one Day Nursery to each parish in Bergen. If parents are too poor to pay, the children are paid for by subscription. There are also crèches for infants below three years of age.

The primary school in Sweden is essentially a Municipal or Communal institution, but it receives a State grant, and is subject to Central Government supervision. The school course begins with the completion of the seventh year, and ends with the completion of the fourteenth year. The first two years are the Infant or Junior course.

The children may go to school at the age of five, but medical opinion in Sweden is distinctly adverse to their reception in a Kindergarten below this age.

Particulars were given of two Kindergartens in Stockholm, one for the children of parents in comfortable circumstances, the other for the children of workmen. The hours of attendance are from 10 to 1, or 9 to 12. It is stated that in the People's Kindergarten, activities in connection with the home are chiefly followed, while in others, the ordinary Kindergarten occupations are more prominent. The aim is also to prepare for the lowest class in the primary school, but more exact definition of what this is, is not given.

#### (xi.)—RUSSIA.

There were two schedules from Russia, and they illustrate the different kinds of private organisation that occur in that country in relation to the education and care of little children.

One gives particulars of the Kindergarten established by the St. Petersburg Froebel Society for the children of poor workmen and servants. The other gives an account of an asylum for the young children of the workers in the Russian American India Rubber Manufactory in St. Petersburg. It was founded in 1882, and is supported entirely by the firm.

#### *Children.*

There are fifty children in the Froebel Society Kindergarten, divided into two classes of twenty-five. In one the children are

from six to seven years of age, and in the other from four to six years. The hours are from 10 a.m. to 3 p.m., with an interval from 1 to 2 p.m.

In the Asylum there are 270 children from three months to nine years. They are arranged in six classes. The lowest or cradle class contains the children from three months to three years, the next, called the "little" class, contains children from three to five; the next two classes contain the children from five to seven, and the two highest those from seven to nine years. The children arrive at 7 a.m., and remain till 6 p.m.

#### *Staff.*

Two teachers, trained at the St. Petersburg Froebel College, have charge of the Kindergarten. The staff at the Asylum consists of a matron, one Froebel Mistress, four assistants, thirteen servants, and in the cradle class girls come in to help who were formerly in the Asylum, and who are now attending the ordinary schools.

#### *Curriculum.*

Apparently there is no formal instruction in either the Kindergarten or Asylum. In the Kindergarten, from 10 to 12 a.m., the programme consists of a story or talk, gymnastics or imitative games, and hand-work connected with the story told; at 12 there is lunch and free play under the supervision of the teachers till 1. From 2 to 3 there is some kind of hand-work. The children bring their lunch, and the school supplies milk gratuitously.

In the Asylum the children are washed when they arrive, and put into clothes belonging to the Asylum. They then have a meal of tea, milk, and white bread. The older classes do cardboard work, make flowers, model with clay, draw from nature, do needlework and carpentry. They work six hours daily, and for the rest of the time they walk or play. They are also read to from books on natural history and geography, and pictures are shown to them during the reading.

The middle sections do Froebelian work, building, plaiting, modelling, drawing, singing. The children in the "little class," children from three to five years, learn to plait and embroider, and play organised games. They sleep after dinner till 2.30, and then play for the rest of the day. All the children dine at noon; the dinner consists of soup, meat, and milk pudding. Twice a day they have tea with a piece of white bread.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

The Kindergarten has two classrooms, and one large play-room, but no garden or playground. In fine weather the children go for a walk and play in the nearest churchyard garden. The Asylum occupies two large houses in St. Petersburg, and

has a very extensive garden, in which the children spend most of the day in summer.

(xii.)—SWITZERLAND.

*General Account.*

Seventeen schedules have been received in answer to the inquiry. Eleven of these relate to Kindergartens in German Switzerland, and six to schools in French Switzerland. Most of the returns do not refer to a specific school, but give general information with regard to the teaching, personnel, curricula, etc., of all the schools for little children in that Canton or Town.

In the French Cantons, as in France, the schools for young children form a regular part of the school system. They are known as the *Écoles Infantines*. German Switzerland follows the German arrangement, where the establishment of Kindergartens is left much to the initiative of private persons, and of private associations. Nevertheless, the Town apparently supports wholly or partially the Kindergartens, either subsidising those which belong to a religious association, or founding new schools altogether. For example, the town of Zurich, which possesses a European reputation for the excellence of its schools, possesses forty-six Kindergarten schools or classes containing 1,742 children between four and seven years, and subsidises nineteen Kindergartens belonging to religious associations. Protestant and Roman Catholic. These private Kindergartens, which contain 948 children, are called by various names, *Klein-Kinderschulen* (schools for little children), *Spielschulen* (play schools), *Kinderbewahranstalten* (child nurseries). Again, Lucerne possesses three Kindergartens which belong to the town, and three which belong to religious bodies and are subsidised by the town. The school fees paid by the children vary, according to the means of the parents, from half a franc monthly to three francs. The Kindergartens belonging to the town in Zurich are free. The Canton of Zurich in 1900 had ninety-four Kindergartens.

The information given refers to 230 schools or classes. None of the individual schools for which there are schedules have more than 120 children; one contains forty-five, another ninety, and so on.

*Children.*

Children of varying social condition attend the schools, though in the schedules from the Canton of Glarus and the town of Basle they are said to be founded for the poor. The average number of children under one teacher varies from fifteen to forty; generally it is above thirty; only in one return do the numbers exceed forty. In the German returns the age limits

are four to six years, though in three schedules three and a-half, three, and two and a-half years are the respective ages of the youngest children. In the French returns the limits are four or five years to six or seven years, in two classes to eight years. The school day is from 9 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 4 p.m., with no afternoon school on Wednesdays and Saturdays.

### Staff.

Most of the returns say definitely that the teachers have had special Kindergarten training, or possess a special diploma for teaching little children. They sometimes have a double qualification, as in the case of the town of La Chaux-de-Fonds, where the teachers in the infant schools possess the Cantonal Certificate for teaching, and also *le brevet Froebelian*.

### Curriculum.

German Switzerland seems to follow the custom of Germany in excluding all formal instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic from the Kindergartens. None of the returns from German Switzerland make mention of these subjects, so that apparently children under six years do not learn to read or write or calculate. The course laid down by the education authority of the town of Zurich is given in the returns. Each Kindergarten in this town is divided into grades of a year's course in each. In the lower (children from four to five years) building with gifts 3 and 4, sand-work, threading beads, making paper chains, embroidery, laying tablets, pea-work, ring laying, simple weaving, and simple stick laying, are all used. In the upper (children from five to six years), building with gifts 5 and 6, sand-work, paper chain making, embroidery, stick-laying, weaving, bead-threading, paper folding, ring laying, cutting and mounting paper, and pea-work, are recommended. Where the occupations are common to the two grades, the constructive processes are more advanced than in the lower grade. In both grades there are recitation and story-telling, and training in language in connection with the daily experience of the children. Games are arranged for, with walks in fine weather.

In German Switzerland the ordering of the time seems to be of a very informal character. The general plan appears to be the alternation of a game, drill, or some movement exercise, with a talk or hand-work. Twenty or twenty-two hours a week are passed in school.

The infant classes and schools in French Switzerland are conducted according to French ideas and customs. Hence reading, writing, and number form an integral part of the course in the *Ecoles Infantines* in French Switzerland.

The following is the programme laid down by the town of Lausanne. The children are five and six years of age, and each school is divided into two grades.

---	Upper Division.	Lower Division.
Object Lessons - - - -	2 lessons weekly	2 lessons weekly.
Recitation and Singing - - -	2 " "	2 " "
Reading and Exercises preparatory to reading - - - -	3 " "	1 " "
Writing - - - -	2 " "	- " "
Number - - - -	3 " "	2 " "
Drawing - - - -	4 " "	5 " "
Froebelian Occupations - - -	6 " "	10 " "
Gymnastic Games - - - -	11 " "	11 " "
	33	33

The lessons are 45 minutes long; the games, half an hour long. From the town of La Chaux-de-Fonds we have the following official weekly programme:—"The teaching is essentially based on observation, the material for which is to be taken from the Kindergarten gifts and occupations, pictures, and, if possible, the object itself which is the subject of the lesson":—

Assembly - - - - -	1½ hours.
Marching - - - - -	1½ "
Games - - - - -	2 "
Recreations - - - - -	1½ "
Moral talks and object-lessons - - - - -	1½ "
Reading according to the phonetic method and language exercises, construction of sentences and their analysis into words, syllables and sounds - - - - -	6 "
Writing, including dictation of letters, syllables, easy words, and short sentences	2½ "
Arithmetic. The four operations as far as 10. Division of whole into halves, quarters, eights; numeration as far as 20. <i>Material for number work.</i> Third and fourth gifts, cubes, rings, sticks, beads, etc. First notions of geometry by means of cubes, tablets, rings, sticks	2½ "
Singing - - - - -	¼ "
Recitation of easy poetry - - - - -	¼ "
Drawing; combination of straight lines on chequered paper - - - - -	1½ "
Manual Occupations.	e
Bead-threading - - - - -	2 "
Paper-weaving - - - - -	2 "
Pricking - - - - -	2 "
Cutting, folding, and mounting - - - - -	1½ "
Embroidery - - - - -	¼ "
Total - - - - -	26 hours.

In the 18 schools in Neuchâtel the following programme is given. In the Upper class, 20 hours of instruction:—

Reading	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	hours.
Written arithmetic	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Arithmetic with objects	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Writing	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Talks	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Embroidery and sewing	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Paper-work	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Weaving	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Bead-threading or pricking	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Singing	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	20	hours.

In the Lower class, 20 hours of instruction:—

Reading	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	hours.
Number	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Writing	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Gifts	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Talks	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Repetition	-	-	-	-	-	-	1½	„
Singing	-	-	-	-	-	-	1½	„
Paper-work	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Embroidery	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	„
Weaving	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Pricking	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Bead-threading or pricking	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Gymnastics	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	„
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	20	hours.

The following time-table is based on this programme:—

Lower Class.

—	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
8-9	Assembly, &c.					
9-10	Sbging Reading	Singing Reading	Singing Reading	Reading Singing	Singing Reading	Talk
10-11	Drawing	Writing Gymnastics	Gifts	Paper- work	Number	Song Gymnastics
2-3	Number	Embroidery	Paper-work	—	Drawing	—
3-4	Pricking	Embroidery	Bead thread- ing or cut- ting	—	Weaving	—

## Upper Class.

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
6-9			Assembly, &c.			
9-10	Moral talk	Drawing	Number with objects	Building or written Arithmetic	Number	Natural History talks.
10-11	Reading	Reading Writing	Reading or Dictation	Reading Knitting	Paper-work	Reading and preparation for Dictation.
2-3	Embroidery or Sewing	Bead-work Number	Weaving	—	Reading	—
3-4	Paper-work	Recitation Singing	Drawing	—	Writing	—

According to the schedules, in French Switzerland reading is not taught to children under five years, except apparently in the case of Neuchâtel, where three hours a week are given. Some number work is done with all the children according to these French returns.

