

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

SPECIAL REPORTS
ON
EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS
VOLUME 2.

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



LONDON:

PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,
BY WYMAN AND SONS, LIMITED, FETTER LANE, E.C.

And to be purchased, either directly or through any Bookseller, from
EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C.,
and 32, ABINGDON STREET, WESTMINSTER, S.W.; or
JOHN MENZIES & Co., 12, HANOVER STREET, EDINBURGH, and
90, WEST NILE STREET, GLASGOW; or
HODGES, FIGGIS, & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN.

C.—8943.] Price 6s. 2d.

1898.

To Sir G. W. KEKEWICH, K.C.B.,
Secretary of the Education Department.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to present to you the accompanying volumes of Reports on Educational Subjects, which form a selection from the memoranda prepared by or for the Office of Special Inquiries and Reports during 1897-98.

These volumes, like that published last year, form part of a series on the educational systems of this and other countries. In view of the interest now taken in the comparison of different methods of teaching and of different forms of school-organization it is hoped that the following reports may be found useful to students of education.

I desire to take this opportunity of acknowledging the courtesy of the Prussian Government in acceding to a request, transmitted to them through the Foreign Office, for permission to publish a complete translation of the "Curricula and Programmes of Work for Higher Schools in Prussia," and that of the Charity Commissioners for England and Wales in contributing a paper on the system of Intermediate Education in Wales.

Thanks are also due to a number of ladies and gentlemen, in this country and abroad, for their kindness in contributing reports on various educational subjects for publication on the present occasion.

The United States Commissioner of Education and the President of Harvard University have both been so good as to promise to prepare essays on some aspects of American education, but their reports are deferred until next year owing to their having been prevented from completing their contributions in time for these volumes.

Each Report bears the name of its author, and it should be understood that only the writers are responsible for the opinion therein expressed.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

MICHAEL E. SADLER,

Director of Special Inquiries and Reports.

Education Department Library,

Cannon Row,

London, S.W.

September, 1898.

VOLUME 2.

CONTENTS.

	Page
The Welsh Intermediate Education Act, 1889: Its Origin and Working.	1
Contributed by the Charity Commissioners for England and Wales.	
The London Polytechnic Institutes (with illustrations).	59
By Mr. Sidney Webb, Member and formerly Chairman of the Technical Education Board of the London County Council.	
4. The London School of Economics and Political Science.	76
By Mr. W. A. S. Hewins, Director of the School and Tooke Professor of Economic Science and Statistics at King's College, London.	
5. The Curriculum of a Girls' School.	99
By Mrs. Bryant, Headmistress of the North London Collegiate School for Girls, with Appendices by Miss S. A. Burstall, Headmistress of the Manchester High School for Girls, and Miss Edith Aitken, Science Mistress in the North London Collegiate School.	
6. Physical Education at the Sheffield High School for Girls.	133
By Mrs. Woodhouse, Headmistress of the Clapham High School for Girls, and formerly Headmistress of the Sheffield High School.	
7. Games and Athletics in Secondary Schools for Girls (with illustrations).	145
By Miss P. Lawrence, Headmistress of Roedean School, Brighton.	
8. The Organisation of Games out of School for the Children attending Public Elementary Schools in the large Industrial Centres, as voluntarily undertaken by the Teachers.	159
By Mr. George Sharples, Headmaster of Waterloo Road Higher Grade Board School, Manchester.	

8. **Physical Education under the School Board for London (with illustrations).** 1
 By Mr. Thomas Chesterton, Organising Teacher of Physical Exercises under the School Board for London.

9. **Physical Education in the Girls' and Infants' Departments in the Schools of the London School Board (with illustrations).** 2
 By the late Mrs. Ely-Dallas, Organising Teacher of Physical Exercises under the School Board for London.

10. **Physical Training of the Scholars in the Birmingham Board Schools (with illustrations).** 2
 By Mr. Samuel Bott, Superintendent Teacher of Physical Exercises under the Birmingham School Board.

11. **Physical Training under the Leeds School Board.** 2
 By Mr. R. E. Thomas, Instructor in Physical Exercises under the Leeds School Board.

12. **The School Gardens at the Boscombe British School (with illustrations).** 2
 By Mr. T. G. Rooper, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools.

13. **The Connection between the Public Library and the Public Elementary School.** 2
 By Mr. John J. Ogle, Librarian of the Bootle Free Public Library.

14. **The Educational Museum of the Teachers' Guild of Great Britain and Ireland.** 2
 By Mr. John L. Myres, Student and Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford, an Honorary Curator of the Museum.

15. **The Haslemere Educational Museum (with plans).** . . . 2
 By Dr. Jonathan Hutchinson, F.R.S.

16. **School Plays in Latin and Greek.** 3
 By Mr. J. H. Baker-Penoyre, Assistant-Master in Archbishop Harsnet's School, Chigwell.

17. **The Study of Education.** 3
 By Mr. J. J. Findlay, Headmaster of the Cardiff Intermediate School for Boys, and formerly Principal of the College of Preceptors' Training Department for Teachers in Secondary Schools.

	Page
18. The Training of Secondary Teachers and Educational Ideals.	378
By Mr. F. J. R. Hendy, Headmaster of Carlisle Grammar School.	
19. The Heuristic Method of Teaching, or the Art of making Children discover things for themselves.	389
By Dr. Henry E. Armstrong, F.R.S., Professor of Chemistry in the Central Technical College of the City and Guilds of London Institute.	
20. Summary of Statistics, Regulations, &c., of Elementary Education in England and Wales, 1833-1870.	434
By Messrs. M. E. Sadler and J. W. Edwards.	
21. List of Publications on Educational Subjects, issued by the chief Local Educational Authorities in England and Wales.	545
Prepared by Miss Mary S. Beard, of the Education Department Library.	
22. Les Universités Françaises.	574
Par Monsieur Louis Liard, Membre de l'Institut, Directeur de l'Enseignement Supérieur au Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, Paris.	
23. The French Universities. — (A translation of Monsieur Liard's paper).	603
By Mr. J. W. Longsdon, Lecturer to the Surrey County Council.	
24. The Position of Teachers in the State Secondary Schools for Boys in France.	626
By Mr. F. B. Kirkman, late Assistant-Master in Merchant Taylors' School, London.	
25. The French Leaving Certificate—Certificat d'Études Primaires.	634
By Sir Joshua Fitch.	
26. The Teaching of Modern Languages in Belgium and Holland.	648
By Miss J. D. Montgomery, Hon. Sec. of the Technical and University Extension College, Exeter.	
27. School Hygiene in Brussels.	680
By Miss J. D. Montgomery.	

Volume 1 of Special Reports (1896-7) contained the following Papers :—

1. Public Elementary Education in England and Wales, 1870-1896.
By Messrs. M. E. Sadler and J. W. Edwards.
2. English Students in Foreign Training Colleges.
By Miss L. Manley, Miss Williams, and Mr. H. L. Withers.
3. Brush Work in an Elementary School (with illustrations).
By Mr. Seth Coward.
4. The A B C of Drawing: an inquiry into the principles underlying elementary instruction in Drawing (with illustrations).
By Mr. Ebenezer Cooke.
5. Domestic Economy Teaching in England.
By Mrs. Pillow.
6. Technical Education for Girls.
By Miss A. J. Cooper.
7. The Secondary Day School attached to the Battersea Polytechnic, London
—an experiment in the co-education of boys and girls.
By Mr. Sidney H. Wells.
8. The History of the Irish System of Elementary Education.
By Mr. M. E. Sadler.
9. The National System of Education in Ireland.
By the Right Hon. C. T. Redington, D.L.
10. Recent Legislation on Elementary Education in Belgium.
By Messrs. M. E. Sadler and R. L. Morant.
11. The Housewifery Schools and Classes of Belgium.
By Miss K. S. Block and Miss L. Brackenbury.
12. The French System of Higher Primary Schools.
By Mr. R. L. Morant.
13. The Realschulen in Berlin and their bearing on modern Secondary and Commercial Education.
By Mr. M. E. Sadler.
14. The Ober-Realschulen of Prussia, with special reference to the Ober-Realschule at Charlottenburg.
By Mr. M. E. Sadler.
15. The Prussian Elementary School Code.
Translated by Mr. A. E. Twentyman.
16. The Continuation Schools in Saxony.
By Mr. F. H. Dale.
17. The School Journey in Germany.
By Miss C. L. Dodd.
18. The Teaching of the Mother Tongue in Germany.
By Mr. F. H. Dale.
19. Holiday Courses in France and Germany for Instruction in Modern Languages.
By Messrs. F. S. Marvin and R. L. Morant.
20. Recent Educational Progress in Denmark (with maps).
By Mr. J. S. Thornton.
21. Education in Egypt.
By Mr. P. A. Barnett.
22. The Education of Girls and Women in Spain.
By Señor don Fernando de Arteago.
23. The National Bureau of Education of the United States.
By Mr. R. L. Morant.
24. The History of the Manitoba School System and the Issues of the Recent Controversy.
By Mr. R. L. Morant.
25. Arrangements for the admission of Women to the chief Universities in the British Empire and in Foreign Countries.
By Mr. M. E. Sadler, with the help of Mr. J. W. Longdon.
26. Appendix giving a list of the chief official papers bearing on Education in Great Britain and Ireland.
Prepared by Mr. M. E. Sadler.

This volume (C.—6447) can be obtained, either directly or through any Bookseller, from

LYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C.;

JOHN MENZIES & Co., 12, HARVEY STREET, EDINBURGH;

HODGES, FIGGIE, & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN

Price 3s. 4d.; Post free 3s. 10d.

Volume 3 of Special Reports (published simultaneously with Volume 2) contains the following papers :—

1. The National Organization of Education in Switzerland.
By Mr. R. L. Morant.
2. Problems in Prussian Secondary Education for Boys, with special reference to similar questions in England.
By Mr. M. E. Sadler.
3. "The Curricula and Programmes of Work for Higher Schools in Prussia."
Translated by Mr. W. G. Lipscomb.
4. The Higher Schools of the Grand Duchy of Baden.
By Mr. H. E. D. Hammond.
5. Strömungen auf dem Gebiet des Schul- und Bildungswesens in Deutschland.
Von Prof. Dr. W. Rein in Jena.
6. Tendencies in the Educational Systems of Germany (Translation of 5).
By Mr. F. H. Dale.
7. The Teaching of Modern Languages in Frankfurt a/M and District.
By Mr. Fabian Ware.
8. The Teaching of Modern Languages in Germany.
By Miss Mary Brebner.
9. The Teaching of Foreign Languages.
By Professor Dr. Emil Hausknecht.
10. The Teacher of Modern Languages in Prussian Secondary Schools for Boys. His education and professional training.
By Mr. Fabian Ware.
11. Higher Commercial Education in Antwerp, Leipzig, Paris and Havre,
By Mr. M. E. Sadler.
12. The Present Position of Manual Instruction in Germany.
By Dr. Otto W. Beyer.
13. The Secondary Schools of Sweden.
By Dr. Otto Gallander.
14. Elementary Education in the Grand Duchy of Finland.
By the Baron Dr. Yrjö-Koskinen.

This volume (C.—8088) can be obtained, either directly or through any Bookseller, from
 EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE, EAST HARDING STREET, FLEET STREET, E.C. ;
 JOHN MENZIES & Co., 12, HANOVER STREET, EDINBURGH ;
 HODGES, FIGGIS, & Co., LIMITED, 104, GRAFTON STREET, DUBLIN

Price 3s. 3d. ; Post free 3s. 9d.

APPENDIX I.

DECREE OF JULY 21ST, 1897.

Containing Regulations for University Councils.

CHAPTER I.

ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE COUNCILS.

Article 1.—The Council of each University includes:—

- i. The Rector of the Academy, President;
- ii. The Deans of the Faculties and the Principal of the Higher School of Pharmacy.
- iii. Two Delegates from each Faculty or school, elected for three years by the Assembly of the Faculty or school from among the regular professors.
- iv. The Principal and one delegate, elected as above, from the "complete" school, or from the preparatory school of medicine and pharmacy of the Department in which the University is situated.

Article 2.—The election of delegates is by ballot and in accordance with the absolute majority of the votes given; if the first two votings give no result, a relative majority is sufficient for the third.

If the votes are equal, the senior professor of the Faculty or school is elected.

Any dispute relative to the election must be brought before the Council, whose decision is final.

Article 3.—The Council is convened by the President.

The President is compelled to convene the Council on the written request of one-third of the members. The request must state the object of the meeting.

Article 4.—The Council elects each year a Vice-President from among its members.

It appoints a secretary.

It makes its own rules for the conduct of business.

Article 5.—Acting under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction, the Rector examines questions which arise concerning the University, and sees that the decisions of the Council are carried out.

He represents the University in all its legal relations.

He has the right, in reference to the property of the University, to bring or defend any action at law, to act as arbitrator, and to prevent any prejudice to the property.

In case of absence he is represented by the Vice-President of the Council.

Article 6.—With the authority of the Rector, the Deans or Principals see that decisions of the Council are carried out in reference to the Faculties and University Schools.

CHAPTER II.

ON THE FUNCTIONS OF THE COUNCIL.

Article 7.—The Council decides :—

- i. The administration of the property of the University ;
- ii. The conduct of actions at law ;
- iii. The organisation of free lectures ;
- iv. The organisation and conduct of lectures, classes, and demonstrations common to several Faculties ;
- v. The general organisation of lectures, classes, and demonstrations proposed by the Faculties and schools of the University for each year's work.

The general scheme of the lectures, classes, and demonstrations is settled by the Council in July. It must include the instruction necessary for the degrees established by the State ;

- vi. The establishment of societies in the interests of students ;
- vii. The distribution among the students of the Faculties or University schools of the exemption of fees allowed by the law ;
- viii. The apportioning throughout the year of the holidays permitted by Article 43, section 2 of the administrative order of December 28, 1885.

Article 8.—The decisions of the Council taken on the preceding article are final if, within one month, they have not been annulled (as being beyond its power, or in contradiction to some regulation), by the Minister of Public Instruction, acting on the advice of the Permanent Section of the Higher Council of Public Instruction.

Article 9.—The Council resolves as to :—

- i. The acquisition, alienation and exchange of the property of the University ;
- ii. Leases of more than 18 years ;
- iii. Loans ;
- iv. Acceptance of donations and legacies ;
- v. Offers of grants ;
- vi. Courses of instruction to be paid for out of University funds ;
- vii. The institution and regulation of the degrees provided in Article 15 of the present Decree ;
- viii. The remission of fees payable to the University.

Article 10.—The resolutions of the Council in reference to the preceding article must be approved by the Minister before they are carried out.

Article 11.—The Council expresses its opinion as to :—

- i. The budgets and accounts of the University ;
- ii. The budgets and accounts of the Faculties ;
- iii. The creation, change or suppression of professorships paid out of State funds ;

iv. The regulations for the performance of work common to several Faculties ;

This common work comprises, besides the University library, work which shall have been decided to be common in each University, by the Minister on the advice of the Council ;

v. All questions submitted to it by the Minister, or the Rector.

Article 12.—Every member of the Council is permitted to bring forward resolutions relating to Higher Education.

These resolutions must be given to the President in writing. They are read to the Council and, at the following meeting, the Council decides whether they are to be considered.

Article 13.—Each University must grant for the University library a sum, at least equal to the fees paid for the use of the library.

Each University must also place at the disposal of each Faculty or School, for practical and laboratory work, a sum at least, equal to the fees paid by the students for such work.

This grant, together with any payment that shall be made by the State for the same object is to be applied to materials and apparatus for the laboratories and workshops.

Any balance remaining may be used : (1) in payments to the Curators, demonstrators and servants ; (2) in payment to the professors who, in addition to their statutory work, have supervised the workshops or laboratories.

These payments are fixed by the Rector at the suggestion of the Dean or Principal.

Article 14.—The Rector, acting on power delegated by the Minister of Public Instruction, appoints, on the proposal of the Council and on the advice of the Faculty or School concerned, to the offices of Superintendent of the classes, and Master of the courses, which are paid out of University funds.

Professors paid out of the same funds are appointed according to the forms provided by law.

Article 15.—Besides the degrees established by the State, the Universities may establish diplomas of learning.

These diplomas confer none of the rights and privileges attached to State degrees, and can in no case be declared equivalent to degrees.

The course of study and the examinations leading to these diplomas are decided by the Council of the University, and submitted to the permanent section of the Higher Council of Public Instruction.

The diplomas are given by the President of the Council, in the name of the University in a different shape to those given by the Government.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE PROCEDURE OF THE COUNCIL.

Article 16.—At its first meeting the University Council appoints by ballot a committee to deal with disputes and questions of discipline, during its tenure of office.

This committee includes at least, one member from each Faculty or School represented on the Council.

Article 17.—The initiative in matters of discipline rests with the Rector.

He may delegate a member of Council to draw up an indictment.

Article 18.—The Committee is directly instructed by the Rector as to the points on which the Council have to give a decision.

It takes all suitable means to get information, and draws up a report.

The parties must always be summoned by it and heard if they present themselves.

Article 19.—The summons to attend before the Council is sent by the Rector, by registered post, three days before the meeting of the Council.

The person concerned is informed of the day and hour fixed for hearing the case, and he is told that he has the right to defend himself, either by word of mouth, or by written memorandum, and that in certain cases provided by the law, he may be assisted by Counsel.

He is informed that the Committee's report together with the documents of the case will be at his disposal in the Secretary's office, a full day before the day fixed for the hearing of the case.

Article 20.—The following is the course of procedure :—

The Committee's report is read.

The parties are then brought in, if they are present, and their statements listened to.

If they are not present, and if they have sent written memoranda, these are read after the Committee's report.

When the parties have withdrawn, the President opens the discussion, and a decision by ballot is come to.

The Council has always power to request further information.

Article 21.—That the decision may be valid there must be one more than half the number of members present.

These decisions are voted by a simple majority of those present, except in those cases where the law demands a majority of two-thirds.

In case the votes are equal in a case of discipline, the opinion in favour of the accused prevails.

If the matter before the Council is contentious it is discussed at a further meeting, to which those members who may not have been present at the first meeting are summoned.

If the votes are again equal, the President has a casting vote.

Article 22.—The decision is notified by the Rector in a registered letter, sent within eight days to the house of the person concerned.

In the case of a student the decision is also notified to his parents or guardian.

Notice is given to the Minister.

Article 23.—In cases where an appeal to the Higher Council of Public Instruction is permitted, notice of this permission must be added to the notice of the decision, together with a notification of the time within which the appeal must be made.

Article 24.—The period of fifteen days during which the appeal can be made, dates from the day of the notification of the decision.

Article 25.—Judgment is suspended during the appeal, except in cases where the Council has ordered a provisional carrying-out of its decision.

Article 26.—Notices of appeal are received and entered at the office of the University Council. Formal acknowledgement is given, and the appeal is transmitted without delay to the Minister.

An appeal on the part of the Rector consists of a formal statement communicated to the parties concerned. A copy of this, together with the necessary documents is sent to the Minister.

Article 27.—In a case of dispute, or discipline affecting a school of Higher Education, situated within the area of University jurisdiction, without the seat of the University, the Principal of this school, and a professor elected according to Article 1 of this Decree are added to the Council.

CHAPTER IV.

VARIOUS REGULATIONS.

Article 28.—Each year the Council reports to the Minister on the present position of the University, and on the improvements that may be introduced.

Article 29.—Mayors of towns which allot grants to the University and to the Faculties, and under the same condition, presidents of the General Councils of Departments, presidents of Public Institutions, or of Institutions of Public Utility, and of Associations for the development of Universities, may attend the meeting of the Council for the consideration of the annual report, provided for in the preceding article.

In Paris, this right belongs to the Prefect of the Seine, and to one delegate of the Municipal Council.

By the decision of the Council, benefactors of the University can also be summoned.

APPENDIX II.

[This appendix consists of statistical tables, showing the number of students—both Frenchmen and Foreigners—in the various Faculties of the fifteen Universities; and does not need to be translated. See pp. 597–602.]

APPENDIX III.

The following letter, which appeared in the *Times*, may be conveniently reproduced here:—

THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "TIMES."

Sir,—I beg to call your attention to the decision of the Council of the University of Paris, dated April 1, 1898, instituting the degree of "Doctor of the University of Paris" (not to be confused with the degrees of *Dr.-ès-Lettres*, *Dr.-ès-Sciences*, &c., which are granted by the State only).

For the sake of brevity, I only enclose that part of the regulations which deals with the Faculty of Arts, but it must be understood that the new degree (like the German Ph.D.) is of an eclectic, not of a special nature, and will be granted to students of science or of medicine on similar conditions (*i.e.*, the composition of a thesis embodying original research).

The ordinary State degrees have always been, and still remain, practically beyond the reach of foreigners, the Government requiring all students without distinction to pass the various preliminary examinations, a process which involves a considerable loss of time. Such a restriction does not exist for the obtaining of the new degree, the regulations for which have been framed with due regard to the needs of foreign students. The "Doctorat" will, it is hoped, be of special value to teachers and students of modern languages and philology, and be sought by them as a fitting crown to their English University career. I shall be greatly obliged if you will kindly give to this communication all the publicity which lies in your power. Thanking you in anticipation, I beg to remain,

Yours faithfully,

H. E. BERTHON, Taylorian Teacher of French
in the University of Oxford.

P.S.—I shall be glad to give additional information if necessary.

Oxford, April 25, 1898.

Le Conseil de l'Université de Paris, Vu l'article 15 du décret du 21 juillet, 1897, &c., Délibère:—

Art. 1^{er}. Il est institué un doctorat de l'Université de Paris.

Art. 5. A la Faculté des lettres, les aspirants doivent, s'ils sont étrangers, présenter des attestations d'études de la valeur desquelles la Faculté est juge.

La durée de la scolarité est de quatre semestres au moins.

Elle peut être accomplie soit à la Faculté, soit dans un des grands établissements scientifiques de Paris.

La durée peut en être abrégée par décision de la Faculté.

Les épreuves comprennent:—1^o. La soutenance d'une thèse, écrite en français ou en latin. 2^o. Des interrogations sur des questions choisies par le candidat et agréées par la Faculté.

The Position of Teachers in the State Secondary Schools for Boys in France.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF FRENCH SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR BOYS.

II. QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS IN THE SECONDARY STATE SCHOOLS. III. SALARIES AND RETIRING PENSIONS. IV. DUTIES AND HOURS OF WORK. V. PROSPECTS. VI. PROFESSIONAL STATUS. VII. CONCLUSION.

I. Secondary schools in France are of two classes, *écoles publiques*, or State schools, and *écoles libres*, or private schools. We are here concerned only with the former. The position of teachers in the private schools, both ecclesiastical and lay, is very similar to that of the majority of teachers in English secondary schools. Little, therefore, is to be gained by making it the subject of a special inquiry.

The State schools for boys are either *lycées* or *collèges*. The former are maintained by the central Government, and are first-grade schools. The latter are maintained partly by the central and partly by the local Government, and are for the most part second-grade schools, from which a large number of pupils pass yearly into the *lycées*. There are 227 *collèges* with a total of 32,412 pupils, and 109 *lycées* with a total of 52,427 pupils. In the State schools instruction is therefore given to 84,839 boys out of an approximate total of 182,220 boys receiving education in secondary schools of all types.*

II. The teachers in the secondary State schools are nominated either directly or indirectly by the Minister of Education, and they are paid by the State for their services. Before entering the profession they have to possess certain scholastic qualifications which are defined by statute. As the qualifications exacted vary according to the age of the pupils to be taught, a few words must be said of the arrangement of classes in a French State school. Of these there are four groups: (1) *Division Supérieure* in which are boys aged 14 and upwards. (2) *Division de Grammaire* for boys aged from about 14 to 11. These two divisions are common to the classical and the modern side. Beneath them come (3) the *Classes Élémentaires* for boys aged 9 to 10, and at the bottom are (4) the *Classes Primaires* for boys aged 6 to 8. These are taught by primary schoolmasters or mistresses, and do not therefore concern us here.

* Statistics: May 1897. The total given (182,220) includes the pupils (22,381) in the *petits séminaires*, which are concerned mainly with the education of future priests; also those in the private schools: *Établissements ecclésiastiques* (62,188) and *Établissements laïques* (12,812).

Higher scholastic qualifications are demanded from teachers in the *lycées* than from those in the *collèges*. In a *lycée* the professeurs of the *Classes Élémentaires* must possess the *certificat d'aptitude au professorat des classes élémentaires de l'enseignement secondaire* (Décret du 8 janvier 1881). This examination is competitive, and the candidates must be twenty years of age. The subjects in which they are examined are French, German, History, Geography, Mathematics, Science, and the Practice of Education. The value of the *certificat* may be judged from the severity of the competition :

	Candidates.	Successful.
1888	160	17
1892	150	23
1896	201	17
1897	136	10

The posts to which the *professeurs* with the above qualifications are entitled are in many cases occupied by *chargés de cours* with somewhat inferior qualifications. These latter are, however, diminishing in numbers, for posts vacated by them on retirement are given to *Professeurs* provided with the above-mentioned *certificat*, and often to men with still better qualifications, the *licenciés*.*

The *professeurs* of the classes in the *Division de Grammaire* and the *Division Supérieure* in the *lycées* must be *agrégés* (Décrets des 10 avril 1852, 25 septem. 1872, 26 novembre 1875). There is nothing in England corresponding to the *agrégation*. It is a competitive examination for secondary teachers divided into the following schools: (1) Philosophy; (2) *Lettres* (French, Latin, and Greek), for form-masters of classes in the *Division Supérieure*; (3) History and Geography; (4) *Grammaire* (French, Latin, Greek), for form-masters in *Division de grammaire*; (5) Modern Languages; (6) Mathematics; (7) Physical Sciences; (8) Natural Sciences. It is difficult to estimate exactly the value of this degree, but a study of the *programme des conditions d'admission*, and the fact (1) that the candidates are the *élite* of the French University—*boursiers* (scholars) and students of the *École Normale Supérieure*†; (2) that the competition is very severe—(1887) entered 772, passed 108; (1897) entered 829, passed 80—(3) that the age of a

* *Recueil de Lois et Règlements relatifs aux fonctionnaires des lycées et collèges* (p. 26), and *Tableau du personnel des lycées et collèges* (1896).

† The *école* is a college in which instruction, board, and lodging are given free to a limited number of scholars selected after competition from the best secondary school-boys. It prepares them to be teachers in the secondary schools or universities. No instruction in the theory and art of education is given. Many of the *Normaliens* subsequently become distinguished statesmen and writers. Among the number may be mentioned Taine, Jules Simon, Edmond About, Lavisso, Monod, de Coulanges, Gréard, Gaston Boissier, Richepin, and Pasteur.

candidate for admission is generally between 25 and 30 would make it at least evident that an *agrégé* has qualifications equal to and in many cases superior to those that competitors for an Oxford or Cambridge Fellowship are expected to possess. All the classes in the two *Divisions* are not yet taught by *Professeurs*; they are taught by well-qualified *chargés de cours* in possession of degrees or *certificats* defined by statute; but that these are not making way quickly enough for the *professeurs* is evident from the fact that temporary places have to be found for young *agrégés* in the *collèges*. In 1896 (*Tableau du personnel des lycées*) the proportion of *professeurs* to *chargés de cours* engaged in teaching the classes in the *Divisions* was as follows:

	Professeurs.	Chargés de Cours.
Lycées de Province	1,248	946
Lycées du Département de la Seine (Paris, Vanves, Sceaux) and Lycée de Versailles	465	11
	1,713	957

In the *collèges* the *professeurs des classes élémentaires* are expected to possess the *brevet supérieur de l'enseignement primaire* and the *certificat d'aptitude pédagogique* (Décret du 27 Juin 1892). To obtain the *brevet*, it is necessary to pass an examination in the subjects taught to elementary classes. The *certificat* is awarded to those who show a competent knowledge of the theory of education, and ability to teach and manage a class of boys.

The teachers of the *Divisions Supérieures et de Grammaire* must have the *licence ès lettres ou ès sciences*, or a certificate of equal value, or they must be *bacheliers*. It would be impossible to define exactly the distribution of the classes in the two *Divisions* among the *licenciés* and *bacheliers*, as it varies in each *collège*. The *licence ès lettres* is a University examination divided into "Schools." French, Latin, and Greek are compulsory subjects. The choice of the optional subject determines the candidate's selection of one or other of the "schools." An examination of the *programmes* and the age (20-25) of the candidates for the *licence* inclines us to regard it as equivalent in value to an Oxford Honour degree, but the difference in the nature of the two degrees makes it difficult to speak with any certainty. It would be equally difficult to estimate the exact value of the *licence ès sciences*. For the *licence avec mention langues vivantes* may be substituted the *certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement des langues vivantes*, to obtain which a competitive examination in Modern Languages has to be passed. By competing for the *certificat*, candidates are freed from the necessity of studying the classical subjects set for the *licence*. The holder of the *certificat* stands on an equal footing with the *licencié*; he will be a *professeur* in a *collège* and a *chargé de cours* in a *lycée*. That he is well

qualified to teach modern languages may be assumed from the severity of the competition. In 1897 out of 431 candidates only 36 were successful. Little need be said of the *bacheliers*. The examination they have to undergo is divided into two parts, *classique* and *moderne*, and it is the leaving examination for boys quitting the classical and modern sides in the secondary schools.