No indication is given in any of the returns as to the correlation of topics in the different activities of the day. Brush-work and painting do not occur in the list of occupations, nor is there any mention of free-arm drawing; on the other hand, embroidery and sometimes pricking are included. Clay-modelling sometimes, but by no means always, occurs. There is no indication that the material for the story is gathered from literary sources.

*Buildings and Equipment.*

Games are included as a matter of course, and there seems to be abundant space. A playroom as well as a workroom is often included in the school building, and an open-air playground, which seems to consist of a garden with trees, seats, and a sand pile, spades and mould. The returns from the individual schools in several cases mention that the children cultivate garden plots, and spades, watering-cans, and other implements are included. The individual returns also give walks in woods and fields in the vicinity as a part of the school programme.

The schoolrooms are generally furnished with tables and low benches, with backs, graduated in size for from two or four to ten children. There is no mention of blackboards or mill-boards for the children's drawing. There is often a goodly list of toys, dolls, balls, skipping-ropes, etc.

Some of the returns mention special bathing arrangements. The schedule from Neuchâtel says the newest schools are equipped with douches, and there is mention here of a doctor for the schools. In La Chaux-de-Fonds, optional douche baths are provided for each child once a fortnight. Some of the returns say that the children bring bread, fruit, or chocolate

(any other sweetmeat is forbidden) for lunch. In La Chaux-de-Fonds free meals in winter are provided at midday for poor children, and bread and milk are given gratuitously to the children who need it.

(xiii.)—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

*General Account.*

Fourteen schedules were received, two of which gave accounts of the whole Kindergarten system of the particular city, and the remaining 12 related to individual Kindergartens. The information thus given seems to illustrate all the leading types of Kindergarten in the States. There is, for example, the Kindergarten (a part of the Chicago University system) attended by the children of the well-to-do and professional classes, who pay £15 annually in fees; and there is the private and proprietary Kindergarten run for private profit. There is at the other end of the social scale the Kindergarten which is the outcome of the philanthropic effort of some free Kindergarten association, or in connection with a social settlement, such as Hull House, Chicago; there is, finally, the Kindergarten which is an integral part of the public school system, supported out of public money, and housed in the ordinary primary school building.

According to the information given in the schedules, there are 100 primary schools in Cleveland, Ohio; 42 of these have Kindergartens attached. These are to be found chiefly in the poorer parts of the city, where foreigners, Germans, Irish, Poles, Hungarians, etc., live. In Brooklyn, New York, there are 22 Kindergartens all following the same plan of organisation, two of which are connected with orphan asylums, two with the Bureau of Charities, two or three belong to institutional churches, two are attached to hospitals, two to social settlements, two consist entirely of coloured children. In most of them several distinct nationalities are represented. All this shows how much the Kindergarten system in the States has been the outcome primarily of charitable effort and initiative. The article quoted below from the U.S. Bureau of Education says that the devotion of some individual woman to the needs of the education of young children, together with the co-operation of an intelligent open-minded superintendent of schools, are the forces to which in the main the public Kindergarten owes its existence.

In 1903-1904 public Kindergartens were established in 353 cities in the States, and there were 2,997 such Kindergartens containing 191,882 pupils.

*Children.*

Whatever may be the special character of the Kindergarten, the children enter at three or four years of age, and stay till

they are six. The numbers in a class in a private Kindergarten are generally 10 or 12; in the public Kindergarten they average from 24 to 30.

"In most places the number of children in each [public] Kindergarten averages from 40 to 50. There are generally two paid teachers, a principal and an assistant. Besides these, there are the students from the training schools. . . . In some places they act as assistants during their second year of study, often giving their services in return for the experience gained. In addition to these, there is, in many of the Kindergartens of our large cities, a nursemaid who is employed . . . to see that the children are clean, and to attend to their physical wants." ("The Kindergarten," by Laura Fisher. Chapter in the Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education for the year 1903. Vol. 1. Washington. Government Printing Office.) The children attend in the public school Kindergartens for two and a half or three hours in the morning, but some returns from Cleveland, Chicago, and Buffalo report in addition an afternoon session of two hours. This afternoon session, however, is attended by a different set of children from those who come in the morning. According to the returns from Buffalo, the afternoon session children are older than those who attend in the morning, and presumably this is not an uncommon arrangement. This seems like an attempt to reconcile economy with consideration for the child's capacities, for it is evident that there is a feeling that waste is involved in leaving the rooms unoccupied every afternoon. At the same time, it is realised that the younger the child the less advisable is it that the afternoon hours shall be those that are given up to directed work and play. The returns from Chicago explain that there is a different staff for the morning and afternoon sessions. Some of the philanthropic Kindergartens—*e.g.*, the Cleveland Louise Day Nursery, keep the children from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m.

### *Staff.*

There are generally two permanent teachers, a head and an assistant; in some of the Kindergartens there are, in addition, students from a local training school (sometimes the Kindergarten itself is an adjunct of such a school), who evidently are there for the purpose of observing methods, and who give some general help.

One of the returns mentions a nursemaid who is paid by the city (Boston), and this evidently is not a unique instance. Again, according to the Boston returns, the teachers evidently visit the children's parents in the afternoon, and mothers' meetings are held apparently from time to time for the purpose of enlisting parental sympathy and co-operation, and guiding the mothers to more enlightened home control of the children. Some of the returns say that teachers have had special Kindergarten training for one or two years, and from other information

we learn that all Kindergarten teachers are trained in the local training schools which are frequently carried on by philanthropic associations.

According to other information supplied, the visiting of parents and the holding of parents' meetings is regarded generally as the regular part of the recognised work of the Kindergarten teachers, and the justification for their short hours. Parents' classes meet weekly, sometimes monthly. Addresses are given at times by medical men, who speak to the mothers on matters connected with the physical care of the children. The mothers are also shown how to use at home the appliances of the Kindergarten, and are made familiar with the songs and stories. "They are often taught simple constructive arts, basketry, clay-modelling, brush-work, and the use of natural materials, and also shown how to use the materials found in every household for artistic and constructive purposes, thus developing home occupations for the children." (Report of the U.S. Commissioner on Education for the year 1903.—*Ibid.*)

#### *Curriculum.*

The daily programme in an ordinary Kindergarten is as follows:—

9 to 9.20.—Opening exercise, singing a hymn, etc.

9.20 to 9.30.—Marching, morning talk, rhythmical movements.

9.30 to 10.—The Froebelian gifts.

10 to 10.15.—Free play.

10.15 to 10.45.—Circle games.

10.45 to 11.—Lunch.

11 to 11.10.—Story.

11.10 to 11.40.—Occupations.

11.40 to 12.—Departure.

"The morning conversation usually turns upon subjects naturally suggested by what the children have observed on their way to the Kindergarten, by the songs chosen, or by some special experience or aspect of the day.

"The gift exercises given daily comprise during the first year the use of the first, second, third, and sometimes the fourth gift, square and circular tablets, large splints used in place of sticks and rings. During the second year, or in the more advanced class, these same gifts are used for more advanced and complex exercises; in addition, triangular tablets, sticks, half-rings, the fifth gift, and sometimes the sixth gift are also introduced.

"The occupations introduced the first year are: Sand, clay, brush-work, preliminary sewing with heavy cord on cards punched with large holes, or winding worsted on cardboard; preliminary weaving with strips of cloth through frames of various kinds or slats woven through heavy cardboard and enamel cloth or linen mats, nature work, sorting exercises,

springing exercises, pasting, cutting, and some simple folding. During the second year, the same occupations are continued in more advanced forms; preliminary weaving and sewing are followed by the regular occupations of this nature; more emphasis is placed upon clay-modelling, less on sand; folding and paper modelling are introduced; systematic brush-work and linear drawing are taken up, and likewise paper-cutting, slat work, and pea-work." (Report of the U.S. Commissioner of Education for 1903.—*Ibid.*)

However the time may be allotted, there is generally a period for the story, one for "gifts," one for the occupations, and the rest of the time is spent in singing, games, etc. Some returns mention gardening, where there are facilities for it. In the returns there is not much indication of the nature work which is so assiduously followed in the States except in that from the School of Education Kindergarten, Chicago, where informal nature study is carried on in connection with walks in the garden, field and park, where materials are obtained. The cultivation of the school garden gives additional opportunity for this branch of instruction.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

There is usually one large room for general exercises and free play, and one smaller one. Sometimes there is only one room, which has to serve for work, free play, and games. In one case there is only one room for 80 children, divided into three groups. When the Kindergarten is in a part of the primary school building, the children share in the school playground. Low tables and chairs seem to be the ordinary equipment, and a sand table.

Bathrooms are annexed to the Kindergartens in the congested districts of Chicago. In this city no meals are provided unless the children are very needy; in that case luncheons of bread and milk are given, but not from public funds. In the Hull House Settlement Kindergarten, three meals are provided—dinner at noon, and a slighter meal at 10 a.m. and 4 p.m.

#### (xiv.)—BRITISH COLONIES.

##### *General.*

Nineteen schedules were received—two from New Zealand, six from New South Wales, and the rest from South Africa—five from Cape Colony, four from Natal, and two from the Transvaal.

The South African returns include one school established for private profit; the remainder were all public schools. Of these there were various types: the High School Kindergarten attended by children of the comfortable classes, where the children's fees are supplemented by a Government grant; the State elementary school of superior grade—*e.g.*, the Model Infant School, Durban; and the ordinary primary infant school,

with a mixture of social classes, including some children described as "poor."

The wide range of age is one of the most noteworthy facts about all these South African infant schools. The minimum age is generally four years, but there are two or three schools with children of three years of age. In all the schools there are children of eight years of age. In the Transvaal and the up-country districts of Cape Colony there are children of nine and ten years of age. The result is that there are children between three and seven years of age, three and six years, four and seven years, and seven and ten years in the same class. According to two or three of the schedules many of the South African children do not attend school till they are seven years of age, while in certain districts many come later and knowing only a little English, and some understand no language but Cape Dutch. Perhaps these circumstances account for such wide disparities of age in single classes. In some of the schools there are evidently representatives of other nationalities than Cape Dutch, South African, and British—*e.g.*, in one school, the Russian, German, Swedish, Spanish, and Greek peoples are all represented.

The returns from New South Wales also represent different types of infant school. There is the private Kindergarten for children of the wealthier classes with no financial aid from the State. The returns say that there are few of these in Australia, though their numbers are increasing. In the second place there is the infant department of the primary school, where no child is taken under four years—and in many cases not under five—the older children being seven or eight. Then there are the free Kindergartens established by philanthropic effort, but receiving as supplementary to voluntary contributions an annual subsidy from the State. The Government grant for the six Kindergartens in Sydney is £500 yearly. These philanthropic Kindergartens exist in other cities besides Sydney.

The returns from New Zealand relate to the infant departments of the primary school. There are no children under five in these schools, and the range of age is five to nine years. One of the New Zealand schedules gives particulars of a free Kindergarten near one of the State infant schools where very young children are prepared to enter the public school at five years of age. Here they are occupied in organised play and occupations from 9.30 to 12 in a "bright, cheerful hall surrounded by a nice garden."