At present the value of a preparatory course of training in the art of education has been recognised only by few, and no serious efforts have been made to impose it upon intending secondary teachers. But in respect to their knowledge of the subjects they teach, the qualifications of the teachers in the State schools do not leave much to be desired; and, if the term "secondary" is applied only to the education given to the boys in the classes of the *Division Supérieure* (ages 14 and upwards), the scholarship of the staff is beyond criticism. Thus limited, secondary instruction in the *lycées* is given by *agrégés*, and in the *collèges* by *licenciés*, or by teachers with equally good qualifications.

III.—The best qualified and most experienced teachers are to be found in the 13 great *lycées* in or near Paris. They are entitled to higher salaries than the teachers in the provincial *lycées*, and these, again, are better paid than those in the *collèges*. The scale of remuneration is as follows* :—

Lycées (Seine et Versailles).

Professeurs des Classes		
Elémentaires -	Initial 3,000 <i>f.</i> (120 <i>l.</i>),	rising to 4,800 <i>f.</i> (192 <i>l.</i>)
Professeurs (Div. Supérieure		
et de Grammaire) -	„ 5,000 <i>f.</i> (200 <i>l.</i>),	„ 7,500 <i>f.</i> (300 <i>l.</i>)

Lycées de Province.

Professeurs (Elémentaires) -	Initial 2,500 <i>f.</i> (100 <i>l.</i>),	rising to 3,900 <i>f.</i> (156 <i>l.</i>)
Professeurs (Divisions) -	„ 3,200 <i>f.</i> (128 <i>l.</i>)	„ 5,200 <i>f.</i> (208 <i>l.</i>)
Chargés de Cour (all classes) „	2,100 <i>f.</i> (84 <i>l.</i>)	„ 4,800 <i>f.</i> (192 <i>l.</i>)

The teachers in the *collèges* are divided according to their qualifications into three classes :

Class I. (licence, certificat)-	Initial 2,500 <i>f.</i> (100 <i>l.</i>),	rising to 3,400 <i>f.</i> (136 <i>l.</i>)
Class II. (Bachelier) -	„ 1,900 <i>f.</i> (76 <i>l.</i>)	„ 2,700 <i>f.</i> (108 <i>l.</i>)
Class III. (Brevet) -	„ 1,600 <i>f.</i> (64 <i>l.</i>)	„ 2,400 <i>f.</i> (88 <i>l.</i>)

All the above salaries are non-resident. The *agrégés* for whom places have, at the start, to be found in the *collèges*, are paid the initial salary given to a *professeur de lycée*. Further, all the *agrégés* are entitled to an annual sum of 20*l.*, the *traitement d'agrégation* and a few senior *agrégés* receive *un complément de traitement*, amounting to 40*l.* in the *lycées* of the Seine and of Versailles, and to 20*l.* in the provincial *lycées* (Décret du 16 juillet, 1887, Art. 3). Augmentation of salary does not follow promotion from the mastership of a lower to a higher form, or promotion from one school to another, except it be from a *lycée de province* to the *lycées* of Paris and Versailles. The rate of increase is determined largely by the number of vacancies caused by retirement or death. In

* Décret du 16 juillet, 1887. For detailed table of salaries see *Recueil de Lois et Réglemens*, pp. 24-31 and 41-43.

apportioning the sum to be disposed of, attention is paid both to the claims of merit and of seniority—more to the former in the case of teachers of the higher forms. Questions relative to promotion and augmentation of salary are decided by a *comité consultatif*. As most of the members of this committee are secondary-school inspectors, and as they have before them the written opinions of the various persons outside the committee who have at any time inspected the work of a teacher, conspicuous merit is not in danger of being overlooked.

The teachers in the State schools have a right to a retiring pension at sixty years of age, after thirty years of service. This pension amounts to two-thirds of the average salary received by the teacher during the last six years of service, and must not exceed 6,000 francs (240*l.*). Towards this pension he pays five per cent. of his annual salary, a twelfth of his first year's salary, and the same amount each time his salary is augmented (Loi du 9 juin 1853). In certain cases a teachers who has been incapacitated by accidental causes, can obtain his pension whatever his age (*même loi* Art. 11). Those incapacitated by infirmities resulting from the exercise of their duties can secure the pension at 50 years of age, after 20 years of service (Art. 11). Provision is also made for the widows and orphans of secondary schoolmasters (Arts. 13. 14. 16).

The figures above stated represent actually more than the corresponding equivalents in pounds sterling, for the standard of comfort in France is undoubtedly lower than it is in England. Yet it would be rash to suppose that the immediate prospect of about 200*l.* a year, rising by slow stages to about 300*l.*, and the ultimate prospect of a small pension, are sufficient to induce so many brilliant university graduates (about 800 each year) to undergo, in spite of severe and increasing competition, the long and laborious preparation for the *agrégation*. The causes of the popularity of the scholastic profession in France must be looked for in the compensatory circumstances of the teacher's position.

IV.—The *personnel* of a French State school is divided into three groups: (1) The principal (*Proviseur de lycée, Principal de collège*) and his subordinates, who are responsible for the administration of the school; (2) *maîtres répétiteurs*, under the control of the *censeur* and *surveillants généraux*, who undertake the supervision of the pupils outside the class-room, and (3) the teachers, whose business it is to teach. *Firstly*, therefore, outside his class-room the teacher is free. *Secondly*, the number of hours' class-work that he is required to do each week is small compared to the number required from an English assistant-master. The *heures de service* are fixed by statute (*arrêté* du 25 août 1892). In the *lycée de Versailles* and the *lycées* of the Department of the Seine, the maximum number of hours class-work per week required of *professeurs* of classes in the *Division supérieure* is from 12 (highest class) to 15. The maximum number is not always exacted. There are cases in which the teacher has only seven hours a week class-work. For the *professeurs* of classes in the *Division de Grammaire* 15 is the maximum

and 19 for those in charge of the *classes élémentaires*. One or two more hours are required of the *professeurs* in the provincial *lycées*, and generally from about 16 to 20 of those in the *collèges*. For *chargés de cours*, the maximum is raised by one hour throughout. Every teacher is obliged, unless he is able to excuse himself on the plea of ill-health, to add to the maximum another two hours, if called upon to do so, in which case he receives an extra fee. A like fee is paid for any additional class-work that offers itself. A young *professeur agrégé*, known to the writer, receives for six hours per week extra class-work in a provincial *lycée*, fees amounting to 900f. (36l.), in addition to his salary of 3,700f. (148l.), for the regulation 16 hours.

In connection with the subject of *heures de service*, the opinion of an eminent educational authority, the late Professor Marion, is well worth recording: "*Si l'on veut que l'enseignement soit vif, les méthodes éducatives, l'action morale pénétrante, ce serait assez pour tous de quinze heures par semaine au maximum. Et moins encore serait mieux. Les élèves s'en trouveraient aussi bien que les maîtres* (L'Éducation dans l'Université 221-2). In other words, the value of the work done in the class-room depends not upon the number of hours devoted to it, but upon the freshness and keenness of both masters and pupils. In France this truth has not yet been fully recognised. The masters have a reasonable number of *heures de service*, but the pupils (Division Sup. and de Grammaire) are required to do from 10 to 11 hours of work a day. Further, the reduction of the *heures de service* has been, to some extent, effected at the expense of the pupils. Classes of 30 boys are common, and many are to be found numbering from 40 to 50. To teach classes of this size effectively is next to impossible.

The difficulties in the way of bringing about a reduction of the work-hours both of masters and pupils are numerous. One means of surmounting them, in favour of which much is to be said, would be found in a judicious re-arrangement and pruning of the secondary school curriculum. If the aim of instruction is, as has often been stated, to give the pupil power to think for himself and to create in him a love of knowledge, the quantity of matter taught is of far less importance than the method by which it is taught. It is not necessary for the boy to quit school with a load of book-learning, for the most part ill-digested and soon forgotten, but it is necessary for him to enter life with a well-ordered and well-trained mind, ready to assimilate fresh knowledge and capable of putting it to use. There is good reason for supposing that this aim would more easily be achieved if the school-boy were taught fewer subjects and those thoroughly, and if teachers were able to devote more time to preparing and thinking over their daily work.

Another way that suggests itself of accomplishing the reduction so as to avoid the expense of increasing the staff and the error of enlarging the classes, would be to lengthen the school-term and limit the holidays—at present of eleven weeks duration in France and of about fourteen in England—to eight or ten weeks which under the changed conditions of service would be ample. - Such a course would

not perhaps find favour with the parents of boys in boarding-schools, but it would be quite practicable in the case of day-schools.

V.—*Thirdly*, secondary teachers in France, if disposed to devote their spare time to private study and research, receive every encouragement from the University, which aids them in the choice of a subject and holds out to them the prospect of gaining the coveted distinction of *docteur*. This degree is the highest it confers, and it is the requisite qualification for a University professorship. It is open to all who are *licenciés*, and is obtained by writing a thesis. The post-graduate preparation for the *doctorat* is not fettered by restrictions of time and place; the thesis is prepared at leisure, and is the result of many years' careful study and research. Those who obtain the distinction have generally passed their 30th and sometimes their 40th year. The thesis is, in fact, often a standard work. Among others are the *Averroès*, of Renan; Claude Bernard, *le Suc gastrique et son rôle dans la nutrition*; Ribot, *L'Hérédité Psychologique*; Lachelier, *L'Induction*; Boutroux, *La contingence des lois de la nature*; Taine, *La Fontaine*; Larroumet, *Marivaux*; Rebelliau, *Bossuet*; and more recently Izoulet, *La Cité moderne*. The *docteurs* are for the most part either teachers in the secondary schools or ex-secondary teachers occupying a chair in one of the French universities. Both as a stimulus to the post-graduate study of education and of other subjects, and as a means of increasing the efficiency of the scholastic profession, the *doctorat* is an institution of the highest value.*

Other posts besides university professorships are open to the *élite* of French secondary teachers. Such are the inspectorships and the posts of *Recteur d'Académie*. The latter are the heads of the 16 (including the Académie d'Algers, 17) districts into which France is divided for educational purposes. The posts of *proviseur de lycée* are also given to teachers, but they are far from being as lucrative as the headmasterships of English public schools. The salary of the *proviseur* of a *lycée de Paris* does not exceed 360*l.* per annum. The prospects of the brilliant *docteurs* and *professeurs agrégés* are naturally not confined within the limits of the scholastic profession. Many quit the class-room to become statesmen, diplomatists, and writers. M. Burdeau, late President or Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies; M. Dupuy, ex-Prime Minister; Challemeil-Lacour, late President of the Senate; Jules Simon, Cardinal Perraud, MM. Patenôtre, Jaurès, Jules Lemaitre, and Francisque Sarcey are examples.

VI.—*Fourthly*, the status of the scholastic profession is much higher in France than in England. This is due to the fact that it is a closed profession, and that each year the *élite* of the university students pass in to it from the *École Normale Supérieure* and the *Sorbonne*. Moreover, the French schoolmaster belongs to a distinguished and united body, the *Université*. A *professeur* in a *lycée* or *collège* is as much a *professeur de l'université* as a professor at the *Sorbonne*. Many secondary teachers—30 at least in the 12 *lycées* of the Department of the Seine are *officiers* or *chevaliers de la Légion d'Honneur*. Lastly, the teacher has a voice in

* For further particulars relating to the *doctorat*, see Journal of Education, March, 1895 (p. 159).

the direction of educational affairs, for his representatives sit in the central council, the *Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique* (Loi du 27 février 1880). Of its 58 members, eight are *professeurs agrégés* elected by the *agrégés* in active service, and two are *licenciés* representing the *licenciés* in active service in the *collèges*.

VII.—The French master receives, it is true, but modest remuneration for his services. On the other hand the prospect of a safe income and a retiring pension makes it easy for him to throw his whole heart into his work, for it suffices to free him from the sense of insecurity which harasses the minds of most teachers on this side of the Channel. Furthermore he enjoys, as the foregoing summary testifies, many advantages that compensate largely for his comparative poverty. The result is that the State experience no difficulty in securing the services of the best of its University graduates, and is in a position to insist upon their qualifying themselves in a very thorough manner for their work.

F. B. KIRKMAN.

Works consulted—(1) "Recueil des Lois et Règlements relatifs aux fonctionnaires des lycées et collèges," in which will be found the *décrets* mentioned in this inquiry. (2) *Statistique de l'Enseignement Secondaire en 1887*—1^{re} Partie; (3) *Tableau du personnel des lycées et collèges 1896*. (4) *Plans d'études de l'enseignement Secondaire* (Delalain). (5) *Programmes des examens* (Delalain). (6) *Annuaire de l'Instruction Publique 1897* (Delalain). (7) Marion: *Education dans l'Université*. Much valuable information has been kindly supplied by the *Ministère de l'Instruction Publique* and by Educational Authorities in France.

The French Leaving Certificate.

Certificat d'Études Primaires.

The law authorizing the award of certificates.

By the Law of March 28, 1882, the Minister of Public Instruction in France was empowered and directed to provide, both in the capital and in the provinces, for the award of certificates to scholars at the end of the primary school course. The purpose of this measure was partly to attest that the holder had received a fair elementary education, and partly to facilitate his entrance into the ranks of labour.

This law has now been in operation for sixteen years, and has proved to be highly successful. Its influence on the social and industrial condition of the people, on the schools, the teachers and the parents, has been so marked that it well deserves the serious attention of English teachers and public authorities, and of all others interested in the expansion and improvement of our own school system.

Former report on the subject.

In a Parliamentary paper which I was instructed to prepare in 1891, I gave the following account of the working of the plan up to that date:—

“The most potent instrument in maintaining a high standard of school attendance in France is probably the *certificat d'études* or leaving certificate, for it applies not merely to the picked scholars who prolong their education in the higher grade schools but to the rank and file of French children. Any boy or girl, however or wherever educated, can, after the age of eleven, be presented to the local authority, and can claim, after passing a successful examination in elementary subjects, a certificate which will exempt him from the legal obligation to attend school and qualify him to obtain employment. The plan came into use as early as 1836, but was not legalised until the statute of 1882, which provided in every part of France for the establishment of a local tribunal or ‘jury’ empowered to examine candidates and to grant certificates. In that year the number of boys presented was 80,301, of whom 53,156 passed, the number of girls being 54,138, of whom 47,077 passed. During the last decade the numbers have steadily increased, and in 1889 123,598 boys and 97,012 girls were examined, of whom 90,663 boys and 74,458 girls passed, making a total of 165,211 children between the ages of 11 and 16, who in a single year satisfied the requirements of the examiners and received certificates. A similar leaving examination has been devised for the end of the course in the higher grade schools, and in 1889 there were 2,550 candidates (1,652 boys and 898 girls) presented at these examinations, of whom 1,491 (960 boys and 531 girls) were successful. In Paris alone in 1888 the total number of candidates for leaving certificates was 5,873 boys and 4,427 girls, 81 per cent. of the former and 78·3 of the latter having succeeded in the examination. It is to be observed that the proportion of successful scholars from the private or unaided schools is not less favourable than that of pupils from the public schools.