#### *Children.*

The returns from the Colonies give a clearer impression of social well-being than any other set of the schedules examined. Nevertheless, the children attending the free Kindergartens of Sydney and Wellington are spoken of as "poor" and "very poor." The average number in a class given in the New Zealand returns is 50, but in the other public schools the classes

are smaller; in South Africa they seem to vary between 30 and 45. There are two sessions daily in all the schools, except the private and high schools and the free Kindergartens. The morning session is generally two and a half or three hours; the afternoon is an hour and a half.

### *Staff.*

The teachers generally possess a diploma from the particular colony, apparently not specially for infant teaching. In the High School Kindergartens in South Africa more than one of the head mistresses possesses the higher certificate of the National Froebel Union. The teachers in the Sydney Free Kindergartens are trained at the Sydney Kindergarten Training College, and the students from the college are distributed in the morning through the six Kindergartens in the city, thus obtaining teaching experience, and helping in the management of the children.

### *Curriculum.*

With the exception of the free Kindergartens, instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic occurs as a matter of course, and in all the public infant schools scheduled, there are indications of the following of a set course apparently answering to Government requirements. Hence, in one school in South Africa there is a class of children, 25 in number, and varying in age from three to seven years, who have two and a half hours' reading per week, two and a half hours' writing, two and a half hours' number, one hour sewing, half an hour nature-lesson, half hour story, one hour drawing, and no other hand-work. In another school, in New Zealand, in classes where the children are between five and eight, there are 13 reading lessons weekly, nine writing, and eight number, one composition, one singing, one nature-study, one drill, two drawing, one hand-work. It does not appear that there is much opportunity here for self-expression, observation pure and simple, or for speech training.

Hence it seems as if the general procedure more closely resembles that which has obtained up to the present time in the Mother Country and in France, rather than that which is followed in the other European countries dealt with in this report.

The general duration of a lesson is half an hour.

Sometimes in the returns the nomenclature suggests methods which are not altogether consonant with modern views—*e.g.*, "object lesson," "gallery lesson," "Kindergarten" as a subject, "form and colour."

In the Sydney free Kindergartens there is no formal instruction; half an hour is given to the morning talk, when the children "recite any little piece of news or tell what is uppermost in their minds"; there are two table periods of half an hour each for gifts and occupations, and the rest of the time is

spent in singing, games and marching. According to information in the returns, the aim in these Kindergartens is to develop habits of cleanliness, order and kindness, to give opportunity for self-expression and physical activity. The children are not allowed to sit for more than 15 or 30 minutes at a time.

#### *Buildings and Equipment.*

Two or three classes are often taught in a large hall or room. The schools in the newly-acquired districts of South Africa are naturally superior in accommodation and furniture to the older schools. In one account, for example, it is stated that "the school is beautifully equipped with all the very latest improvements; there are Kindergarten tables, and chairs, a continuous blackboard round the walls, filtered water, and pottery washing basins. A garden is to be laid out according to a definite plan in 60 plots for the children's use." The schools owe much to the climate: "There is a nice open space and garden, where in the winter there is always a sunny space to be found; the days are very rare when the children have to play in the assembly hall. The climate makes it possible for much of the work and play in summer and winter to be done out of doors." The account also of a school in Pretoria with whitewashed walls, green shutters, and two large, shady stoeps (verandahs), where it is always cool in the height of summer, and where artificial warmth is only necessary for six or eight weeks in the winter, presents an attractive picture. The charity Kindergartens in Sydney are variously housed—two or three rooms in a cottage, two or three in a warehouse or a mission hall, are examples of how adjustment has been made to circumstances. The old-fashioned gallery still exists in some of the older schools, but chairs and tables or dual desks of the more modern pattern seem general. One of the returns from South Africa mentions that the Kindergarten chairs and tables in that particular school come from America. There is no provision anywhere for bathing or free meals, except in the free Kindergartens of Sydney, where milk and bread and butter are supplied if the children do not bring it. In four of these six Kindergartens there are bath tubs, but pressure is brought upon the mothers to send the children clean.

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## III.—SPECIMEN

COUNTRY: Austria.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Vienna.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Philanthropic.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
320 Number of Classes, 3	Very poor.	Class I. 40  Class II. 70  Class III. 42	Class I. From 5 to 6 years of age.  Class II. From 4 to 5 years.  Class III. From 3 to 4 years.	The school is attached to a training college for Kindergarten teachers, and the principal of the training college is principal also of the school.  There are also 4 Kindergarteners, 1 teacher of singing, 1 nursemaid.  The students of the training college use the school as practising ground.	8.30-12	2-4	12-2 is free and 2 afternoons weekly, Wednesday and Saturday. Hence the children are on the school premises 45 hours weekly.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor" or "very poor."

REMARKS.—There is a similar institution to the above in another very poor part of Vienna and the greater number of children in attendance are provided with meals. In the winter time, boots

## SCHEDULES

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL: Urban.  
DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1843.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Class-rooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Number of hours occupied in organised activity weekly is 26 :</p> <p>Observations lessons.</p> <p>Memory exercises.</p> <p>Singing.</p> <p>Story-telling.</p> <p>Games :</p> <p>Arm, hand, and finger plays.</p> <p>Marching.</p> <p>Ball play.</p> <p>Circle games.</p> <p>Froebelian occupations :</p> <p>Building.</p> <p>Paper-folding.</p> <p>Stick, tablet, and seed laying.</p> <p>Embroidery.</p> <p>Weaving.</p> <p>Making paper chains.</p> <p>Drawing.</p> <p>Cutting out paper.</p> <p>Clay modelling.</p>	<p>1 class-room serving also as dining-room, 54 square metres in area.</p> <p>1 large class-room, half of which is used for work and half for playing Kindergarten games.</p>	<p>Benches seating 5, blackboards, teachers' tables, washstands, cupboards, pictures for lesson-giving.</p>	<p>1 play-room with seats all round the walls.</p> <p>A large garden, 1,350 square metres in area and with a yard.</p> <p>During the fine weather the Kindergarten games are played here.</p>	

like it supported by the Jewish Community. There are 135 children attending this other school and clothes are also provided.

COUNTRY: France.

NAME: \_\_\_\_\_

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: \_\_\_\_\_  
by the State and the C \_\_\_\_\_

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	or Mo		
Number in School.	Character of Home.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	M.	12	2½
209 on the books.  156 present.  Number of Classes. 4	Poor working class.	1st Class. 38  2nd Class. 39  3rd Class. 47  4th Class. 32	1st Class. 6 yrs. to 5 yrs.  2nd Class. 6 yrs. to 5 yrs.  3rd Class. 5 yrs. to 2 yrs.  4th Class. 4½ yrs. to 2 yrs.	Head Mistress and 4 Assistants.  Head Mistress has the special certifi- cate necessary for the headship of the State Infant Schools.  Two Assistants are trained, and have the Higher Certificate (Brevet Supérieur) and the professional diploma (Certificat d'apti- tude pédagogique).  The other two have the elemen- tary certificate (Brevet élémentaire) and the professional diploma.	2½ hrs.  Children arrive at 7 a.m. in the summer, and 8 a.m. in the winter.  Morning Classes from 9 till half- past 11.  Mid-day meal and recrea- tion between 11.30 and 1.30.		Aftern. lessons from 1.30 till 4, with interval of ½ hr. for play at 2.30.  Children whose parents work from home can stay till 6 p.m. in the winter and 7 p.m. in the summer.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.  
DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : February 1st, 1897.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p><b>SECTION I.—Children from 5 to 6 years.</b></p> <p>Reading - - 1 hr. 40 min. weekly. Writing - - - " " " " Singing - - 30 min. weekly.</p> <p>The children sing and march between each lesson.</p> <p>Object lessons, language exercises and moral instruction talks - - 1 hr. 40 min. weekly. Number - - - 15 min. " " Drawing - - 1 hr. 40 min. " " Handwork - - 2 hr. " " Organised play 1 hr. 40 min. " " Recitation - - 30 min. " "</p> <p><b>SECTION II.—Children from 2 to 5 years.</b></p> <p>Little talks with children - - 1 hr. 30 min. weekly. Handwork - - 4 hr. 30 min. " " Story lessons; object lessons - - 30 min. " " Language lessons - - 30 min. " " Recitation - - 30 min. " " Organised play 1 hr. 30 min. " " Drawing with sticks, rings, &amp;c. - - 1 hr. " "</p> <p>In Section I., 1 hr. 25 min. are given daily to instruction, 35 min. to handwork, the rest of the time is occupied in physical exercises, arrival, departure, &amp;c.</p> <p>In Section II., 45 min. are given daily to instruction, and 1 hr. to handwork.</p>	<p>4 Class-rooms:—2 on the ground floor, 2 on the storey above the ground floor. 3 are well lighted. They measure respectively— 227 cubic met. 227 " " 315 " " 168 " "</p> <p>Accommodating respectively—46, 49, 70 and 32 children.</p> <p>The covered playground (<i>préau</i>) is 193 sq. metres in area, and is used for meals, play, gymnastic exercises, and for the children who remain after school.</p>	<p>Dual seats graduated to the size of the children.</p> <p>Teacher's desk in each class-room, teacher's black-board against the wall. A large cupboard for apparatus for lessons and play. Pictures on the walls, which are easily taken down and passed from one room to another.</p> <p>Each child has a little bag containing his own books, &amp;c., which hangs from his own desk. This is to avoid danger from infection.</p>	<p>There is a large tree-planted playground, with asphalt pavement. In fine weather the lessons, especially the handwork, are given here. It is used also for marching, ball games, balance exercises, &amp;c. In the bad weather the children play in the class-rooms or covered court (<i>préau</i>).</p> <p>The children make their own balls and other playthings. The more elaborate ones possessed by the school are kept for the Thursday classes.</p>	<p>There are two small baths, not large enough for the child to sit down in. In these, children are washed who are neglected at home or who soil themselves accidentally.</p> <p>There are 6 basins in the lavatory. Here the children are washed on arriving in the morning if they are not quite clean and they pass here both before and after the mid-day meal.</p> <p>Meals are furnished at a cost of 1d. to each child.</p> <p>Eggs are not provided, but soup, meat (roast, stewed), purées, milk foods, &amp;c. The children can have as much as they like.</p> <p>Meals are served under the supervision of the head mistress.</p> <p>The expense and administration of the school meals are arranged for by means of the <i>Caisse des Ecoles</i>.</p> <p>The children have opportunity for rest in the recreation times and during the directed games.</p>

COUNTRY: Prussia.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Berlin.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Private; with a subsidy from the City Funds.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
About 310 Number of Classes. 2 Primary Classes, 1 Intermediate. In the Kindergarten the children are divided into about 12 family groups.	From "Comfortable" to "very poor."* School fees according to means, from 50 pfennigs to 3 marks monthly.	25 in Primary and Intermediate Classes, 10-15 in the Kindergarten family groups.	Primary Classes, 6-8 years. Intermediate Classes, 5-6 years. Children in Kindergarten, Family groups varying from 3-6 years.	Each division has a well-educated lady as mistress, and in some cases a qualified assistant. In addition, 150 students from a Seminary practise in the school under the supervision of the regular teachers.	9-12	2-4	2 half holidays weekly (Wednesday and Saturday afternoons).