"The local jury or board empowered by law to issue these leaving certificates is variously composed of official and representative personages; but in every case much of the practical business of examination is done by the Government inspector, aided by the head teachers of the district, provision being made in every case that no teacher shall examine his own pupils. The law does not permit any child under 15 to work in a factory or workshop more than six hours a day, unless he or she has obtained the certificate. In Paris the examination extends to reading, writing, and arithmetic, the elements of geography, history, and natural science, and a composition on some familiar subject, especially the rights and duties of citizens—a branch of instruction much insisted on in French schools. A scholar of 13 or 14 unprovided with his *certificat d'études* has no chance of admission to a higher grade or technical school, and year by year such a scholar finds himself at a greater disadvantage when he presents himself in the industrial market. Employers everywhere seem to value the certificate, and the number of such employers who regard its possession as a condition to be fulfilled by applicants increases every year. It is hardly necessary to say that in public companies, in most large business establishments, and in all branches of the public service, the certificate is indispensable. M. Gréard speaks strongly of its moral effect: 'C'est le bénéfice des examens du certificat d'études qui tiennent les esprits en haleine et concourent ainsi à développer les habitudes de persévérance et de ponctualité dans le travail.'

"There can be little doubt that the leaving certificate system and the state of public opinion which sustains it, combine to exercise a strong influence on the regular attendance of the children. A scholar who is irregular has little chance of succeeding at the examination at all, and has certainly no chance of obtaining it so early as 11 or 12, and so of acquiring the right to go to work before he is 13. And since the scholars of the private and confessional schools are all alike eligible for the examination and have the same motives for attending it, the indirect effect of the law of 1882 is to improve the character of the instruction in those schools, and to secure a high average of 'frequentation' in them, although they are not directly subject to any State control. The one criticism which I have heard most frequently in France on the working of the system is that the local authorities often grant the certificate on rather too easy terms, especially where the demand for juvenile labour on farms is active. But the standard of proficiency is said to be improving."*

Further inquiries and experience have since confirmed the hopeful forecast which was thus expressed, and justify a fuller explanation of some administrative and other details.

The law prescribes that in every canton there shall be an Examining Commission composed of: (1) The Inspector of Primary Schools for the district, who acts as president, (2) Consti- of the commi- d'exam

* Memorandum on the working of the Free School System in America, France and Belgium, 1891.

several head teachers of Primary Schools, (3) two or more persons, *e.g.*, lawyers, doctors, professors or other local residents, specially nominated by the Rector of the Provincial Academy and known to be interested in the schools. These Cantonal Commissioners form a Board, which meets regularly at the end of each scholastic year.

The standard
of examina-
tion.

It is expressly enjoined that the level of the educational requirements shall not rise above the *cours moyen* of a good primary school. The examination is partly oral and partly written. It includes:—

- (a) A dictation exercise of about fifteen lines of print, which serves also as a test of handwriting.
- (b) Questions on arithmetic, the metric system and its simple applications, *avec solution raisonnée*.
- (c) A composition exercise on one of these subjects (i.) Moral and Civic Duty; (ii.) History and Geography; (iii.) Elementary notions of Science and its applications.
- (d) For girls an exercise in needlework, and for boys in rural schools an examination in agriculture, and in urban schools, one in drawing and design.

The oral part of the examination includes reading aloud, recitation of some choice literary extract, either in prose or verse, with questions on its meaning, besides general questions in history and geography.

A scale of marks is officially prescribed, and no candidate receives his certificate unless he scores at least half the marks attainable under each of the heads of the examination.

Besides these obligatory subjects, the candidate may present himself or herself for an additional examination in one or two optional (*facultative*) subjects, *e.g.*, drawing and design. Special mention is made on the certificate of any success thus attained.

The higher
leaving
certificate for
scholars of
the *école
primaire
supérieure*.

In addition to the ordinary certificate, another of a like kind has been provided for scholars of the higher primary school. No candidate is admissible to this examination who has not previously obtained the elementary certificate; and therefore no minimum age has been fixed for admission. The Commissioners to whom the higher duty of awarding this certificate has been entrusted are named in each Department by the Rector of the Provincial Academy. They include inspectors, professors in colleges or secondary schools, and lecturers in training colleges. Two ladies at least are nominated as members of each Commission, and are specially charged with the direction and supervision of the examinations for girls.

The examination for these higher certificates is attended for the most part by scholars at the end of the fifteenth or sixteenth year, who have pursued their studies in some higher grade school. It is open, however, to other candidates who fulfil the necessary conditions as to age and previous certification. These higher primary schools are, as has been fully and very clearly shown by Mr. Morant,* not secondary schools, but primary schools with

* The French System of Higher Primary Schools, p. 257 in Special Reports on Educational Subjects, 1897.

a developed programme, intended to carry forward the elementary school work on the same lines up to the age of 16. As I have explained in the memorandum already quoted,—“They are officially described as designed for those scholars for whom elementary education properly so called is not sufficient and for whose needs secondary education would be inappropriate.” They are not, in fact, secondary schools, the instruction in them is perfectly gratuitous, and they form an integral part of organised primary instruction. No Latin or Greek is taught in them; they stand in no relation to the *lycées* or the colleges, and they form no part of a scheme providing a “ladder” from the *Kindergarten* to the University.” Their aim is not to lift the pupil out of the ranks of the industrial class, but to enable him to occupy a higher and more honourable place within that class. They seek to provide education specially fitted for the skilled artisan or merchant’s clerk, and their chief attention is given to drawing, to *comptabilité*, to science, especially to physics, chemistry and mathematics; and to the acquisition of one modern language. In several of these schools special attention is given to manual training, to the use of tools and instruments, and to the learning of trades.

This being the general aim of the higher primary school, the *Certificat d’Etudes primaires supérieures* corresponds in the main to the curriculum of those schools. The examination, which is partly oral and partly by written papers, extends to five subjects:—

The su
and st
of exa
tion.

- (a.) A composition in French, consisting of a letter, a narrative—(*récit, compte rendu ou rapport, développement d’une maxime, etc.*)
- (b.) A paper on history and geography.
- (c.) An exercise in mathematics and in the elements of physical and natural science.
- (d.) Design and geometrical drawing.
- (e.) An exercise in one modern language at the choice of the candidate, German, English, Italian, Spanish or Arabic. An easy piece of translation is given of some passage not prescribed beforehand, but the candidate is permitted to use a lexicon.

Under each of these five heads, there are three distinct forms of examination corresponding to three several programmes adopted in the schools, viz.:—(1) The section for general instruction, (2) the industrial section, and (3) the commercial section. Candidates in inserting their names at the outset are required to specify the section in which they severally desire to be included. The fifth (e) of the departments of the examination (modern languages) may be dispensed with in the case of those who select the industrial or agricultural section, but is obligatory on all who present themselves in section (1) or (3). There are further special practical tests of proficiency in music, manual work, or gymnastics; and success attained in one of them is recorded to the credit of the student. The certificates thus

awarded are delivered to the candidates in a public ceremony by the Rector of the Provincial Academy, and in the presence of the municipal authorities and the parents.

The leaving examination not competitive.

It is an important feature of the whole scheme that the examinations are not competitive, and are not designed to single out scholars for special distinction. That purpose—a very legitimate one—is to be fulfilled, if at all, by other agencies. On this point M. Gréard says :—"Que certaines récompenses soient mises au concours, cela est désirable et n'a rien de dangereux. Mais, trop souvent renouvelé et appliqué au résultat proprement dit des études, le concours a pour effet d'incliner les maîtres et les élèves à la recherche des succès d'éclat, et rien ne serait plus préjudiciable au développement sagement entendu de l'instruction primaire. Les élites arriveront toujours à sortir du rang. C'est sur la masse des enfants que l'intérêt social commande d'exercer une action efficace. Qu'ils sachent que c'est par le travail de tous les jours, par la bonne conduite de tous les jours, sous les yeux de leurs camarades ordinaires et de leurs maîtres habituels, leurs juges à l'examen, qu'ils obtiendront l'avancement de classe proposé à leur application ou le certificat qui en constate le profit suprême : c'est là seulement que peuvent être la force et la moralité des études primaires."*

Statistics.

The extent to which this system prevails in France may be estimated from the fact that during the sixteen years in which it has been in existence the number of candidates and the proportion of successes have steadily increased. In 1897 the total number of scholars presented for examination was 236,859, of whom 129,460 were boys and 107,355 were girls. The number of certificates awarded was 101,309 to boys and 84,726 to girls, making a total of 186,035, and showing an average of 78.5 per cent. of successful candidates. Besides these, the number of scholars presenting themselves for the higher examination was 2,064, of whom 1,224 passed and obtained the diploma.

The practical effect of the system.

In practice, the system is found to fulfil several important purposes. It gives to teachers a clearly defined standard of the proper work of an elementary school, and indicates the goal which ought to be reached in the twelfth or thirteenth year by every fairly instructed child in such a school. It strengthens the hands of the teacher by supplying his scholars with an additional motive for diligence, and with a new interest in their own improvement. It is specially valued by parents, as an attestation of the progress of their children, and as a passport to honourable employment. It serves as an entrance examination for admission to higher and technical schools, and prevents those schools from being encumbered by the presence of pupils who are deficient in the rudiments of learning. It is year by year more highly appreciated by the heads of firms and other employers of labour, who are accustomed to ask for it before admitting young people into their service. Moreover it furnishes

* Éducation et instruction par Oct. Gréard Vice-Recteur de l'Académie de Paris : Membre de l'Académie Française. p. 85.

a measure of the efficiency of the primary schools, and a means of estimating the comparative success and ability of the teachers.

A very effective illustration of the actual working of the system, and of its influence on the home life of the industrial population, is furnished to me in a letter just received from a friend who has been travelling some time in rural France. He says:—

"While in France, I came across in a little village home, an interesting proof of the value set by parents and children on the primary certificates; and a young girl gave me a graphic account of the incidents of, and questions set in the examinations which she and her sister had in different years succeeded in passing. She was now about seventeen, but the examination five years before, had evidently been one of the most important events of her life. I was much struck by the effect which this all-round test had evidently had on the course of her education. So far as her training went, she was an educated girl, her school studies had not been patchy or disconnected, but formed a well balanced whole.

"I shall never forget the delightfully refined peasant mother, the beautifully clean living-room of the cottage, the neatly framed certificates on the wall, or the radiant pride with which she spoke when I noticed them: and then our talk with the young girl herself, one of the daughters who had won the certificates,—her self-possession, her modest pleasure in recalling all the circumstances of that memorable examination, and the cultivated balance of mind and bearing which showed itself in all her conversation."

This French experience is not without a special significance for ourselves at the present stage of our educational history. We have arrived by a series of tentative efforts at a point at which it is desirable to review the work of our elementary school system; to ask whether it has accomplished all that it was hoped to achieve or is capable of achieving; and to set before ourselves a more clearly defined ideal of the purposes which a good primary school ought to fulfil.

Hitherto the Education Department has sought to attain its end by laying down with great precision the steps by which the elementary course should be graduated and by defining the subjects and the degrees of attainment which are appropriate respectively to the years of study from the seventh year to the age of fourteen. For a time, these regulations were practically enforced through the plan of assessing the amount of public grant payable to each school by counting the number of passes after individual examination. Although this plan has been abandoned, the amount claimable by the several bodies of local managers, as their share of the Parliamentary grant is still to some extent determined by the number of subjects taken up in a school, and by the results of individual examination, as recorded in the Inspector's report. Experience has shown that these

The be
of this
experie
the pro
that hi
to be s
in Eng

Our
standa

regulations have had some effects, both favourable and unfavourable, on the general progress of education.

Their
defects.

On the one hand, it has been found that prescribed standards of examination and attainment for each year, even with the large range of options permitted by the Code, often interfered injuriously with the liberty of classification, and with the teacher's power to adapt his methods to the varied requirements of his scholars. The connexion of the results of each examination with the award of a money payment, and often with the amount of a teacher's salary, introduced a disturbing mercenary element into his calculations, and sometimes tempted him to adopt measures designed too consciously rather with a view to obtain the maximum grant than to subserve the best interests of the scholars.

Their
advantages.

On the other hand, schedules of graduated instruction such as appear in the appendices to the English Code have their value, as showing what is the amount of acquirement which can reasonably be expected of children at the successive stages of their school career. They serve as a guide both to teachers and inspectors; they give definiteness to the plans of all the members of a school staff; and they could not be dispensed with except at the risk of much looseness and incoherence, both in the aims and in the practice of primary instruction.

Individual
examination.

Moreover, individual examination, though an unsatisfactory method of computing a money grant, unquestionably acts as a safeguard for thoroughness and exactness, and as the best measure of a scholar's progress. It is held to be indispensable in all higher schools and universities, that such examination should be conducted, in part at least, by external authority and not wholly by the teachers themselves. Nobody proposes to substitute a mere general inspection of methods and organization for actual individual examination in our secondary and public schools. No parent in such a school would be satisfied to learn that his son belonged to a class which was certified by an inspector to be well ordered and taught. He would desire to know in fuller detail the *status* and progress of the particular pupil in whom he was most interested. It is to be feared that the association in the minds of English elementary teachers between individual examination and a wrong and discredited mode of distributing public money, has led to a belief that the examination of the actual attainments of individual scholars is in itself an error in our educational policy and even a grievance to teachers. Yet it is one of the truest tests of the efficiency of an educational system. The inductive method of investigation and verification, which is now employed in all departments of science, which judges the worth of theories and methods, by asking what is their practical out-come and result, and which refuses to assume that any one method is necessarily the best until it is subjected to the test of experiment, must ever find its due place in any system of organised public instruction. Provided that we secure in the first place a right conception of the results which ought to be attained, and in the second a skilful and impartial method of

appraising those results, schools and educational processes must always to some extent be estimated by the results which they can produce. Careful individual examination is needed for the due satisfaction of parents and of school managers, for the proper award of any prize or distinction which the school may provide, and for the protection of the interests of the less forward scholars who are not likely to win any distinction. And it is difficult to see how responsible public authorities can dispense with it, if they would maintain a high standard of excellence in either the work or the methods of our schools.