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS.—The above school is only a part of an organisation which includes other branches for training in domestic activities, a crèche, etc. The object in all these is to keep the full account of the daily routine in the Kindergarten in the limited space allotted.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1873.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Length of lessons varies from 50 minutes to 20 minutes according to the age of the children. The younger the children the more time do they have for games, free activities, and for recreation.</p> <p>Primary Classes:—About 20 hours weekly. Religious teaching, reading, writing, arithmetic, geometry, lessons about the home and locality, Froebelian occupations, work in the garden, drill, singing.</p> <p>Intermediate Classes:—About 18 hours weekly. Froebelian occupations, domestic activities, work in the garden, drill, games, singing.</p> <p>Kindergarten Classes:—Free play, house activities, work in the garden, Froebelian occupations, singing, games.</p>	<p>2 Classrooms for Primary Classes, 1 for Intermediate, 5 for Kindergarten classes, a playroom and court. The large rooms have 2 windows and are about 5 by 7 by 3½ metres in size. The Kindergarten rooms are half as large. Two other Kindergarten rooms in private houses are not quite so spacious.</p>	<p>Simple and strong. Easy to clean, and for the children as far as possible to handle themselves.</p>	<p>A large play-room 9 by 18 metres. A garden sand-pile. Play-things.</p>	<p>There is a bathroom in the house, but only a limited number of the children are bathed. Provision for ordinary washing in each room. The children have milk in the morning and a mid-day meal is provided at a cost of 10 pfennigs (a penny) each. After this meal the children go to sleep.</p>

and is designed to serve as a training school for Kindergarten teachers. It also includes an institution of life as far as possible. Hence it has been very difficult to give an adequate

COUNTRY: Holland.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Municipal.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
210-220 Number of Classes. 8	Majority belong to lower middle class; some are poor.	30	Class I. 7 to 6 years. Class II. 7 to 5 years. Class III. 6 to 5 years. Class IV. 5 to 4 years. Class V. 5 to 4 years. Class VI. 4 years. Class VII. 4 to 3 years. Class VIII. 4 to 3 years.  The school is worked in four sections, each consisting of 2 parallel classes.	8 fully qualified teachers and 4 in process of becoming so.	8½-12	1½-4	Home days every Saturday afternoon. 6 weeks vacation during the year.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: The Hague.  
 URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL: Urban.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES:																																																																																																																																																																																																							
	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.																																																																																																																																																																																																				
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>THE CURRICULUM.</b></p> <p>(a) Games intended primarily to further bodily development.                      (b) Observation lessons and construction work in clay and paper intended to further mental development.                      (c) Froebelian gifts and occupations.                      (d) Counting; number.                      (e) Story-telling.                      (f) Singing.                      (g) Drawing.</p> <p>In summer the greater part of the time is spent in the garden in play.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>TIME-TABLE IN THE WINTER</b></p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>CLASSES 7 AND 8.</b></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>M.</th> <th>Tu.</th> <th>W.</th> <th>Th.</th> <th>F.</th> <th>S.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>9<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>g+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>g</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10-10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>b</td> <td>e</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-11</td> <td>f</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>b</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>11-11<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>c+i</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-3</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>3-3<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td></td> <td>a</td> <td>f</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>CLASSES 5 AND 6.</b></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>M.</th> <th>Tu.</th> <th>W.</th> <th>Th.</th> <th>F.</th> <th>S.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>9<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-10</td> <td>a</td> <td>g</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>b</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10-10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>f</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>e</td> <td>a</td> <td>f</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-11</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>c+i</td> </tr> <tr> <td>11-11<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>e</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-3</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3-3<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>c</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>CLASSES 3 AND 4.</b></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>M.</th> <th>Tu.</th> <th>W.</th> <th>Th.</th> <th>F.</th> <th>S.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>9<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-10</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>b+c</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10-10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>c</td> <td>f</td> <td>b+c</td> <td>e</td> <td>b</td> <td>f</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-11</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>11-11<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>c</td> <td>c</td> <td>g</td> <td>Paper work</td> <td>c</td> <td>c</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-3</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>g</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3-3<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>b+c</td> <td>a</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>CLASSES 1 AND 2.</b></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>M.</th> <th>Tu.</th> <th>W.</th> <th>Th.</th> <th>F.</th> <th>S.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>9<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-10</td> <td>b+c</td> <td>d</td> <td>e</td> <td>f</td> <td>g</td> <td>c+i</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10-10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-11</td> <td>g</td> <td>f</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>c</td> <td>b</td> <td>e</td> </tr> <tr> <td>11-11<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>g</td> <td>a</td> <td>c+b</td> <td>a</td> <td>f</td> <td>a</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>-3</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td>g</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>3-3<math>\frac{1}{2}</math></td> <td>a</td> <td>h</td> <td>a</td> <td>c</td> <td>a</td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		M.	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The newer ones are built more in accordance with present day demands. All the rooms have large windows which admit sufficient light and air.</p>	<p>In the four classrooms there are benches which will each seat three children. There are cupboards with teaching material in each room, a cupboard for the teacher's clothes, a large and a small table, teachers chairs, stove, pictures.</p>	<p>Two play-rooms with low seats round the walls, and a cupboard with toys. There is a playground planted with fine shady trees. Part of it is formed into garden plots for the children and they plant and water and care for the gardens themselves. The rest is covered with gravel, renewed every year and here there are low benches for the children.</p>	<p>There are wash basins but no bathroom. The children have a mid-day meal in the play-room where there are low tables and benches. Afterwards they play in the garden or in another playground.</p>
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*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY: Holland.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Rotterdam.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon	Recreation.
240 Number of Classes, 6.	Rather comfortable, not poor.	42	3 to 6 years.	1 lady principal. 6 teachers with certificate. 6 apprentices.	9 to 12	2 to 4	1 hour per day for children aged 5 and 6. 1½ hour per day for children aged 3 and 4. ½ hour at a time.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," "very poor."

REMARKS.—Rotterdam has 39 municipal infant schools, instituted by the Town Council, schools. Seven of the Municipal Schools follow the "Leyden method" (which is the one described each their own institute for training Froebel teachers. The two methods are different. The fatigues them more. Children are given elementary notions of number, at the age of 4½, by "Leyden method" begins to teach counting with small groups of 3, 4 and 5, quantities easily of 10, according to our usual notation. The "Leyden method" begins preliminary exercises in method" makes children of 3 observe the different letters and the accentuation. The for its observation lessons, but it takes advantage of every possible opportunity to make the rather than the word is a favourite means of instruction according to the "Leyden method"; (beans, carrots, etc.). The "Rotterdam method" on the other hand confines itself to pictures

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL: Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1890.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Subjects, and Number of Lessons in Week in each Subject, the respective Classes.</p> <p>Each lesson lasts <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hour. There are 8, 13 or 15 lessons a week in Froebel's "Gifts," according to age, the younger children having 15 lessons. The eldest children have 2 <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week in elementary arithmetic on experimental methods. Of other Froebel work they have different kinds of paper work, modelling once or twice a week, drawing <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hour daily, singing <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week, story-telling <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> hours a week. Recitation, preliminary exercises in reading, pronunciation, development of the hearing, analysis of words, etc., connected with drawing series of pictures for the sake of giving expression to ideas. (Compositions in pictures).</p>	<p>1 playground, 3 classrooms, 2 classes in each school-room. The new schools are provided with 2 play-rooms, and 6 classrooms. This is a school of the old type.</p>	<p>In the play-room low benches. In each class-room 12 benches for 7 children each, 2 blackboards, tables and chairs, cupboards, stove, etc.</p>	<p>1 playroom, with plenty of toys, covered playground, large garden.</p>	<p>1 lavatory.</p>

of which 30 are for the very poor and 9 for the well-to-do children. There are also 37 private here); the 82 other schools follow the "Rotterdam method." Leyden and Rotterdam have "Rotterdam method" is more that of lecturing to the children, and consequently the "Leyden method"; this is done at the age of 3 by the "Rotterdam method." The is inspired by the children. The "Rotterdam method" takes the child at once as far as group reading, pronunciation and the phonetic analysis of sounds at the age of 5; the "Rotterdam Leyden method" never confines itself to a single object, whether a picture or a real thing, the ones good observers, especially by means of drawing and modelling. The deed, the action garden-work is done, sowing, tending the young plants, gathering and eating the produce and instruction by the teacher.

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY : Holland.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT : Leyden.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class,	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers, with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
350	$\frac{2}{3}$ are poor	50	3 -3 $\frac{1}{2}$ 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ -4 4 -4 $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ -5 5 -5 $\frac{1}{2}$ 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -6	Lady principal and 3 teachers.  6 student teachers	9-12	2-4	12-2
Number of Classes. 6	$\frac{1}{3}$ are very poor.						

\* NOTE.—State : " Comfortable," " poor," or " very poor."

REMARKS.—Leyden has three schools like this one, instituted by the Town Council. Leyden also many private schools.

*Particulars of School in Leyden.*

263

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL : Municipal School.

URBAN OR RURAL SCHOOL : Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT : 1869.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.
<p>AGE 3-4.</p> <p>Half of the time per week is given to play.</p> <p>5 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>1 " Drawing.</p> <p>1½ " Modelling (clay).</p> <p>1½ " Singing.</p> <p>1 " Recitation.</p> <p>1 " Story telling with pictures.</p> <p>AGE 4-5.</p> <p>½ of the time is given to play.</p> <p>4 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>2 " Story telling with pictures.</p> <p>1 " Recitation.</p> <p>2 " Singing.</p> <p>3 " Drawing.</p> <p>1 " Modelling.</p> <p>3 " Paper work.</p> <p>1 " Other Froebel work.</p> <p>AGE 5-6.</p> <p>¼ of the time is given to play.</p> <p>2 hours to Froebel's Gifts.</p> <p>2 " Pronunciation and phonetic exercises.</p> <p>1 " Calculating with small numbers.</p> <p>" Drawing.</p> <p>" Modelling.</p> <p>" Singing, reading notes, etc.</p> <p>" Recitation.</p> <p>" Paper work.</p> <p>" Other Froebel work.</p> <p>" Story telling.</p>	<p>4 classrooms</p>	<p>16 forms in each classroom, each form for 3 children.</p> <p>Blackboard tables, chairs, stoves, gas-burners, etc.</p>	<p>2 playrooms, one with a piano. Garden with little gardens for each child.</p>	<p>Two lavatories, each with six basins, etc., towels.</p> <p>Bathing not provided for; not necessary.</p> <p>Meals are taken in the play-rooms during the recreation, after which the children are allowed to play in the garden, etc. Some children go home to meals.</p>

a small town of 50,000 inhabitants, with many factories, and a poor population. There are

## Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.

COUNTRY: Switzerland.

STATE, PHILANTHROPIC OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: Philanthropic.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
95 Number of Classes, 2	All grades. Some are quite poor and are received without payment. Others pay according to means, from 50 pfennigs to 2 francs monthly.	The school is worked in 2 sections. One contains the older children divided into 3 groups of 15 to 17 children each. The other section contains the rest of the children.	Section I., 5 to 6 years. Section II., 3½ to 5 years.	2 Kindergarten teachers who were trained in the Kindergarten Normal School of St. Gallen and who passed the examination held at the end of the year's training.	8 to 11	1 to 4	Recreation time is from 8 to 9 in the morning and 1 to 2 in the afternoon.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," "very poor."