But it is desirable that we should recognise fairly the necessary limits to any system of individual examination. All good teachers know that the best part of their work cannot be measured by any examiners, however skilful and sympathetic. The kindling of interest, the formation of taste and character, the habits of observation and of application, the love of reading, and the aspiration after further knowledge and self-improvement are among the best and highest results of school training. But although these are of supreme importance, they are precisely the results which cannot be adequately tested by examination. At the same time the history of the past shows that these results are generally secured incidentally and most effectively in those schools in which the intellectual level is highest, and in which work of the ordinary educational type is most honestly and systematically done. We have to admit, once for all, that there is an inevitable and very serious drawback to the usefulness of examinations. We can only measure what is measurable. Yet while some of the more precious and less palpable results of instruction may escape observation and defy the analysis of examiners, that part of education which takes the form of direct instruction and is capable of being tested by individual examination, is, though not the highest part, yet a very substantial factor in the education of the child. We have learned by experience that it is a mistake to make a *fetish* of the examination system, or to regard it as a satisfactory or final solution for all our educational problems. But we may yet have to learn that it would be an equally grave mistake to discard it altogether, or to lose sight of its legitimate uses. The opposite of wrong is not necessarily right, and it must be manifest to all who are intimately acquainted with the subject that in our present stage of educational progress we cannot safely part with an instrument which constitutes the most effective safeguard we have yet known both against superficial teaching and inadequate inspection.

This paper is written in the belief that such a safeguard may be provided by one thorough and well-considered final examination, adapted to test the result of the primary school course, at its ordinary termination about the fourteenth year. If the standard which a well-instructed child ought to reach by that age is once clearly defined, and teachers become substantially agreed as to the end to be attained: the

The limitations to usefulness

An English leaving certificate for elementary schools.

necessity of an authoritative annual examination in standards to a large extent disappears; the freedom of classification and the choice of methods remain with the teacher, and such communication to parents as is desirable respecting the details of a scholar's advancement from year to year may be left wholly to the local school authorities. But it is essential that the Education Department, which is responsible not only for the distribution of large public funds, but also for the maintenance of a high and improving ideal of elementary education in the country, should know from year to year what is the outcome of the methods pursued in the schools, and how many scholars are turned out fairly equipped with the instruction needed for the business of life.

Certificates
of attainment
in special
subjects.

Separate certificates for proficiency in certain selected subjects, such as the Science and Art Department has been accustomed to award, do not wholly meet the need. The encouragement which has been given to elder scholars and pupil teachers to work for a science certificate, and as soon as it is obtained to try for another in a different subject, has not been helpful but often mischievous in its influence on the general education of the student. The practice of dealing with the parts of instruction piecemeal and making separate reports and payments in respect of each subject, has often served to dislocate the plans of good teachers, and to prevent them from considering the education of the scholar as a whole. The plan adopted by the Scotch Education Department of awarding to the scholar from a secondary school leaving certificates, *e.g.*, in mathematics, in Latin, Greek or English, at the choice of the candidate, may be justified by the fact that he has generally reached the age at which it is legitimate for him to select the subject in which he desires to distinguish himself. But such a leaving certificate carries with it no assurance that the holder possesses a good general foundation for a liberal education. And it would clearly not be a suitable precedent for the leaving certificate of the elementary school.

Labour
certificates.

Nor can the labour certificates at present awarded by the Department be regarded as a satisfactory test of school work from an educational point of view. So long as the Elementary Education Act of 1876, and the several Acts which regulate the employment of children in factories and workshops remain in force, the award of what are called "certificates of proficiency" must continue under the present conditions. But these certificates attest nothing but a meagre outfit of reading, writing and arithmetic. To "reach" a standard which will satisfy the Act of Parliament or bye-laws of a School Board district is to give little or no evidence of general knowledge or intelligence; and the state of the law and of public opinion which accepts the passing of the third or fourth standard in the three elementary subjects as a reason for the early withdrawal of a child from school to labour for which he is ill-prepared is as injurious in its effect on the schools as it is inimical to the true interests of the scholars and their parents. A legal minimum is often interpreted

by poor parents as if it were the maximum, or at least as if it were sufficient; and the official use of the word "proficiency" in connexion with the bare requirements of a low standard according to the first schedule in the appendix of the Code sometimes conveys, to those whose sympathy with educational authorities it is of the utmost importance to secure, a false and misleading impression. Moreover, the fact that the labour certificate has a pecuniary value and that to withhold it from a family struggling with poverty seems unkind or inconsiderate, often causes a not unreasonable leniency in the examination, and materially diminishes the educational value of the certificate. It may well be doubted whether the imposition of legal restraints and disabilities on ill-instructed children, or the encouragement of early exemption from school attendance in the case of scholars who happen to be precocious is or is not a wise expedient for securing the true improvement which we all desire. Probably it will be found in the long run that we may rely more safely on measures such as will serve to keep prominently in public view the goal which ought to be reached, and a just estimate of the work which throughout its whole course a good school ought to do for its pupils.

From this point of view, the merit certificate provided in the regulations of the Scotch Education Department deserves the attentive consideration of school authorities on this side of the Tweed:—Article 29 of the Scotch Code contains this provision:—

The Scotch merit certificate.

"A certificate of merit will be granted once only by the Department to any scholar over 12 years of age who satisfies the Inspector that he has attained a standard of thorough efficiency in the three elementary subjects, as well as in the class subjects (at least two) professed in the school.

"The managers will furnish a list (on a schedule supplied by the department on special application by the managers) of the scholars to be presented for merit certificates; and the teacher must certify to the character and conduct of each pupil admitted to the examination.

"The merit certificate will attest thorough efficiency in the three elementary subjects, and will state the class subjects and specific subjects (if any) taken by the scholar to whom it is granted. No merit certificate will be issued to a scholar who has not mastered all the standards set forth in Article 28 (elementary subjects) or who does not show ease and fluency in reading, considerable fluency in writing and composition, and the power of applying the rules of arithmetic in a way likely to prove useful in the common affairs of life. Some test of mental arithmetic will also be applied."

Thus the experience gained in Foreign countries, especially that of the *Certificat d'études primaires* in France and Belgium, coincides with that acquired in the northern part of our own island, and reveals the existence of a want which our English system does not supply. In seeking to apply this experience

Condition be fulfilled in applying this experience England

to our own special circumstances and needs, two or three preliminary considerations appear to deserve some weight:—

(1.) The examination should not be competitive, and should not have for its prominent object the discovery or reward of exceptional merit. Its purpose should be to set before schools and scholars generally the nature and scope of a good elementary education, and to offer such a test as a boy or girl of average diligence and intelligence ought to attain.

(2.) No prize or immediate pecuniary advantage should be associated with it. No legal enactment need enforce it, and no penalty should be incurred by those who do not possess it. Its value should depend entirely on the quality of the attainments it professed to attest, on the fairness and thoroughness of the examination, and on the increased appreciation year by year of the worth of a good education on the part of parents and the public. Considered as an instrument for raising and maintaining the standard of instruction, the award of a leaving certificate should be regarded as an educational measure only; and the less teachers and examiners are liable to be influenced by compassion to individuals, or by regard to the pecuniary effect of the award, the better.

(3.) In measuring the claims of a scholar to receive a certificate regard should not be had to the number of subjects he takes up, or to the grants he has enabled the school to earn. Nor should any authority fix the relative importance of certain subjects, or seek to enforce, *e.g.*, in rural districts, the study of agriculture or in great towns, the study either of commercial account keeping, or of any particular local handicraft. The chief objects to be kept in view are to secure that a satisfactory use has been made of a good elementary course, and that this course, while including all the necessary rudiments of learning, shall leave room for optional subjects adapted, in different places, to the local requirements and to the particular aptitudes and qualifications of teachers.

The ideal
primary
school course.

These general conditions being premised, it remains to consider what it is that education—so far as its results are ascertainable by examination—should have accomplished for a scholar who quits an elementary school at the age of thirteen or fourteen. We cannot escape the enumeration of details or the authorisation of some sort of syllabus; although we may admit that the attention of teachers has too often been directed hither to the list of separate subjects than to a rounded and complete scheme of discipline and training as a whole.

Now the curriculum of every school ought to comprise:—

- (1.) Reading, writing, and arithmetic, as laid down in the several standards of the Education Department, up to the seventh.
- (2.) The English language, with the elements of grammar and exercises in English composition.
- (3.) The outlines, at least, of British geography and English history.

- (4). The rudiments of physical and experimental science.
- (5). Some acquaintance with good literature, and the learning by heart of choice passages from the best authors.
- (6). Drawing, needlework (for girls), and for boys some other form of manual instruction.
- (7). Moral and religious instruction.

This item is not placed last through any doubt of its supreme importance, but simply because of the impossibility of estimating it accurately, and because, even if it admitted of exact measurement, the officers of the State are not the persons to perform the task.

In regard to the items marked 1, 2, 3, and 5, it is reasonable to expect that satisfactory evidence of a tolerably uniform kind might be expected from all candidates alike. As to 4 and 6, considerable diversities of plan and practice may properly be looked for and encouraged. In science, for example, one school may cultivate mechanics, chemistry, or some other subject having a visible and immediate application to industry and to success in business; and another may prefer the sciences which, intellectually, have a higher value, though they have no obvious bearing on money-getting or the business of life. It may suffice to mention two examples of what is here meant. Natural history—the study of plants and animals, the classification and arrangement of specimens—is well calculated to exercise the observant faculty, and to train the scholar to accuracy and to systematic thinking, although its immediate utility is not obvious at first sight. Astronomy, too, has been strangely neglected in school *curricula*, probably because it is of no commercial importance and no prizes are obtainable for pursuing it. Yet there is no study better calculated to exalt the imagination, to enlarge the mental horizon of the student, and to help him to know the universe he lives in, and his own place in it. A teacher who is interested in this subject, and who helps his scholars to observe the motion of the stars, to discriminate fixed stars from planets, and to know something of the moon and its phases, ought to find that his efforts are encouraged and that any results he can achieve are duly recognised.

Besides its regular course of lessons, as prescribed in its time-table, every good school ought to do something to call forth latent power and sympathy, and to stimulate the love of reading and inquiry, and the desire for further knowledge. The teacher who devises any new plan for securing these objects should have the opportunity of submitting his plan to the official examiner, and securing due credit for any optional subject which has a truly formative and educational character. In no other way can we hope to escape from a stereotyped and barren routine, and to enlist in the development of national education the sympathies, the inventiveness and the varied knowledge of the best teachers.

It is highly desirable that some part of the examination should be oral, and should be designed rather to test a scholar's general intelligence, his knowledge of the meaning of what he reads,

Some optional subjects.

Oral examination.

his power of expression and his interest in his school work, than the accuracy of his information. It is also important that a certificate of good character and attendance at school should be a condition precedent to admission to the examination.

The relation
between
school and
home.

One great need in our present social and educational arrangements is the establishment of closer relations between the school and the scholar's home. The public opinion which in Scotland and in France, Germany and Switzerland, has led to a high appreciation of the blessings of a good education, hardly exists to the same extent among the poorer English parents, although it is yearly becoming more pronounced. It is greatly helped by school lending libraries, by school savings banks, by scholarships and exhibitions obtainable by merit and tenable in technical or other higher schools. It was in some degree assisted by the now disused duplicate schedule, which furnished year by year particulars accessible to the parents, and enabled them to tell the progress of their children. It would probably be helped yet more, if as in America the parents were annually invited to a public ceremony, at which opportunity was afforded to see something of the methods pursued in the school, and of the results produced. But it would be most effectually encouraged, if there were—clearly set forth, and intelligible to the public—a standard of attainment which every scholar ought to reach before quitting the elementary school, and if the co-operation of the parents were sought in the efforts of school authorities to maintain that standard. It is to be feared that among the wage-earning classes there is at present a very imperfect recognition of the fact that the practical difference between the successful and the unprosperous man, is largely dependent on the time spent in preparation for the business of life. Every year at school adds to the worth of a youth on entering the labour market, and gives him a better chance of future advancement. And as it would be a serious mistake to increase the inducements to shorten the period of school life, the Leaving Certificate should not be granted before the end of the thirteenth year, and should always be given on conditions which pre-suppose regular application up to that age.

The Certificate to be granted by the State, rather than by local authorities.

It may be added that the value of the certificate would be far greater, if it were granted under the direct authority of the State, than if School Boards, Managing Committees, or individual teachers awarded it. There would be better security for the maintenance of a uniform and impartial standard, and for the absence of local and personal influence. Moreover allowance must be made for a very natural and not unreasonable sentiment, which causes the average parent and scholar to regard a certificate signed by a public officer, such as Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools, as a document possessing special dignity and as an object of honourable ambition.

In summing up the purpose of this brief paper, it is right to add that the measure here advocated, is only one of many expedients by which the progressive improvement of our system

of public instruction may be secured. It is not a panacea. It will not by itself solve all the practical problems which await the educational reformer of the future. But we are entitled to indulge in a hopeful view of some of its probable consequences, if once the principle on which it rests were officially recognized, and publicly approved. It would certainly have the effect of defining more exactly the course of instruction which should be adopted in public elementary schools; and would afford an additional and much needed safeguard for thoroughness and exactness in instruction. It would help teachers in securing discipline and regular attendance, if they were able to say that without these they would not feel justified in certifying that the scholar was eligible to be examined. It would arouse the interest and the sympathy of the parents, and give them a new motive for co-operating with the school-teachers. It would greatly facilitate the work of secondary and technical schools, by furnishing them with an appropriate entrance examination. It would help the employers of labour to discriminate among the applicants for situations. And it is not too much to hope that by degrees the influence of the system would serve to make clearer in the eyes of the public the relations between character, knowledge, and intelligence, on the one hand, and, on the other, the honour, prosperity, and usefulness of the citizen's life.

May, 1898.

J. G. FITCH.

THE
TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES
IN
BELGIUM AND HOLLAND.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Scope of Enquiry	650
English deficiency in conversational knowledge of languages	650
Reasons for this	650
Sources of Information	651
(1) Personal visits to Schools	651
(2) Conversation	651
(3) Printed documents	651
Situation in Belgium	651
" Mouvement Flamand "	651
The Teachers	652
(1) Nationality	652
(2) Training (a) For Primary Teachers, (b) For Secondary Teachers	653
Examination (a) of Primary Teachers, (b) of Secondary Teachers	656
Examining Body	657
" Direct " Method of Teaching defined	658
Visit to Normal Section, Brussels	659
(1) German Lesson	659
(2) English Lesson	659
Visit to Training College, Bruges	660
(1) German Lessons	660
(2) French Lessons	660
Visit to Training College, Ghent	660
(1) French Lesson	660
(2) English Lesson	661
(3) German Lesson	661
Teaching of Languages in Primary Schools	661
Visit to two Primary Schools	663
French Lessons	663, 664
Teaching of Languages in Secondary Schools	665
(1) In Athénées	665
(2) Secondary Schools, Boys and Girls	665, 666
Concours Général	666
Progress of Language Teaching	666
Visit to Secondary School under the State	666
(1) English Lesson to Classe Maternelle	666
(2) German Lesson to Girls of first year	667
(3) German Lesson to Girls of third year	667
(4) English Lesson in Cours Supérieur	668
Visit to École Professionnelle	668
Visit to Secondary School of the Commune	668
(1) English Lesson to Kinder Garten	668
(2) English Lesson to Girls of first year	668
(3) German Lesson to Girls of first year	668
Secondary School for Boys at Antwerp	669
(1) English Lesson to youngest class	669
(2) French Lesson to Boys of second year	669
(3) French Lesson to highest class	669
Results of " Direct " Method	669
Polyglot Club	670
Conferences of Teachers	671

TABLE OF CONTENTS.—*continued.*

II.—HOLLAND.