REMARKS.—This school owes its foundation to a legacy. Private contributions and gifts from the town educational funds.

*Particulars of School in Frauenfeld.*

265

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: Frauenfeld.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1889.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>The curriculum consists of the Froebelian games and occupations. Daily the occupations, gymnastics, and play alternate with each other, each Kindergarten being responsible for her own time-table. In summer many walks are taken in the woods and fields. Each pupil has a small garden plot, care and culture of which is entrusted to the child himself.</p>	<p>Each Kindergarten has a room to herself.</p> <p>There is a circular play-room which is used in turn by each.</p> <p>The rooms are all lofty, spacious, airy, light, and well heated.</p> <p>The floors are swept from time to time to keep the air free from dust.</p>	<p>The class rooms are furnished with 10 small tables and benches for the children.</p> <p>In addition to these there are the teacher's table and chair, black-board, 3 cup-boards, a stove; there are also pictures for the observation lessons on the walls.</p> <p>The pegs for the children's hats and coats are in the corridor.</p>	<p>There is a play-room with low benches round the walls. There are toys, such as dolls, balls, dolls' houses, toy carts and carriages, etc. These are used by the children in turn in their free play.</p> <p>In the garden there is a large sand heap, and every child has a wooden spade and a mould for sand modelling.</p>	<p>Ordinary nursery provision for washing. The children bring their own supplies for the 9 o'clock lunch (bread, fruit, and chocolate). No other sweets are allowed.</p>

together with the children's fees aid in its support. The teachers' salaries, etc., are paid out of

*Result of the Froebel Society's Inquiry.*

COUNTRY: United States.

NAME OF TOWN OR DISTRICT: CH

NAME OF SCHOOL OR INSTITUTION: Kindergarten in the Chicago Uni<sup>c</sup>.  
of Education.

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes. *	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.		LENGTH		Recreation.
				Morning.	Afternoon.		
25 to 30 Number of Classes, Varies from 3 to 5	Comfortable.	10	6 to 3	2 to 6.  1 head teacher who conducts critic classes among the normal students as well as directs work of the Kindergarten.  1 trained assistant.  From 1 to 5 students who are doing observation and practice work.	9 to 12. in September and October 9 to 11.30	—	10 min.

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS.—Our Kindergarten is the "demonstration" Kindergarten for a large normal our circumstances make it necessary to have more in order to afford them sufficient teaching

PHILANTHROPIC, OR PRIVATE SCHOOL: University of Chicago.

DJR RURAL: Urban.

DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT: 1901.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p><b>T</b>                      F This is impossible to answer categorically. The children have building, modelling, drawing, painting, and construction in stiff paper, and work at the sand table, some designing in coloured paper, sticks, tablets, etc.</p> <p>Their nature study is very informal. The number work is all in connection with their games and that needed in building and designing.</p> <p>Gardening</p> <p>Care of doves.</p> <p>Care of room (arranging chairs, rugs, tables, materials, etc.)</p> <p>Children have 2 work periods daily of 25 minutes each. The rest of the time given to singing, story-telling, games, rest, etc.</p>	<p>3: 1 large room for general exercises and play.</p> <p>1 small room with gas stove and running water.</p> <p>1 room with sand table, &amp;c</p>	<p>Large low tables.</p> <p>3 sizes of chairs with comfortable backs.</p>	<p>Balls, slide, plenty of skipping, dancing, and running games.</p> <p>Many outdoor walks and runs in garden, field, and park, excursions to get nature material, gardening, etc.</p>	<p>Luncheon of a Graham cracker or whole wheat dry biscuit.</p> <p>Recess time at about 10.30 a.m.</p> <p>Children need no bathing.</p>

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raining class for Kindergartners. We would not wish more than 3 teachers to 30 children, but together.

A RURAL SCHOOL IN THE NORTH

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.			
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers, with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation	
120 Number of Classes.	(Whole School.) 65 comfortable, 33 poor, 22 very poor.	38	7½-5½	2 [Head Mistress Board of Education Certificate, and Ex-Pupil Teacher.]	9 to 12	1-30 to 3-40	20 mins. per day.	
			I.					30 " " "
			II.	38	yr. yr. mth. 6-4 8	1 [Assistant. Supplementary (No qualification pre- vious to engage- ment here).]	9-12	1-30 to 3-40
III.		44	5-3	2 [Assistant. Supplementary (No qualification pre- vious to engage- ment here). Mistress 14 years old helps half days.]	9-12	1-30 to 3-40	Resting or Free Play - 30 mins. per day. Recreation - 30 " " " (In fine weather babies are taken out into the playground.)	

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS (by the Head Teacher).—Ten years ago I determined to banish all school work in every possible way—often in the face of determined opposition—to conduct it as a 2nd, to assist natural development; and 3rd, to eliminate all trace of repression. I was and they acquire the habit of "feeling happy" while in the babies' room. In the two highest the change. But by the time they are 8 years of age they accomplish more and better self-reliant than before. I am pleased to say that during the last two years I have had encon- employment of a Temporary Additional Teacher. This will enable me to take another step children aged 4 to 6; and a Transition Class for children aged 6 to 7.

ENGLAND IN A MANUFACTURING VILLAGE.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.				
	Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
	Class I.    Class II.	1 light airy classroom, S.W. aspect. Desk room for 36 children. Separate seats.	Six desks, flat tops. Separate seat for each child, Teacher's desk and chair. Trestle table for object lessons. Two cupboards. Swing see-saw. Four loose forms.	Spare floor space 21 x 9 feet. See-saw plank, chair swing, skipping ropes, and toy reins, supplied by managers.	Bathing. — None. Washing. — Two lavatory basins; clean towels twice weekly. Meals. — Taken on dual desks in classroom. Rest. — Sleepy children are laid on table or cupboard top, and given a pillow, over which is spread a clean duster. All children are at times made to lie down on the floor, shut their eyes, and pretend to go to sleep for 10 or 15 minutes.
Oral Composition and Reading	6    5				
Writing and Printing	6    5				
Story, Picture, Conversational, and Observation Lessons.	5    6				
Number	5    5				
Drawing	6    5				
Modelling in Clay	2    2				
Other occupations	5    5				
Kindergarten Games	} 20    20				
Free Play					
Maypole Exercises - Recreative Exercises - Singing, Recitations, and Entertainment by children.					
Citizenship	6    6				
School Walk	1    1				
Religious Instruction	5    5				
<b>CLASS III.—BABIES.</b>	Per week.	1 light airy classroom with fire place, but northern aspect, consequently no sunshine.	Dual desks arranged round room close to the walls to leave floor space free. Six little chairs, four loose forms with back rests. Sand tank, spades, and buckets, dolls, and other toys, <i>ad lib.</i> Three cupboards, rocking horse. Chair swing.	Spare floor space 24 x 15 feet. Cork carpet laid in centre of floor, where younger children play with bricks, crawl or roll about. Rocking horse, chair swing, balls, dolls, and toys, which are constantly in use.	
Varied occupations—Gift I., Sandwork, Shell and Stick Laying, Bead Threading, Ball Making.	28				
Matching and Sorting	7				
Free Drawing	7				
Games and Singing	10				
Games and Fairy Tales	3				
Games and Nursery Rhymes	3				
Free Play	10				
Resting	5				
Talks about Toys or Objects	2				
Number Plays	5				
Religious Instruction	5				

from my babies' room, and re-organize it on common-sense lines. Since then I have striven Organized Nursery, my aims being:—1st, To make the children happy and comfortable; fully convinced that the change is of infinite benefit, for the children are stronger physically classes of the Infants' School they learn to read and write, though not so perfectly as before school work than formerly, and the teachers say that they are much more intelligent and agement from the Managers, by the granting of extra apparatus, and quite recently by the towards the realization of my ideal—viz., a Nursery for children aged 3 and 4; a Kindergarten for

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
730	Poor. Parents very temperate and take great care of children.	43	Grade I. 3-5 years (very few 5 years). Grade II. 4½-6 years. Grade III. 5½-7½ years (very few 7½ years). Standard I. 6½-8 years (very few 8 years).	1 head teacher. 14 assistants (with elementary teacher's certificate). 1 assistant (with the Higher Froebel certificate). 1 assistant teacher (passed K.S. examination). 3 supplementary teachers. 4 pupil teachers. Total (exclusive of pupil teachers) 20.	3 hrs.	2 hrs.	15 min each session 2 hrs. middle of day.
Number of Classes.							
1 } Grade I.							
2 }							
3 }							
4 } Grade II.							
5 }							
6 }							
7 }							
8 }							
9 } Grade III.							
10 }							
11 }							
12 }							
13 }							
14 } Standard I.							
15 }							
16 }							
17 }							

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor" or "very poor."

REMARKS.—The school work is centred around the Observation Lessons. Each year a list of these is preparation lessons for the coming month: (2) Stories in connection; (3) Poems, songs and games in connection. Books according to the requirements of her class.

THE SOUTH OF ENGLAND.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
Subjects, and Number of Lessons per Week in each Subject, in the respective Classes.	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p><b>GRADE I.</b> Only occupations, such as clay modelling, drawing with chalk, drawing in sand, building, threading large beads. The work periods are of 15 mins. each and are separated by like periods of song, game, marching and story.</p> <p><b>GRADE II.</b> 3 hrs. per week :— Reading, writing and number. Occupations, 5 hrs. per week :— 1. Drawing with chalk on paper. 2. Clay modelling. 3. Building. 4. Stick-laying, tablet laying. 5. Mat-weaving (1 in. wide strips only used).</p> <p>6 hrs. 10 mins. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 1 hr. 40 mins. :— Environment talks. Observation and nature lessons stories.</p> <p><b>GRADE III.</b> 5 hrs. 50 mins. :— Reading, writing, number. Occupations, 4 hrs. 35 mins. :— 1. Drawing with chalk or crayons. 2. Brush drawing of simple natural forms. 3. Clay modelling. 4. Building. 5. Paper folding, tearing and cutting. 6. Free paper tearing and cutting.</p> <p>Occupations, 5 hrs. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 2 hrs. :— Environment talks. Observation, stories, and nature lessons.</p> <p><b>STANDARD I.</b> 7 hrs. 35 mins. :— Reading, writing, number. Occupations, 3 hrs. 30 mins. :— Drawing with chalk and crayon. Brush drawing. Paper folding, tearing and cutting. Girls—Simplest sewing. Boys—Experimental class in wood-work. Practical geometry. Occupations, 6 hrs. :— Physical drill. Games, songs, poems. Occupations, 2 hrs. 30 mins. :— Stories, environment talk. Observation lesson. Religious instructions from 9-9.40 a.m.</p>	<p>14 rooms, well ventilated, well heated, mostly bright and cheerful. 4 very noisy owing to proximity to a busy street.</p> <p>5 rooms on ground floor, 9 rooms on 1st floor.</p>	<p><b>Grade I.</b> Small tables and chairs, very light and quickly moved leaving floor space for games.</p> <p><b>Other classes</b> —dual desks cannot be moved, but most rooms have fair amount of floor space in front of class for games and drill.</p>	<p>One covered playground allowing about 130 children to play comfortably.</p> <p>One open playground allowing 100 to play comfortably.</p> <p>Underground play accommodates 120 children.</p> <p>Ground floor and 1st floor have separate playtimes.</p>	<p>None. Latrines modern and adequate to numbers.</p>