Dutch talent for languages	-	-	-	-	- 672
Reasons for this	-	-	-	-	- 672
Dutch custom as to language-teaching	-	-	-	-	- 672
Decentralisation of Dutch education	-	-	-	-	- 673
Teachers	-	-	-	-	- 673
(1) Training. (a) Primary Teachers. (b) Secondary Teachers	-	-	-	-	- 673
Training Colleges	-	-	-	-	- 674
(2) Examination. (a) Primary Teachers. (b) Secondary Teachers	-	-	-	-	- 674
Travelling Scholarships	-	-	-	-	- 674
Examining Body	-	-	-	-	- 675
Language-teaching	-	-	-	-	- 675
(1) In Primary Schools	-	-	-	-	- 675
(2) In Secondary Schools	-	-	-	-	- 675
Abiturienten Examination	-	-	-	-	- 675
Visits to Primary Schools at the Hague	-	-	-	-	- 676
(1) French Lessons	-	-	-	-	- 676
Higher Grade Primary School at the Hague	-	-	-	-	- 676
English Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 677
Primary School at Leiden	-	-	-	-	- 677
French Lessons	-	-	-	-	- 677
Secondary School at the Hague (Girls)	-	-	-	-	- 677
English Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 677
Secondary School at Utrecht (Boys)	-	-	-	-	- 677
French Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 678
English Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 678
Dutch Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 678
Private School at Scheveningen (Girls)	-	-	-	-	- 678
French Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 678
Commercial School at Amsterdam (Boys)	-	-	-	-	- 678
German Lesson	-	-	-	-	- 678
English Lessons	-	-	-	-	- 678
School Visit to England	-	-	-	-	- 679

The Teaching of Modern Languages in Belgium and Holland.

I. Belgium.

Scope of enquiry.

In enquiring into the methods of teaching modern languages in Belgian and Dutch schools, my chief object was to ascertain, if possible, what special means were employed to secure that greater facility in *speaking* foreign languages which undoubtedly exists among the present generation of Belgian and Dutch ladies, and in a less marked degree perhaps, among men also, when compared with our own powers.

Want of practical knowledge of modern languages in England.

English girls, on leaving a good school, usually have a fair knowledge of French Grammar, and often of German, and have read intelligently some literary masterpieces; but it is a melancholy fact that when girls who have passed even the Cambridge "Higher" Examination are confronted with a foreigner, they are usually unable to understand, or to speak intelligibly; while with boys the case is even worse, for they have often only a very imperfect knowledge even of the written language.

Reasons for this.

No doubt allowance must be made for our national character, with its unfortunate self-consciousness and *mauvaise honte*, amusingly noted many years ago by that gentlest of satirists, Cowper, in his "Conversation":

"Our sensibilities are so acute
The fear of being silent makes us mute.
We sometimes think we could a speech produce
Much to the purpose, if our tongues were loosed;
But being tied, it dies upon the lip,
Faint as a chicken's note that has the pip. . . .
Few Frenchmen of this evil have complained;
It seems as if we Britons were ordained,
By way of wholesome check upon our pride,
To fear each other, fearing nought beside.
The cause perhaps enquiry may descry,
Self-searching, with an introverted eye,
Concealed within some unsuspected part,
The vainest corner of our own vain heart."

We may also claim that English is understood and spoken over so large an area, as to make it apparently less necessary for us to learn other languages; but this is a humiliating position to take up; and we must remember how much is lost to a traveller who only understands what is said directly to him, and cannot follow the conversation going on all around him. We may take refuge in our insular position; but surely that is no reason for 'insular' ideas, a more developed form of that 'provincialism' of which Matthew Arnold so hotly accuses us. We may doubtless find excuses for ourselves; but if we search for causes, may there not be defects in our method of teaching? We have for centuries attached deservedly great weight to the study of Latin and Greek; have we not carried on into our teaching of modern languages the time-honoured methods which have proved successful in the case of Classics, without taking into account the

essential difference between living and dead languages? For since the object to be attained is different, so also should the method of teaching be modified.

To amend this defect, it is obvious that in the future we must look for different qualifications in our *teachers* of modern languages, and must introduce oral tests in our principal examinations.

In the interest of such an enquiry as I proposed to myself, two dangers lurk on the very threshold. The freshness and consequent attractiveness of new methods may make us too ready to identify novelty with wisdom; and there is the still greater danger of generalising too rashly on insufficient evidence. Diffi
of ex

I will endeavour to guard against the first by simply stating facts, and abstaining as far as possible from inferences; and, with regard to the second, I will at once name my chief sources of information, so that their value may be approximately weighed. Sour
infor

(1) In Belgium I visited nine schools of various grades, in Brussels, Ghent, Bruges, and Antwerp, and heard twenty-two lessons in English, German, and French to Flemish pupils, to whom it was a foreign language. The schools were as follows:— Scho
visit

Brussels. Two Écoles Primaires. (Boys and Girls.)

„ Two Écoles Moyennes. (Girls.)

„ One École Professionnelle. (Girls.)

„ One Section Normale. (Girls.)

Bruges. One École Normale. (Girls. Convent School recognised by the State.)

Ghent. One École Normale. (Boys.)

Antwerp. One École Moyenne. (Boys.)

(2) I enjoyed valuable opportunities of gaining information from experts, such as the organisers and inspectors of Primary and Secondary Education; and from the Directors and staff of the schools visited, all of whom showed the most courteous and ready desire to assist me in every possible way. And in conversation with thoughtful and intelligent persons taking a general interest in education, I learnt much of value as to the popular unprofessional view of the question; and I was struck by the knowledge and interest displayed by such persons in the subject of national education of all grades. Othe
of inf
tion.

(3) I was liberally supplied with printed matter, Reports, Instructions to Teachers and Inspectors, Historical Surveys, Discussions on questions of principle, and the like. Both the amount and the character of these impressed me very much; while always starting with defined general principles, they relate all details to these with the greatest care, and are distinguished by a sympathy and human feeling not always present in official documents.

The teaching of modern languages in Belgium is beset with peculiar difficulty; not only is it a bilingual country, but race-feeling is strongly developed. Of late years a very interesting “Mouvement Flamand” has sprung up, and has been instrumental in leading the Government to take measures for ensuring as good Situa
Belgi

teaching in Flemish as in French in all parts of the kingdom ; and at the University of Ghent a Chair of Flemish Language and Literature has been founded.

No doubt politics have something to do with this movement. Until lately popular leaders and orators have been for the most part French-speaking, while the best literary men have chosen French for their vehicle of expression, as appealing to a wider audience. There is a not unnatural desire now to train educated men who can speak to the people in their own language.

In 1883 a law was passed increasing the amount of Flemish teaching in Belgium, and was followed by others, making a knowledge of Flemish compulsory for all candidates for Government appointments ; and now French and Flemish are compulsory in schools either maintained or recognised by the State or the Communes. In Higher Grade Schools a third language, English or German, is added, while in the *Athénées*, Latin, and in many cases Greek, is taught. It will therefore be apparent that only very good teaching will secure adequate progress in so many languages.

1. Teachers.

Teachers.

Turning now to details. As the teachers are the most important factors in the teaching, I propose to consider them first, under the following heads : (a) Nationality ; (b) Training ; (c) Examination.

Nationality.

(a) *Nationality*.—When I commenced my enquiry I was strongly in favour of a teacher teaching only his own language ; but in Belgium I found a singular consensus of opinion in favour of Belgian teachers, and from what I saw and heard, both there and in Holland, I have changed my opinion, on the following grounds :—

- (i) It is far harder for a foreign teacher to maintain discipline, owing to imperfect understanding of the character of his pupils ; while his foreign accent and the mistakes he is liable to make in their language are apt to expose him to the ridicule of the children.
- (ii) A foreign teacher cannot enter thoroughly into his pupils' special difficulties nor detect their source, which often springs from applying the rules of their own language to another of different construction ; the corrections given by a foreigner will then often appear arbitrary, while a native can explain just where the difference comes in.
- (iii) Experience has shown, though with many brilliant exceptions, that it is not always easy to tempt the *best* teachers to leave their own country. Sometimes failures at home are apt to go abroad, under the impression that they can at least teach their own language, even if they have neither training nor experience.

On the other hand, there must almost inevitably be a slight sacrifice in accent and idiom ; but a fair acquaintance with idiom can be acquired by a comparatively short residence in the country ;

while it is so rare for a foreigner to obtain an accent such as will deceive a native into hailing him as a compatriot, that it is merely a question of a *more or less* good accent; and I think fluency of speech and a real knowledge of the language may well be prized above accent. The habit in Belgium seems to be to choose Belgian teachers who have spent some time abroad, and who frequently spend their holidays in travelling; or in some cases, the children of mixed marriages.

It is worthy of note here that a large and increasing number of teachers from all countries take advantage of the summer meetings now organised at Cambridge, Oxford, Edinburgh, Paris, Caen, Jena, Greifswald, &c.; and that this year a hundred and fifty teachers were drawn to Oxford from ten different countries to attend a course in England by Dr. Sweet.

It is much to be wished that small travelling scholarships should be given to teachers of modern languages to go abroad and study not only languages but methods. Belgium does not as yet do so much in this way as some other countries, although scholarships of at least 2,000 frs. are given to young Doctors of Philosophy, Letters, Law, and Medicine, who have specially distinguished themselves at the Universities, to enable them to study for another year or two in a foreign country; these are awarded by competition and are not very numerous. I am informed now that the Conseil de Perfectionnement has recommended to the Government the establishment of small scholarships of about 400 frs. for teachers actually employed in teaching modern languages, to enable them to attend the summer meetings in foreign countries in greater numbers.

It would be a great advantage if greater facilities existed for English teachers to study foreign methods on the Continent and in America. At present, if a teacher is willing to bear the expense of the journey, salary must also be sacrificed. It seems to me that few methods of expending money would be more remunerative than to establish travelling scholarships; and a little money thus spent would go a long way.

(b) *Training*.—In Belgium, teaching is an open profession; *Trainir* but no one can teach in a State school without a diploma, and in any communal or private school recognised by the State, at least half the teachers must have a certificate. *Écoles Normales* are provided both for Primary and Secondary Teachers; the former *must* pass through a Training College, to obtain a diploma; but the latter may be admitted to examination without regard to the place where they have obtained their knowledge.

(i.) Taking Primary Training Colleges first, there are eight *Primar* State Institutions, five for men and three for women; there are *Trainin* also thirty-six Training Colleges recognised by the State, both *College* Communal and in connection with religious houses, twelve for men and twenty-four for women. Also some schools have a normal section attached to them; two such exist for men and three for women; total, forty-nine training colleges in all.

The entrance age of students must not be less than fifteen

nor more than twenty-three; the former is more usual. The course of training lasts for four years, and seems to be carefully adapted to develop both general culture and teaching power; e.g. a ministerial circular impresses on the teaching staff the necessity of encouraging a large amount of personal effort and initiative in the students themselves in carrying out their own education; the Socratic method is to be largely practised, and *personality* is to have free play: "A good teacher for a normal college must be a patient initiator of intellectual interests, rather than a deliverer of set lectures. He knows that it is far more important to stimulate mental spontaneity than to increase receptivity." Great stress is laid on the need for *literary* training; "lessons may be accurate, painstaking, clear, exhaustive, but wholly unattractive; what is wanting is 'le soufle littéraire.'" If this literary breath does not vivify thought, it is deprived of the power of communication, it will not impress itself strongly on the minds of the listeners, for "literature should be not only the ornament, but the instrument of the mind."

Teaching of Languages.

These ideas are exemplified in the teaching of languages. Every student enters with a fair knowledge of French and Flemish, having in school devoted from three to four and a half hours a week to that language with which he is at least familiar, and in the Training Colleges about half the students take up a third language. The time given to the study of the secondary language (French for Flemings, and Flemish for Wallons) is three hours a week during the first three years, and two during the fourth. The course of teaching prescribed is practical, varied, and interesting. In each year *conversation* is insisted on; exercises are done *viva voce* as well as in writing; short anecdotes and descriptions are given orally by the teacher, and are made the subjects of informal talks between him and the class; parsing and analysis are done orally; great attention is paid to accent and elocution; chosen books are read, and an account of them is given verbally; the composition and derivation of words is taught; and special importance is attached to paraphrasing and synonyms. The teacher gives his whole lesson in the language he is teaching, and avoids translation as far as possible, explaining by periphrases or synonym, and never asking the class to explain in their mother-tongue; he will rather say, "Can you put that in other words?"

Each year's Programme goes over much the same ground, but the difficulty is carefully graded; and in this way the language is treated from the first as an organic whole, which is studied in closer detail as the students progress. During the first two years the Programme which the students will have to follow in their future schools is carefully and systematically explained, showing it to be no mere arbitrary regulation, but a well-conceived plan based on scientific principles.

Practising School.

Attached to every State Training College is a practising school, where every student hears model lessons, and every week himself gives six half-hour lessons before his fellow-students, who criticise,

while certain chosen students take down in writing an account both of the lesson and the criticisms. The subject of the lesson is given out two days before, and is prepared by all the students, the one who finally gives it being chosen by lot on the morning of the day itself.

The students have all to prepare their lesson in writing, and submit it to the teacher, who returns it the same day with corrections and suggestions, and the students modify their work in accordance with these. Every student also corrects, under supervision, a certain number of exercise books of the children in the practising school.

(ii.) Turning now to the Training of Secondary Teachers, the question was considered by the Government as long ago as 1850, when courses were established to prepare teachers for the *Athénées*, Colleges, and *Écoles Moyennes*; but in 1890 these were suppressed, and special sections for secondary teachers were established alongside of those for primary teachers, at Nivelles and Gand for men, at Liège and Brussels for women. It will be seen at once that this provision is very meagre in comparison with that for primary teachers; the teaching is sometimes only for day students, as at the admirable school of Mlle. Gatti de Gamond in Brussels; and a practising school is not a necessity, though provision is made for practical teaching in the *École Moyenne* to which the normal department is attached. The University degree of Doctor in Philosophy, Physical Science, and Mathematics, or in Natural Science, confers the right to teach, without certificate of training in method; and, as has been already said, students may be admitted to the examination conferring a teaching diploma without regard to the place where they obtained their instruction.

Those students who enter the Higher Grade Training Colleges do so at the age of eighteen. In the schools they have been well taught two, and probably three languages, boys having devoted from six to eight hours per week to each obligatory language, and girls six.