Each month, every teacher receives a connection scheme from the head-teacher. This gives (1) Notes on one observation for teacher's use. The scheme is not given in detail. Each teacher works out her own scheme in detail

CHILDREN.				STAFF.	LENGTH OF SESSIONS.		
Number in School.	Character of Homes.*	Average Number in each Class.	Age of Eldest and Youngest Child in each Class.	Number of Teachers with Qualifications of each.	Morning.	Afternoon.	Recreation.
200-250 Number of Classes. 7	Poor and very poor.	30 to 35.	At beginning of year, Sept. 1, 1907.	2 trained certificated mistresses. 2 Kindergarden mistresses. 1 certificated mistress. 3 uncertificated mistresses.	—	—	Play often attended in fine weather. Games played outside.
Class IV. Babies.		From 20 at beginning of year to 45 at end.	3 years to 3 years 7 months.	1 Kindergarden mistress (Higher Froebel certificate) just left college.	3 hours.	2 hours.	50 minutes.
Class III.		about 40	3 years 8 months to 4 years 8 months.	1 uncertificated mistress.	"	"	30 minutes.
Class II.		55	4 years 8 months to 5 years 10 months.	1 trained certificated mistress. 1 uncertificated with local Kindergarten certificate.	"	"	"
Class I. A.		32	5 years 6 months to 6 years 9 months.	1 trained certificated mistress with Froebel certificate.	"	"	"
Class I. B.		18	5 years 6 months to 7 years.	1 certificated mistress with local Kindergarten certificate.	"	"	"
St. I. A.		34	6 years 6 months to 7 years 8 months.	1 trained Kindergarten mistress (Higher Froebel certificate).	"	"	"
St. I. B.		21	6 years 1 month to 7 years 8 months.	1 ex-pupil teacher spent her pupil teachership here.	"	"	"

\* NOTE.—State: "Comfortable," "poor," or "very poor."

REMARKS (By the Head Teacher).—The whole of the work here is based on Froebel's round which all the other subjects are grouped, and with which they are interwoven of attainments. In giving the ages above, I have excluded four exceptional children, one the winter—just eight, and one new admission the same age. I do not care to have children. The central hall is being used all day for singing, games, drill, blackboard work by one ever classroom happens to be vacant. Reading is taught on the phonic method and exceptions gradually incorporated. Arithmetic. No needlework is taken with children under Standard I. age, the extra time is given to Scripture stories, or repetition, or hymns, are taken every day after assembly, and prayers. Drawing takes the place of writing till children are five years of age. No children under

IN WALES.

CURRICULUM.	CHARACTER OF PREMISES.			
	Number and Character of Classrooms.	Furniture and Equipment.	Provision for Play.	Provision for Bathing, Washing, Meals and Rest.
<p>Walks, gardening, play in the sand are not included among subjects, as they vary with the seasons and the weather. Lessons vary very much in length, 10 to 30 minutes according to age of children and subject taught.</p> <p>Babies devote all their time to singing, games, finger plays, gift plays, suitable Kindergarten occupations—play in the sand beach, picture and object talks, language lessons, and free time. No three R.'s.</p> <p>Similar to class above, except that 1 lesson a day in sounds—Miss Dale's method—and 1 in number plays and pictures is given. No writing.</p> <p>Five lessons per week in reading and number and 4 nature lessons; 2 stories, 2 writing, 5 games and drawing; 3 singing, 2 recitation, 3 picture talks, 8 expression lessons, 2 free times.</p> <p>Five lessons in reading, writing, arithmetic, 7 expression lessons, 3 singing, 3 games, 2 blackboard drawing, 2 stories, 4 nature lessons, 2 drill, 2 word building, 2 recitation, 1 free time (Friday afternoon).</p> <p>Five lessons in reading, writing, arithmetic, 5 expression lessons, 2 word building, 2 blackboard drawing, 2 games, 3 drill, 2 recitation, 3 singing, 1 story, 1 geography, 1 history, 2 nature lessons. <i>Girls</i>, 1 sewing, 1 knitting. <i>Boys</i>, 1 sepia sketches, 1 flat wash work.</p>	<p>Central Hall, 42 by 26 ft.; height, 16 ft. 5 Classrooms, 24½ by 20½ ft.; height, 14 ft.</p> <p>Classrooms are arranged on three sides of Central Hall. Each one very light and airy. Lighting from the left except in Baby Room; there from the right. Blackboards for free-arm work all round the hall. Two rings painted on floor for games. Piano.</p>	<p>—</p> <p>20 dual desks, large swing toys, all usual Kindergarten apparatus. Dove in cage.</p> <p>25 dual desks, muraline round walls for free-arm work.</p> <p>25 dual desks, muraline also round walls.</p> <p>25 dual desks.</p> <p>Suitably equipped.</p> <p>30 dual desks.</p> <p>Suitably equipped.</p>	<p>Hall used for games by every class; also for marching, and free play on a wet day.</p> <p>Small sand beach. Large flat playground. Children's garden. Small covered play shed. Also large field attached where children play in summer.</p>	<p>There are no baths, but 5 washing basins in lobbies with soap and towels. Children all go home to dinner except in rare cases on a wet day. There are no beds or hammocks.</p>

principles. Nature study is the basis subject, providing the central idea for each week's work, *Classification* is not so much on the age basis as on intelligence exhibited and the standard suffering from arrested development, one consumptive, one who is only staying down through here as a rule when they are over 8½ years.

The lower division of Standard I. being a migratory one and using which—  
 During *free time* the children do whatever they choose individually, keeping to their own make just what they please. Babies get free time twice every day.

metic on a concrete basis with apparatus.  
 brushwork, etc.

till 9.30.

five admitted unless physically fit. Eyesight of children over six tested.

## APPENDIX A.

NEW SOUTH WALES : INFANT SCHOOLS AND KINDERGARTENS UNDER THE  
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The Public Schools of the Department of Public Instruction in New South Wales provide for the education of more than 80 per cent. of the children of school age within the State.

Of the pupils enrolled at the end of 1906 there were 26,332 under the age of seven years. This number represented about 12·7 per cent. of the total enrolment.

There are but half a dozen purely Kindergarten Schools, but in all Infant Schools (111 in number) Kindergarten occupations form a part of the course, and the teaching throughout is permeated by the spirit and the methods of the true Kindergarten. To a considerable extent also this remark will apply to the junior classes of schools of one department.

As a rule children below the age of five years are not admitted to the ordinary Public School, but the Kindergartens enrol pupils of three years and upwards. The total number of children below five years of age in all schools under the Education Department at the end of last year was 552.

*(a) Infant Schools.*

Schools which have an average attendance of 300 or more pupils usually have a separate Infants' Department. There are, as a rule, about forty pupils in each class. They range in age from five to eight years. In rare cases pupils of nine or ten years will be found there, but these are either children whose early educational opportunities have been few, or who are below the normal in intelligence. As yet there are not, in this State, any schools for defectives (except an institution for the deaf and dumb, and the blind), consequently many abnormal children will be found in the various Infant Schools.

The teacher in charge of an Infant School is usually a trained woman of sympathetic temperament and of long experience in teaching beginners.

The daily routine is similar to that of the ordinary Public School, except that there are shorter lessons and more frequent changes of occupation. The morning session lasts from 9.30 a.m. till 12.30 p.m., with a break of ten or fifteen minutes at 11 a.m. for recreation. The afternoon session is from 2 to 4 p.m. Here also a break of five or ten minutes is made, at about 3 p.m.

Lessons are from ten to thirty minutes in length. At least one lesson per day is devoted to deep-breathing and physical exercises. A definite scheme of calisthenic movements, as set out in a manual compiled by Colonel Paul and Dr. Reuter Roth, is carefully carried out in all Infant Schools. Frequently a few minutes between lessons are spent in practising free exercises of the limbs, and in body-flections, or in singing some bright and tuneful melody.

About 10½ hours per week are devoted to English, 5½ hours to number work, two hours each to nature study and to art work, 1½ hours each to singing and to Scripture and moral lessons.

For the first six months of school life the child receives no formal instruction. An attempt is made to utilise his natural curiosity and love of movement, and his responsiveness to sense impressions, for his self-education. The little pupil is encouraged to express himself freely and without constraint, and the teacher endeavours, so far as the exigencies of the large class will permit, to establish proper relations with the child. The teacher's chief aims at this stage are to develop confidence between herself and her pupil, to implant a spirit of obedience, and to give a stimulus to the child's mental and physical growth.

Having accomplished these objects with more or less success, the formal instruction is begun.

The pupil is taught to read from script characters, short sentences

chosen by the teacher from the children's conversation during "Talks" in the school. The sentences are written upon the blackboard by the teacher and are subsequently written by the pupils upon their tablets. The teacher tells, or reads aloud, to the pupils suitable nursery rhymes and fairy stories, and, at a later stage, the children themselves read these and other lessons from the graded primers.

Several times a week the pupils take part in observation talks and picture talks, each of about ten minutes' duration. The former are upon topics from the children's experiences, the latter on pictures then before the class. They afford exercises in oral description of things seen, and they give opportunities for the encouragement of free talk between teacher and pupils.

All class-rooms in which infants are taught have their walls decorated with suitable pictures. Efforts are made from the first to profitably use these to develop the æsthetic side of the child's nature—to guide him to a love for the beautiful, thence leading onward to an admiration for the beautiful in deed as well, and a reverence for the good and the true.

The child's early writing lessons are correlated with his free arm drawing. He learns to make the letter-forms, first upon the wall-blackboard, and subsequently, at an appropriate stage, on his writing-tablet. From the first his writing is used to express his own thoughts, and at an early stage his power to exchange spoken thoughts into written ones is effectively exercised.

His number work, in the earliest stages, is done with counters, thus making full use of the senses of sight and touch. There is therefore a reality in the work, which makes it interesting. The opportunity which the counters afford for imaginative work is not overlooked; and, as his knowledge of number increases, each new acquirement is immediately applied to the doing of something, thus helping to give permanence to the concept.

The pupil studies, with the aid of the divided cube, the division of quantities into parts, and the use of the fractions  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$ . He correlates this work with drawing. He measures, with a foot rule, in feet and inches the lengths of the objects around the room. He handles, and learns to recognise and to name, the coins in common use, and he learns their relative values. When he has experimentally determined any number fact, he is able to deepen the impression and commit the fact to memory by frequent but intelligent repetition.