Both for men and women the first year's work is common to all students; it includes French, Flemish, German or English, with the option of taking both. The course of study comprises Reading aloud, Recitation, Pronunciation, Grammar, Literary Analysis, Composition, History of Literature, and a knowledge of several set books. One significant omission may be noted; translation, whether from or into the foreign language, plays a comparatively small part, the idea being that the whole time available should be devoted to the foreign language, accustoming eye and ear to its use without the medium of the mother tongue. All words are but symbols of thoughts, and translation is practically the interposition of two symbols between the thought and its expression. By substituting synonym and paraphrase for translation, the student spends his whole available time in, so to speak, manipulating the foreign idiom.

At the end of a year's study, students who pass the requisite examination proceed to more specialised study. For men there

are two sections, the humanistic and scientific; for women, a third is added of modern languages; students in this section are allowed to drop history and geography, and devote the time thus gained to languages.

Time Table

In the first year all students devote four hours a week to French and to the secondary language (Flemish or French as the case may be) and two hours to the third or fourth (optional) language. In the second year all students give two hours a week to French and Flemish; the men who take the humanistic section devote in addition four hours a week to French and the elements of comparative grammar, and three to a secondary language. Women give six hours to French and three to the second language; while those who take up the modern language section, devote three hours a week to each of the four languages, French, Flemish, English, and German, and their respective literature.

Practical teaching is not neglected. During the first six months the students hear a model lesson weekly, and attend lessons during two hours a week in the practising school, taking notes, which are revised by the master of method. During the second six months the students give criticism lessons before their fellow-students and teacher, and themselves take classes in the preparatory section of an *école moyenne*.

Examinations in Primary Training Colleges.

(c) *Examination*.—The difficulty felt by all thoughtful students of education, how to make examinations a stimulating test and not a cramping restraint, the handmaid and not the despot of education, has been fully realised in Belgium, and great pains have been taken to minimise the danger, by insisting that the examiners should frame their questions strictly on the prescribed course of teaching, rather than that teachers should be obliged to restrict their efforts to meeting the requirements of a "cut and dried" examination. But the examinations in Training Colleges are very frequent. Besides those at entrance and on leaving, they are held every six months. Restricting myself to the subject of modern languages and speaking first of Primary Training Colleges, I find that at the Entrance Examination a second language is optional, but if offered, there must be an oral as well as a written test, comprising reading a passage aloud, and giving a summary of it; and the candidate who cannot answer questions in the foreign language can only obtain three-quarters of the possible marks. The written test comprises dictation, grammatical questions bearing on the passage, and an easy translation.

At the end of the first six months the second language, which was optional, becomes compulsory; the actual subjects are the same at each six months' interval, but the standard is raised; and a choice is given between translation, and composition on a set subject. During the first year only, the candidates are allowed the use of a dictionary.

At the leaving-examination the punctuation is not given in dictation, and in the *viva voce* test a higher standard of literary attainment is required; for after reading aloud a passage from one of the set books, the candidate is required to explain not only its meaning but its literary form and characteristics. Before reading it, ten minutes are allowed to consider it, but without the help of any other notes than those given in the book itself. At

every examination a candidate must obtain 65 per cent. of the marks for a pass, and 75 for distinction.

The Director and staff of the college form the examining body; Exam Body but at the entrance and leaving examination the Inspector of Training Colleges, or one of the Primary Schools' Inspectors, is added. Among the Instructions to Examiners the following occurs:—"The questions are to be framed in such a way that the answers may give evidence that the prescribed courses of study have been followed both in letter and spirit. In making their awards the examiners must consider the interests of education as well as of the examinee; they must be both impartial and considerate."

In the same sense also is an admirable paragraph taken from one of the Primary School Inspector's reports. He says:—"At the entrance-examination the Board of Examiners should especially set themselves to find out the moral and intellectual condition of the candidates. Insufficient attention to this recommendation accounts for many of the failures at the end of the first year. Even then, all candidates should be resolutely refused if it be found that they have not justified the examiner's first report. It is much to be regretted that, owing to an indiscreet laxity, students are even allowed to continue the third year of training who ought, either on account of incapacity or want of vocation, to be definitely rejected at an earlier stage, but who are allowed to offer themselves for the final test with the certainty that they will either fail, or will scrape through and obtain a certificate for which they are unfitted." All who have any experience in such matters know how real a danger is here pointed out.

Turning now to the examinations in Secondary Training Exam tions
Seco
Teac Colleges, I find a somewhat elaborate system. Here also there is an entrance examination, partly written, partly *viva voce*. The written work lasts eight hours divided over two days, the *viva voce* two hours, of which twenty minutes are devoted to the second and third obligatory language in the case of girls, half an hour in the case of boys. The questions are put in the language which is the subject of examination; and all students must obtain 65 per cent. of marks for a pass.

At the end of the first year, residence in the College is no longer compulsory to those young men who pass the examination, which gives them the title of provisionally-certificated teachers; for girls, as we have seen, residence is not contemplated at Brussels, though it is compulsory at Liège, and at the end of the first and second years an examination is held covering all the branches of study. In the case of girls, at the end of the second year there is a supplementary examination in languages only; the written examination lasts three hours, and the *viva voce* one hour, for each language offered.

Male students desiring to obtain a diploma without passing through a training college must also pass two examinations at an interval of at least a year; the first gives them the title of Aspirant-Professeur, the second makes them Professeur-Agrégé; in each case the written examination lasts nine hours, and the

viva voce at the most two hours and a half. Two languages at least must be taken, chosen according to the locality where the candidate proposes to teach. The subjects of the first examination comprise composition, grammar, literary analysis; in French, the History of Literature from Malherbe to the end of the eighteenth century; in Flemish, that of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The second examination is divided into two sections—the scientific and the literary. In the former French (or Flemish) composition is required, and French literature of the nineteenth or Flemish of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, together with one other language. In the literary section, versification, literary analysis, and literary history are added, and historical and comparative grammar. Female students can take modern languages as a special section, in which case a more detailed knowledge of the same subjects is required.

Higher
Examination
in Languages

Finally, there is a "Higher" examination in languages alone, to which men and women are admitted on equal terms. One or more languages may be taken. The written examination lasts six hours, and comprises a composition, a literary analysis, and the grammar and structure of the language chosen; the *viva voce* lasts two hours, and includes translation and literary and grammatical explanation of a prepared book; unseen translation; questions on the literary history of the language offered, and a lesson given on a literary or grammatical subject announced twenty-four hours previously. All *viva voce* examinations, it should be added, are public. Such are the measures taken in Belgium to provide qualified native teachers of modern languages, capable of teaching them both scientifically and conversationally.

I will now try to describe how these teachers work.

I had the privilege of being present at nine lessons in Normal Colleges, six to girls and three to boys. All were admirably given; and it was very instructive to note how varied they were, and how strongly impressed by the personality of the teacher, while all were more or less influenced by the so-called "direct" method of teaching, showing how unity of purpose may be maintained while uniformity of process is avoided.

"Direct"
Method of
Teaching
Languages.

Perhaps here it may be well to explain exactly what is meant by the "direct" method. This is the official definition taken from the Programme of Teaching to be given in the Communal Schools of Brussels:—

"The teaching of the second language (French or Flemish, according to the locality) should be given by the 'direct' or 'natural' method. This method consists in teaching a foreign language without having recourse to translation, except in special cases; and even then a direct and intimate connection should always be maintained between words and ideas. The lessons should deal with things familiar to all the children (the family, clothes, furniture) or with things which have already been made the subject of lessons in the children's own language. Thus the whole attention can be concentrated on correct pronunciation and the construction of the sentences. Care should be taken to keep before the children the objects which are mentioned, either

by models, or pictures, or blackboard illustration. To make the verbs intelligible, the actions spoken of should be performed as far as possible. With regard to adjectives, several objects should be shown which contain common qualities. In a word, the teacher should proceed as far as possible by the best of all methods, viz., that which a mother intuitively uses in teaching her children to speak."

In the Section Normale at Mlle. Gatti's school I heard a most spirited lesson in German to first-year students on German Ballads, showing their influence on English and German literature, comparing those of Schiller and Goethe, and bringing out the mutual influence of the two writers. The lesson was almost a lecture of the University Extension type, given entirely without notes, with immense energy and enthusiasm, riveting the attention of the girls. In this particular case the teacher was a German, and she illustrated her lesson by personal references, and explanations of national life and customs, occasionally breaking off with a rapid question to one or another, which was answered without hesitation in German. It was a lesson of high literary merit; and the girls were expected to write their recollections of it from memory, for they took no notes.

Germ
Lesso
Train
Schoc
Secon
Teaci

In all cases in Belgium I was struck by the comparative absence of text-books and primers. In preparing a set book no special handbook seemed to be used; each teacher carefully prepared her lesson, using freely the school library, and herself drawing on many sources of information which would be inaccessible, and perhaps unsuitable, to the girls. This practice entails much effort on the part of the teacher, but gives great life and freshness to the teaching, throwing the girls more on their own resources, and forcing them also to do more independent work than if they "got-up" a text-book.

I heard also a lesson to second-year students on "The Merchant of Venice"—a thoughtful lesson, stimulating, and full of careful *teaching*; and I was fairly amazed at the knowledge the girls showed, not only of that play, but of English literature in general.

Engli
Lesso
Secon
Stude

First an account of the story was given, main plot and incidents being clearly distinguished. One after another took up the thread, not in order as they sat, but as the teacher directed. She cleverly drew out expressions of personal liking from the girls, who compared and contrasted the characters and discussed ethical questions freely as they were suggested. Then each girl was asked to repeat a favourite passage, and each chose a different one, and said it clearly and intelligently. The teacher most kindly encouraged me to talk to the girls and ask them questions. She then put some general questions on English literature, covering a wide range of time from Chaucer to Dickens, whose "Hard Times" they had just read. They were familiar with the names and general characteristics of the principal writings of Bacon, Spenser, Milton, and Bunyan. After a little natural shyness they seemed glad to talk to an English lady, and were interested and pleased to find they could follow easily with-

out their books my reading of a passage from "The Merchant of Venice." Though they spoke English somewhat slowly, their accent was in most cases excellent, and they spoke very correctly; though an initial aspirate seemed a great difficulty to some, greater even than the *th*. Throughout the lesson not one word was spoken by teacher or girls in French.

Training
College at
Bruges.

German
Lesson.

At Bruges I was allowed to visit the Convent School of the "Dames de Saint André," who have a Section Normale attached to their École Moyenne. Here I heard two lessons in German and two in French to Flemish students. In the first German lesson explanations were given in French, but the lesson on "Wilhelm Tell" to more advanced students was all in German, and the technicalities of verse measures were very carefully dealt with.

The French lessons were extremely brightly given, one on a fable of La Fontaine, another on a difficult French poem. I noticed the constant use of synonyms in explanation, and the advantage of a teacher who, being herself a Fleming, could say, "Now you must be careful here, for the French construction differs from the Flemish;" while any tendency to explain a French word by a Flemish equivalent was at once checked, and a synonym asked for, or a paraphrase.

Training
College at
Ghent.
French
Lesson.

One of the most interesting lessons I heard was at the magnificent Normal College at Ghent for men, where a Flemish master gave a French lesson in excellent accent to a Flemish class in a manner which made great demands on their imagination. They were lads of about eighteen, and the master asked them to imagine that during the holidays they had been present at a *fête* to celebrate the silver jubilee of a village schoolmaster.

So the first student began without hesitation in French: "During the holidays I was present——"

"What holidays?" interrupted the master; "in the summer the *fête* would be out of doors, and in winter in the school." So the lad started again, "During the Easter holidays," and each student, at a sign from the master, took up the story, and the class gave quite an interesting little picture of village life, with minute details of the crowds, of the parents of the present generation formerly themselves pupils, of the decorations, and the flowers and addresses presented, and the pride of the wife and family, and so on, till it fell to the last student to represent the Mayor and make a little speech. Whereupon the Director of the College, who had been sitting by me listening with evident amusement, interposed with the remark, "Now I am sure the Mayor stood up to make his speech;" the hint was at once taken, and, without any self-consciousness, the lad rose and made a very neat little speech.

It may be said that foreign nations have more natural gift for acting than we have; but it must be remembered these boys were of Germanic race, and they are not usually credited with special oratorical or dramatic talent. The lesson seemed greatly to amuse the class, and there was no attempt whatever made to check a slight laugh which arose now and then; and the lesson

was certainly an admirable exercise in imagination and in fluent expression of thought.

At the end the master summed up with a lesson on style, pointing out omissions, and showing how some points might have been more strongly brought out, and others less emphasised.

In the same college I also heard a lesson in English to first-year students, and in German to those of the second year. Eng
Les

In the first case the master told short anecdotes, rather slowly, explaining an unfamiliar word by paraphrase, or another instance of its use, giving grammatical explanations, asking questions as to the derivation and composition of words, putting all his questions so as to necessitate answers of some length. Not till the anecdote had been thoroughly explained and orally reproduced were the students allowed to read it for themselves. This they then did, with a good accent, but a tendency to drop *h's*. They were provided with note books in which to enter new words or rules.

The German Class were of course reading more advanced extracts from good authors; they were questioned more on grammar, and much attention was given to style. They recited several poems with spirit, showing careful *drilling*, which however had not effaced personality and was no mechanical reproduction. Ger
Les

The premises, equipment, and teaching throughout the Normal College at Ghent were first-rate; the gymnasium was one of the finest I have seen anywhere, and all the teaching seemed to be especially intelligent and educational. The manual work, too, reached a very high standard, and was turned to double account, for all the carpentry was either in the form of small models, or else illustrated some mechanical principle. The social life, too, among staff and students seemed strongly developed; and I was interested to hear that many of the students saved money to take an educational tour in a foreign country; *e.g.* under the guidance of the director, a party had visited England not long before.

2. Methods of Teaching Modern Languages.

(a) In Primary Schools.

(b) In Secondary Schools.

(a) *Primary Schools*.—In these, as has been already said, French and Flemish are both taught; and the Programme of Studies (as we should say, the Code) lays down emphatically that the teaching is to be on the "direct" method (see *ante*, p. 658). During the first year *no books* are to be used; translation is not practised by the children till the third year, and then is only verbal; but special attention is drawn to cases where the construction of the foreign languages differs from the children's mother tongue. In the fourth year translation is practised, and children are taught to use a dictionary. Mod
Lan
Tea
Pri
Sch

In the Instructions to Teachers in the Brussels Schools excellent general rules are laid down at the head of each subject. Taking some which refer to language teaching, I find the following:—

"Correct *pronunciation* and distinct *articulation* must be

insisted on, and a sing-song 'school tone' must be avoided. From the first the children must be taught to speak audibly, and if possible to recite standing. The practice of reciting in the Playground is to be recommended, as there the distance between the child and the teacher can be gradually increased, while equal clearness is insisted on.