His nature studies are not the least among the influences which create attention by arousing his curiosity. This work being intelligently handled is so used as to guide him into right ideas about life. He studies the living things—both plant and animal—by which he is surrounded. He is encouraged to observe and to record the various stages in the growth and development of the plants grown in the school garden or (in the case of City Schools) in pots upon the window-sill or flower-stand. With equal, if not greater, interest he studies the life history of the tadpole in the school aquarium or the caterpillar in the live-specimen box. He expresses his thoughts about these things orally (with gradually increasing mastery of language), or in writing, drawing or plasticene modelling. In all this work the ethical end is kept steadily in view by the teacher—viz., the arousing of a sympathy with nature and (especially in the case of insect-study) with those living creatures which are comparatively weak.

In the Scripture and moral lessons the child learns something of those moral attributes which lie at the foundation of home and school life. Scripture stories are told, and instruction is given in truthfulness, obedience to parents, family affection, politeness, control of temper, personal cleanliness, kindness to animals, and other virtues.

Drawing, in mass, with coloured crayons, upon the wall blackboards is employed to enable the child to give expression to the impressions gained from observation during the nature study or from stories read or heard. Attempts are made to secure intelligent individual effort, and the importance of the development of the child's powers of imagination receives full recognition.

Singing forms an important part of each day's work. Bright simple songs about Natural objects, or about school and home life, are frequently sung in unison. Simple melodies by ear, action songs and marching songs,

each have a place on the time table. Care is taken to secure sweetness and softness of tone, and to develop that mental perception of pitch which produces the best musical results.

This may be regarded as a brief outline of the work consciously aimed at in all, and actually accomplished in the best of, our Infant Schools.

(b) *New South Wales Kindergartens.*

The first Kindergarten under the Department of Public Instruction in New South Wales was established in Riley Street, Sydney, in the year 1886. Miss E. L. Banks (who had been trained as a Kindergarten in Germany) was placed in charge, and for three years she did some excellent pioneer work in the locality. Some of the earliest pupils were children much beyond the usual Kindergarten age, who had managed to evade the compulsory clause of the Education Act and had not previously attended any school. Some were so dirty in personal habits and untidy in personal appearance that practical instruction in cleanliness was their most urgent need. But the kindly manner and gentle, yet forceful, influence of Miss Banks soon wrought a wonderful change in the outward aspect of these unkempt pupils of the early days. The worthy traditions established by the first head-mistress have been fully and consistently maintained for the past 21 years.

The original building was a rough wooden structure, badly constructed and poorly furnished. It was attended by about 100 pupils.

Miss Banks had as her assistant from the beginning Miss Mary Simpson, a trained teacher and ex-student of Hurlstone College. When, after three years' work at Riley Street, Miss Banks was removed to Fort Street, there to establish a second Kindergarten, Miss Simpson was placed in charge of the pioneer Kindergarten School (1889), where she still remains.

A brief description of the work now being done there and of the present buildings may give an idea of the few purely Kindergarten Schools now under the Education Department of New South Wales.

The school is situated in a thickly-populated, poor district. It therefore has varied work to do. Much effort is required to secure regularity, punctuality, cleanliness, politeness of manner and thoroughness in work. But the teachers strive earnestly and successfully to attain these ends. The pupils are taught, from the first, to know that each object in and around the school has its definite place, and they are trained to put each thing in its proper position. They are taught the proper use of nail, boot and clothes brush. In the new lavatory is kept a tub for bathing purposes, and, when necessary, lessons in personal cleanliness are practically enforced. Again, some of the little ones come from very poor homes and at times they are unable to secure proper nourishment. The teachers having been provided with a suitable stove are able to supply warm food in such cases. Miss Simpson keeps a sewing machine on the premises, and she uses it to make clothing for some of the destitute children among her pupils.

Children are received at three or four years of age. They spend from nine to eighteen months in the Kindergarten section, where there is no formal instruction, but where the senses are fully trained, all suitable gifts and occupations being used. The following summary of the day's work in the Kindergarten will convey some impression of the methods adopted:

From 9.30 to 9.45 a.m. a quarter of an hour is devoted to free play. The children are allowed to select their own occupation and they play with blocks, toys, picture-books, sand trays, etc. During the next 15 minutes they march and form a circle. Greetings are exchanged with fellow pupils, teachers, visitors; then a morning hymn is sung, sweetly and softly, sometimes, but not always, to a pianoforte accompaniment. From 10 to 10.15 a.m. they have a morning talk, naming the day and the season, marking the calendar and the weather-chart, and so on, possibly, too, talking on some subject correlated with the central idea of the day's work. The following 10 minutes are devoted to Kindergarten games. An inspection of cleanliness takes place, and all pupils with clean finger-nails, clothes and boots are selected for a special final game.

At 10.35 a.m. the pupils march to their Kindergarten tables, and, under the guidance of their teacher, they work together for 25 minutes, with the "gift" or "occupation" needed for correlation with the central idea.

The following quarter of an hour is set apart for lunch. First, grace is said; then parcels are unwrapped and food is eaten. Whilst at the table manners receive full attention. Having finished their lunch the clearing-up is done by the children. Thoroughness is insisted upon, the necessary training being facilitated by the use of convenient apparatus supplied by the Department.

From 11.15 to 11.30 a.m. the pupils have songs and games, and the next 15 minutes are devoted to a story or fairy tale correlated with the central idea. Then a quarter of an hour's work at sand trays (illustrations of nursery rhymes, stories, etc.) brings the time up to noon. A picture or observation talk, correlated with the central idea, occupies the next 10 minutes. Then the period from 12.10 to 12.25 p.m. is devoted to Kindergarten gift or occupation.

The mid-day recess is from 12.30 to 2 p.m. The first 20 minutes of the afternoon session are devoted to free crayon drawing on the large wall blackboard. Then for 10 minutes songs are sung.

From 2.30 to 2.45 such Kindergarten occupations (paper cutting, bead threading, etc.) are taken as can best be correlated with the central idea.

The final quarter of an hour, prior to dismissal at 3 p.m. is devoted to leave-taking. The good-bye song is sung, the Kindergarten taking each child's hand and looking steadily into the eyes of the pupil, who is required to return the steady look.

When the pupils have developed sufficiently they pass on to a higher class, where formal work—at first of a very elementary kind—is begun. The work is purposely made so simple that it really seems like play to the little ones. But they are gradually adding to their stock of ideas; and, in a bright and natural way, are acquiring the power to read, write, and use numbers.

Throughout the whole school the work is carefully graded and Kindergarten principles permeate and pervade all the teaching.

Pupils, who have passed through the whole of this course, are much appreciated in the Primary Schools, whither they go at about eight years of age. Some years ago a headmaster in charge of a public school, which was largely supplied with pupils from the Kindergarten, found such pupils more bright and alert than the average child not so trained. Their powers of observation were noticeably better, and they excelled both in original thought and in vocal expression. The Riley Street Kindergarten has a staff of eight teachers, including the Principal. Most of the teachers have been trained, and all have had several years' experience in teaching infants. The following statement of enrolment will be found interesting:—

Class.	Enrolment.	Av. Attendance.	Ages of	
			Youngest.	Eldest.
			Years.	Years.
Kindergarten ...	65	47	3	4
Lower 1st ...	52	39	4½	5½
Upper 1st ...	69	54	5	6
2nd ...	58	52	5	6½
3rd ...	44	41	5	7½
Lower 4th ...	53	49	6	7½
Upper 4th ...	49	44	7	8½

A brief description of the premises of Riley Street Kindergarten will afford an idea of the aim of the Department in the matter of material equipment of all new Infant Schools.

All recently-erected buildings approximate this standard, but many of the older buildings are very defective in certain respects. As opportunity offers, however, improvements are being gradually effected in these old, badly-constructed buildings.

The Riley Street School buildings are built of brick. They are situated on the heights of Surry Hills. On two sides they face public streets, and on one side a lane. There are, therefore, full opportunities for securing an adequate supply of sunlight and fresh air. The rooms are well-lighted and ventilated. The main building is of two stories. It has four large classrooms, two corridors, used as hat and cloak rooms, and a teachers' retiring room.

The Kindergarten Cottage is on the opposite side of the playground. It also is placed so that it may receive abundant fresh air and sunlight. Its main room is large and well-ventilated. A wall blackboard, conveniently placed so as to suit the height of the pupils, surrounds the room. This affords opportunity for exercise in free-arm drawing with coloured chalks.

The wall colouring is of a light tint, so as to add to the brightness of the room. Suitable pictures and diagrams are hung on the walls. The room also contains glass cases and cupboards for the specimens brought by the children; an aquarium peopled by gold fish and other denizens of the water; numerous nature-study specimens, picture books, toys, sand-trays, and other apparatus of use and interest to the young folk.

The playground has fine garden plots, wherein are grown many flowering plants—chiefly annuals, for the teachers realise that plants "which re-enact the miracle of life anew each year" are best suited for teaching the little ones the elements of nature knowledge. All plants are properly labelled, and records of growth are carefully kept. Live birds also are kept on the premises—canaries, chickens, ducklings—for nature study purposes. Cats, dogs, &c., are borrowed as occasion requires. The large playground sand-box proves useful for illustrating stories, &c. It is a favourite corner at all times. Various games are organised by the teachers, and skipping-ropes, nine-pins, quoits, &c., are provided for this purpose. All the apparatus is effectively used so that the purpose of the true Kindergarten may be successfully achieved.

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## APPENDIX B.

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### KINDERGARTENS IN CANADA.

In Canada the genuine Froebelian Kindergarten is the basis of all education. The early years of a child's life are not devoted to the acquiring of formal knowledge. In the Kindergarten the children have the opportunity of developing the apperceptive elements of all their future growth, emotionally, intellectually, and morally. The symbolic period before the age of eight is devoted to a careful and comprehensive process of starting the growth of all the known elements of power in the child's life, instead of attempting to store his memory with facts, or to urge his reasoning powers into premature and unnatural action. One of the most certain ways for deadening the child's interest and for dwarfing his power is to induce him to perform too early mental operations which properly belong to a later period. The operations of his mind which are stimulating at ten will inevitably arrest his development if performed at eight or nine. For instance, a child who has spent the years from five to eight in a good Kindergarten, and who is not asked to begin the process of learning to read till he is nine, will learn to read in less than a month, instead of devoting years to this work. The drudgery of the time usually devoted to reading and other formal school work robs the child of the joy of interest, and therefore strikes at the root of the power

of learning rapidly, and of assimilating knowledge in a natural and vital manner. The child who spends his symbolic years in a good Kindergarten instead of in a school, where he is taught formal knowledge even by the most advanced methods, has many advantages at fourteen over the child whose symbolic years have been spent in the acquisition of knowledge. In the first place, he will have more knowledge of arithmetic, grammar, and the other departments of scholarship. But this is the least of his advantages. He will be able to use his knowledge better. His attitude to the great world of knowledge will be more alert and vital. His knowledge will not merely be stored in his memory, it will be a definite part of his life power. He will be a self-active and intelligent agent in the acquisition of new knowledge, and in the achievement of progressively greater plans.

The great fundamental aim in our primary education is the awakening and developing of the elements of power in the child and not the storing of knowledge. Knowledge is gained as power is developed, and when acquired in this way the knowledge is vital as an element of executive power. The only knowledge that really counts in forming character or aiding in the progressive evolution of humanity is knowledge that is associated with executive power both in its acquirement and in its use.

Every child who is not defective reveals the three great central elements of human power and development as soon as he is able to creep. He loves to do things, to do things he plans himself, and to do things in co-operation with others. These tendencies are the most essential elements in vital Christian character. They are the essential elements in the progress of civilization. They gradually and very rapidly become stronger and more active in the guidance of the child's life till he goes to school. Then they quickly lose their power, and the loss can never be fully regained. The earlier the child goes to school, the greater is the dwarfing of these powers if his school is conducted along the ordinary lines of formal knowledge-gaining. These three essential elements of character and power should be the dominant elements of adulthood even more fully than in childhood. The greatest defect in humanity is not a lack of knowledge, but the lack of these three great tendencies of childhood, when men and women have grown up. The higher the element of human power is, the more rapid and the more limitless is the possibility of its development. The tendency to do, to do what we ourselves plan, and to do in co-operation with others, should grow uninterruptedly throughout our lives, and it would increase in power more than any other element of our power if it was not interrupted and interfered with by giving formal instruction prematurely, at the time when the supreme aims of the educator should be the development of power, the formation of the widest possible range of apperceptive centres, and the kindling of new departments of self-activity. All these conditions develop very rapidly before the child goes to school if he is free from adult interference, and in conditions that provide proper materials for his use. The Kindergarten aims to continue through the symbolic period of a child's development the essential elements of his life before he goes to school, and thus to define, and strengthen, and increase the powers and tendencies that should become the dominant elements in the direction of his course through life. It continues till he is eight years of age the kind of development he had before he came to school, but under systematized conditions and by the use of materials and processes specifically intended to define in his experience the powers and tendencies he will most need for the achievement of the highest success in school and throughout his life. It gives opportunity for the three great central elements of his power to ripen, and guides them into new fields of operation as they are ripening.

If the processes of growth are interfered with at the age of five, or earlier, as is yet done in some schools, and instruction substituted for development prematurely, a great crime is committed against the child. He is robbed of his power, and he can never either love or acquire knowledge as fully as he should have done. If the elements of human power and character are allowed to ripen till the child is eight years of age, they remain the dominant and directing elements of his character while he lives, and he will love to study because he will long for knowledge that he may use it, not merely store it.

So long as the genuine Kindergarten work is made the only directed work of the child till he is eight years of age, natural development is not arrested. Eight years is taken as the proper age of the average normal child. Very bright children, and defective children, should remain longer in the Kindergarten than normal children. Children who are merely dull at four or five years of age are made really defective by attempts to give them formal knowledge prematurely. There is a corresponding dwarfing in the case of the normal child. The fact that he is strong enough to overcome the blighting effects sufficiently to prevent the manifestation of positive mental weakness, has prevented the revelation of the great evil done to him by the schools.

We use Froebel's "occupations" to develop the child's industrial power, his originality, his executive ability and his relationship to the world's work; the "gifts" define his mathematical and constructive powers; the drawing reveals his selfhood in art and gives him artistic taste; the music and songs and stories stir his emotional nature and lay the basis for literature and history in future years; the nature work uses the child's love of Nature to lead to the interested study of science when he is older; the plays and games develop him physically and lead him to understand his value as an individual and the need of perfect co-operation with his fellows in order to achieve success. Every department of Kindergarten work trains him to be free and self-active under directive law, and to be executive and not merely responsive to the direction of others; and this independent executive work under directive law enables him to understand when he is older the "perfect law of liberty" which is the only sure foundation for intelligent and progressive citizenship.

Having kindled the apperceptive centres of intellectual and moral power in the Kindergarten, we find that the child makes much more rapid progress and is more happy and self-directive during the later years of his school life.

JAMES L. HUGHES.

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## APPENDIX C.

## NOTES ON VISITS TO INSTITUTIONS IN GERMANY FOR CHILDREN UNDER SCHOOL AGE (DRESDEN AND EISENACH).

The following notes of personal observations made in August, 1908, confirm the impressions received from studying the returns from Germany:—

*Kindergartens.*

The Froebel Seminar in Dresden was founded in 1872. It trains Kindergarten instructresses and *Pfegerinnen* (Nurses) for children in private families. The period of training is one year in each case, but the course of instruction for the nurses is much less extended than in the case of the Kindergarten teachers. The curriculum for the latter includes pedagogy, physiology, hygiene, nature study, voice production, singing, gymnastics and the Froebelian principles and practice. The course for the nurses comprises matters pertaining to the bodily care of young children, together with laundry work, needlework, &c., as well as instruction in nature study and the Froebelian activities. Diplomas are given at the end of the year's training according to the results of the examination held.

The students practise in the Kindergartens and *Kinderbewahranstalten* in the city. Each student is attached for three months to a given Kindergarten and is then transferred to another. In this way the teaching power in the various Kindergartens is increased.

There are seven *Volkkindergärten* (People's Kindergartens) in the city, four of which consist of two sections, i.e., there are two classes, each under a responsible trained instructress. There are 800 children in these Kindergartens. One Kindergarten visited was that attached to the Seminar in one of the better class districts. About sixty children are in attendance—and forty-five were present on this particular day. The students were still in vacation, so that the staff on the morning of the visit consisted of the mistress and one of the *Kinderpfegerinnen* in training. The one room is large, airy, well lighted and altogether pleasant. In the afternoon it is used as a lecture room for the seminar students, as the children attend only in the mornings from nine till twelve. There is little else in the way of furniture except the low tables and benches on which the children sit, a teacher's blackboard, a piano and cupboards. There is a pleasant garden, part of which is lightly roofed in, and here there are seats where the children take their lunch, which is brought in neat baskets and consists chiefly of rye-bread, with, in some cases, butter or fruit. The mistress said there was no fixed routine for the day. On this particular morning the opening hymn was sung at 9.30. Then followed a talk on holiday experiences interspersed by action songs suggested by the incidents discussed. At ten o'clock lunch was taken in the garden by mistress and pupils, and then followed the washing of hands. For this a movable washstand was taken into the garden. All this formed the opportunity for careful training in behaviour—much importance was evidently attached to this part of the daily routine. Directed play in the garden followed, the little ones forming their own ring under the supervision of the *Kinderpfegerin*. On returning to the schoolroom a story was told which was illustrated by the children with beads. The children here pay 1 mark 25 pfennigs a month (1s. 3d.). Another Kindergarten visited in a populous working-class district in the city is located in two rooms on the second floor of a small factory. The rooms are well lighted and scrupulously clean, but the accommodation is not sufficient for the numbers—thirty to forty in each room. One of the teachers said they hoped soon to have better quarters. The garden is small, but large enough for one class to play circle games, and the two classes take it in turns to use the garden. There is a covered-in part with seats. In the winter the light and easily moved tables are put round the room and the children play in the middle. There cannot, however, be adequate space for this. The

morning session lasts from 9 to 12, and the afternoon from 2 to 4. There is no fixed daily routine, though the courses of handwork are planned for the year and are graduated. Pricking and embroidery, paper-folding, weaving in different materials, Kindergarten drawing and clay-modelling are the chief activities. Slates are used.

Another Kindergarten visited was in Eisenach. This is located in a two storey house with a small garden, in which the trees are so numerous and large that they darken the rooms where instruction is carried on. There are four rooms for three classes, each containing from twenty-five to thirty children. The children are classed according to age, and the handwork and games are graduated accordingly. On the occasion of the visit the oldest children were building with the fifth gift and embroidering simple designs. The children play in turn in the garden. There are hoops, balls, and other playthings. One of the rooms is kept bare of furniture and is used as a playroom. The furniture in all the rooms is very simple and light in character. There are two sessions in the day, 9 to 12 and 2 to 4. The monthly fee is 1s. 3d., and all other support is defrayed by means of private subscriptions. The town gave the ground on which the house is built, but affords no further aid.

In Dresden gardens are attached to several of the Kindergartens, and these are used for nature study and gardening classes on the Wednesday and Saturday half-holidays for the children in the lower classes in the Primary Schools. These classes are conducted by one of the teachers in the Kindergartens.

#### *Kinderbewahranstalten.*

In Dresden there are six *Bewahranstalten*, and four *Krippen* (Crèches). Like the Kindergartens they are not financed by the city, and are supported and controlled by a private charitable organisation.

The one visited is housed in a large two-storied building in a shady pleasant garden, and is situated in the midst of a populous working-class district. The children, aged from three to six years, were in the rooms on the lower floor. These rooms include a kitchen, a small room with pegs for the children's hats, and cupboards containing toys, a large living room bare of decoration and of furniture except low tables and seats, and a resting room with large mattresses on the floor on which the younger children sleep after the midday meal. This room is too small for its purpose. Everything was scrupulously clean. There were about fifty-five children present. They come at six or seven in the morning, and remain till seven in the evening. The mothers are employed in the factories, in laundries, and as charwomen. The staff consists of a "nurse," who has not been trained for her work, a young girl in her teens to help her, and a servant who keeps the rooms clean and washes the pinafores which are worn by the children during the day. The "nurse" does a large part of the cooking. The midday meal consists of meat and vegetables twice a week, and rice or other milk food with vegetables on the other days. Ten pence per day are paid for each child.

In the afternoon on which the visit was paid, the children had had their rest, and were singing as they sat round the tables in the living room. At four o'clock coffee was brought in a large pail, and ladled out in tin cups. A slice of bread was given to those children who had not brought their own. After the meal the children played in the garden. The nurse plays some of the Kindergarten games with the children, but with the exception of a little embroidery done by the older children there is no Froebelian handwork or other organised activity.

Upstairs the rooms consist of a large living room with low tables and baby chairs, a sleeping room with cots, and a room where the children are bathed every morning and dressed in garments belonging to the Crèche. There is also a broad, shady verandah which forms a playroom. There were between thirty and forty children from three months to three years under the charge of the nurse and a girl in her teens.

In Eisenach there are three *Bewahranstalten*. One of them is new and the methods employed are quite in accordance with modern ideas. It is situated in a new and rapidly developing industrial quarter of the town,

and is supported by a Protestant Sisterhood. The Sister-in-charge was trained for the work in the Deaconess' Institute in Dresden. The staff is quite adequate to the needs of the children. The children under two have their own rooms and attendants. The others are divided into sections and have rooms for work and play. There is plenty of space; the rooms are light and airy, the furniture is easily moved, and round the walls are brightly coloured friezes of animals in procession. There seemed to be a sufficiency of toys, rocking horses, &c. About two and a-half hours in the day are devoted to organised activities—the Froebelian gifts and occupations, directed games, singing, story-telling, easy gymnastics. The children come at six or seven in the morning and stay till the same time in the evening. The midday meal consists chiefly of milk food and vegetables; at four o'clock in the afternoon coffee and bread are served, and at ten in the morning the children eat the bread they have brought.

In the Crèche, besides the separate cots, large baths, and hygienic feeding bottles, there were scales for weighing the babies. This is done every three days.

Besides the staff of Sisters there are several young girls who are to be trained for the care and education of young children. It is hoped that in future this part of the work will be further developed.

S. YOUNG.

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