"With regard to *reading*, the children should be encouraged to read at home portions of books recommended by the teacher, to whom they should give a verbal account of what they have read; the teacher should try to secure ten minutes' reading aloud by the children every day at home, the time at his disposal being too short for adequate practice of this art.

"*Grammar in Primary Schools* is taught for *practical* purposes; the science of grammar belongs to a higher grade of teaching. The teacher therefore will restrict definitions and rules within the narrowest possible compass; those that are necessary should be expressed very simply, and should not be taught dogmatically; but examples should be carefully chosen from which the rules can be deduced.

"*Parsing* should be done chiefly orally; if written, conventional abbreviations should be used; it is waste of time to write out the whole in detail.

"In teaching *Analysis*, the sentences to be analysed should always express some useful and interesting idea, and the meaning should always be clearly explained before analysis is attempted.

"In a Primary School, the object of *written exercises* is to lead the children to think, to classify their ideas, and to express them clearly and correctly in writing; they should not attempt to attain the height of literary compositions. The subjects set should always be within the children's scope, and such as will train them to express *their own ideas*. Care should be taken to avoid subjects likely to pervert the imagination, or to lead to the reproduction of platitudes. The lessons given in geography, science, history, the ideas suggested by the school walks and excursions, family and public events, descriptions of pictures seen, will supply suitable subjects for written exercises. The subject should first be treated *viva voce*, and the teacher should strive to stimulate thought, and will draw attention to the principal and subordinate ideas, their connection, and the right way to express them. After this the chief points will be summarised in writing on the blackboard, and the children will use the heads thus given as a guide. In the higher classes the children should draw up their own plan of composition. Every exercise should be separately corrected, the teacher drawing attention by conventional signs to mistakes in spelling and construction, omissions, incorrect ideas, and so on. A corrected copy will be made by the child and shown to the teacher, and if he approves it will be finally transcribed."

It will be obvious that many of these instructions can only be applicable to classes of moderate size; and in the Brussels Communal Schools the classes do not average more than thirty to forty. The instructions seemed to me worth quoting as an

illustration of the way in which minute details are referred to general principles.

I will now describe in detail two language lessons which I heard in Primary Schools in Brussels. I purposely chose young classes, wishing to see how the difficulties of the initial stage were met.

In the Ecole Communale of Brussels, rue de Six Jetons, I heard a French lesson given to Flemish children about nine, most of whom had learnt about eighteen months. A large coloured picture of a goat was put up, and in clear, rather loud tones, marking the syllables very distinctly, the teacher asked, "Mes en-fants, que voy-ez vous?" Numberless hands went out, and a child being indicated answered "Une chèvre."

"Non, ce n'est pas une réponse, il faut une phrase." At once the child corrected herself, "Mademoiselle, je vois une chèvre." Then talking in French, with great animation, but slowly, the teacher drew out every possible fact about the goat, always insisting on complete sentences as answers, and gradually adding new words round the original phrase as a nucleus. It was an object-lesson, but primarily a language-lesson, and brought home very clearly how much translation can be avoided by the use of gesture and pointing. Each part of the animal was thus named, always giving, if possible, not only the article, but an adjective—e.g., "How many legs has the goat?" Then pointing, "Voilà! une jambe, deux jambes," &c.; then adding, still pointing, "Two fore legs, two hind legs. Now, what are these two legs called?" And a child would answer, "Those two legs are called the fore legs." Then *action* was spoken of, and the difference between *walking* and *climbing* was explained in French and by action: "I *walk* across the room; the goat *climbs* up the rock." Then different words for eating: "We *eat*; the goat *browses*. We have a mouth; animals have beaks, snouts, muzzles, &c." The difference between *poil* and *cheveux*, between *foot* and *hoof*, was drawn out, different children giving instances, always in a complete sentence; so that by constant repetition of the same words in different connections the children learnt them not merely by rote but *in use*, and they became so familiar that they sprang to their lips with no pause at all for thought. The teacher encouraged the children to draw on their own experience, telling what they themselves had seen: "Where have you seen a goat? Was it a white goat?"—and so on. The whole time French was used only; once did the teacher use a Flemish word in explanation. Again and again came the question "Can you put that in other words?" and here I saw the wisdom of emphasising the study of synonyms. Once or twice a child was called up to write a word on the blackboard, and a new word would be written by the teacher. A little grammar was taught incidentally, as it arose out of the lesson; thus if a child omitted the *s* in the plural, the teacher would ask the class, "Is that right?" and when the mistake was corrected the teacher would ask, "Why do we put *s*?" and the answer would be, "We put *s* because there are several"—not the mechanical phrase, "*s* is

the mark of the plural"; and similarly, genders were simply corrected: "We say '*la table*' and '*le livre*';," so that when later the child learns the rules of grammar they will have a meaning for him, because he already knows them in action.

The children were very eager and interested, and perfectly *natural*, laughing merrily but not noisily. Their accent was wonderfully good, and great pains was taken with it, each syllable being carefully divided: "*la chère-vre brou-te*." After the lesson they sang a lively French song; indeed liveliness was the characteristic note of teacher and class, and it was evident that such a lesson was a welcome relief to the routine of *book-work*, and to the children almost as recreative as a game; while to the teacher it was hard work, for she was talking the whole time.

Second
French
Lesson in
Primary
School.

The next lesson I heard was at another Primary School in the Nouveau Marché aux Grains, and this time it was a French lesson to Flemish children mostly under eight, who had only learnt about eight months.

In this instance an outline picture had been lightly traced on a large sheet of paper, so as to be visible to the teacher, but not to the class. Then taking a stick of charcoal, the teacher lined-in one part after another, talking all the time and asking questions. The children watched one part after another, coming to light, with great interest. The picture was one of the milk-carts drawn by dogs, and the children were asked the names of other draught animals, and other vehicles; and one child was sent round to point out a horse among the pictures on the wall, saying, "*Voilà un cheval blanc*."

I was struck by the criticism on the lesson made both by the Director of the School and the Government Inspector who accompanied me. They said the teacher should have begun with the distinctive and not with the general features; not with the legs of the dog, which might have belonged to another animal, but with the head; not with the wheels, but with the body of the cart; because the object was to make the children observe accurately, rather than to guess ingeniously.

The boy seated on the box of the cart was made the text of a lesson on kindness to animals; and when the teacher asked what he ought to have done, there was a consensus of opinion that "*il aurait dû marcher*."

In noting here and elsewhere the remarkable results attained in conversational teaching, it is only fair to English teachers, and to the teachers of English and German in Belgium, to draw attention to the fact that while everywhere I found *good progress*, yet the greatest was undoubtedly in teaching French to Flemish classes. Now this is not hard to account for. It may be quite true that French is practically a foreign language to them; but it is one which surrounds them on all sides. As they walk in the streets they hear it, and their ears get used to the intonation; the names of the streets and shops, the placards and notices, are all in French; if they *wish* to talk it they have no difficulty in finding opportunities. They are in a very different position to English children learning French, who probably *never* hear one

word out of school; we can only with fairness compare them to Belgian children learning English or German. But even here, I am sorry to say, the balance is in favour of the Belgian schools. I know no English school where a French or German visitor would be so readily understood and answered as I was in Belgian schools of the higher grade.

(b) *Secondary Schools*.—As regards the teaching of languages, there is no official order insisting on any special method; there is therefore no absolute uniformity. But I was told that during the last twenty years a silent and gradual revolution has been taking place, by which the “direct” method has been adopted in school after school. In all those I visited this method was more or less completely in use; that is, the lessons were almost entirely given in the language which was the subject of study, and certainly in proportion as this was partially or wholly done the progress of the pupils was less or more satisfactory.

Athénées and Royal Colleges.—I had not the opportunity of hearing any lessons in the *Athénées*, but I made inquiries as to the time devoted to modern languages.

(i.) In the *Classical sections* in Walloon districts, seven hours a week are given to French in the first year, six in the second, and three in the five later years; in the second year five hours are devoted to Flemish or German according to the district; and a third language may be studied two hours weekly during the last four years. In *Flemish districts*, French is studied for six hours weekly during the first and second year, and then for three hours, the same time being given to Flemish or German.

(ii.) In the *Modern section* in the Walloon districts, French occupies eight hours a week for three years, then six, then five in the fifth and six years, and again six in the last year. Flemish or German is studied for six hours weekly for two years, and then for three hours, while two to four hours are devoted to a third language. In *Flemish districts*, French is taken for seven hours instead of eight during the first year, and this extra hour is devoted to Flemish, otherwise there is no change in the time-table.

It is curious to note in the *Athénées* the meeting of the old and the modern system. As with us, the influence of classical traditions is perceptible in the much more frequent mention of translation, while the modern system is influential in insisting on oral reproduction of the books read, of *viva voce* parsing and reading aloud. The teaching is literary as well as grammatical, the lives and works of chosen authors are studied, and the teacher is reminded that the object of learning modern languages is not only to read without difficulty, but to acquire sufficient acquaintance with idiom to speak and write with tolerable ease,

Écoles Moyennes for boys and girls.—The entrance age is 11 as a minimum, but is more often 12 or 13, and the course of study extends over three years. In the case of girls a *cours supérieur* is often added where girls can study up to 19, devoting most of their time to languages and history.

There is a preparatory section also attached to the *Écoles Moyennes*, to which children can be admitted at 6. The course followed in this preparatory school is the same as that of the primary schools, so that from the first French and Flemish must be taught, and English is often begun. An entrance examination

Lan,
Teac
Seco
Scho

Time

Écol
Moy
Boys

to the Écoles Moyennes is required, which includes an elementary knowledge of French and Flemish grammar.

Time Table.

The Time Table for boys assigns to French during the three years' course, eight, seven, and six hours respectively; and to Flemish or German six hours during the first two years, and in the third year it becomes voluntary; while during the last two years an optional language may be taken up, and three hours weekly may be spent on it. For girls, six hours are given to French through their whole three years; six to Flemish during the first year and five subsequently; while three may be given to an optional language during the second and third years.

The course of study is almost identical for boys and girls, and comprises reading aloud, pronunciation, syntax, *vis à vis* parsing, and description of books read; easy compositions are written, including letters and descriptions of places and events; no set books are given, but selections from good authors are to be read. There is nothing novel in the course of study, but when seen in operation it becomes evident how much is done orally, which might be and often is done in writing. It is curious evidence of the eagerness to learn languages that it has been found necessary to check the taking up of optional languages, special permission now being necessary, for it was found that a very large proportion were learning four different languages.

Concours Général.

Every year the State arranges a competitive examination (*concours général*), at which the higher forms in Government schools *must* and in others *may* take part. The examination in this case is entirely in writing, and lasts for the Athénées four days and for the Écoles Moyennes two days. A special examination is arranged in languages, which, however, is optional.

Progress of Language Teaching.

From the last published Government report it appears that good progress is being made with languages, but that in boys' schools French is less satisfactorily studied in the Flemish districts than Flemish in Walloon parts, so that in the former case the French lessons have often to be given in Flemish, while in the latter, in the third year, the master is able to use Flemish entirely. This throws an interesting side-light on the progress of "le mouvement Flainand," and its strength is confirmed by the fact that out of forty-eight schools in Walloon districts thirty-six have chosen Flemish rather than German as the second obligatory language, a decision which rests with the local authority.

The same report further notes that in girls' schools the results in French teaching are "very remarkable." The compositions especially are marked by "wealth of ideas, facility of expression, and correctness of style." The superiority of the girls over the boys is explained by the fact that they "read more and devote more attention to grammar," the last a somewhat unexpected fact. And, again, it is noted that better results in Flemish are obtained in Walloon districts, allowing for the shorter time spent on it than in Flemish parts.

English Lesson in Secondary School.

It now only remains for me to describe the lessons I heard in Écoles Moyennes, and I will take first the well-known State School of Mlle. Gatti de Gamond in Brussels, and an English lesson to children (boys and girls) in the "Classe Maternelle," little children of seven and eight. The first words were in English: "Now, children, sit up and listen to me. Then questions were

asked about names and qualities of everything in the room : "Show me the blackboard," and the child came out of its place and showed it. "What is this called?" "That is called chalk." "What can you do with the chalk?" "I can write with the chalk." "Write the name of the day and month and year." And it was done. Then the children knew the parts of the body, and of their clothes; colours, forms, numbers; a whole sentence was always required in an answer; and the questions were constantly *reversed* so as to supply words for the answer, thus: "What colour are Marie's stockings?" "Marie's stockings are red." "Show me a little girl who has white stockings." "Susette has white stockings;" and so forth. The children were kept constantly on the alert, pointing out different objects, going through different actions, opening and shutting eyes, stretching out hands, standing up, sitting down; taking up different objects, moving things from place to place, opening and shutting doors, &c.; every order being given in English, and every question asked and answered in English. There was no translation even in thought. If in answer to "Stretch out your hand" the child instantly does so, there is no translation in its mind; but if you ask, "What is the French for hand?" at once translation comes into play. The children in the "Classe Maternelle" have half an hour a day of this conversational teaching, and also learn to sing and recite in English; so that when they are moved to a higher class at the end of a year they have a large vocabulary, and unconsciously know a good deal of grammar, simple tenses of verbs, and *use* of genders and persons, so that they only require to systematise what they have learnt; and are able to read an easy book without difficulty.

I also heard a German lesson to girls of about fourteen, who had only learnt six months. They were reading a simple poem : "Der Wanderbursch." The teacher read it to them first, verse by verse; and then thoroughly explained it, not by direct but by indirect methods. "What was the boy called?" "What was he doing?" "What had he in his hand?" "Why did he wander about?" "What was his state of mind?" and so on. Any special points of grammar were dealt with as they arose out of the passage. Now and then a tense would be conjugated, or a noun declined, and *always* when a verb was mentioned its root tenses were given, and it was classified as strong or weak. German was entirely used, and explanations were always by paraphrase or in a synonym. The girls could write the German character, and had acquired it in a fortnight.

A lesson to older girls, who had learnt nearly three years, was given on much the same principle, only the questions had reference not only to the form but to the matter of the passage read. It happened to be from a history book, dealing with the ancient Germanic immigration. Questions on mythology and on Roman history rose naturally out of the passage, and elements of comparative grammar were touched on, as in vowel changes. The lesson was an excellent one from the historical as well as the linguistic point of view; and the girls did not seem hampered in

Gern
Less

Seco
Gern
Less

their answers by the fact that they were using a foreign language, only they spoke rather slowly; the teacher, on the contrary, speaking very rapidly.

English
Lesson.

One more lesson I heard in English to girls about seventeen, who were taking the Cours Supérieur. This was not on a set book, but purely conversational, to let me see their powers. They were asked the last book they had read, which had been "Little Women." Different girls gave an account of episodes, and discussed their favourite characters, and the reasons for their preference. I was allowed to ask questions, and enquired if they had read some English poetry. One said she had read Longfellow, and on my objecting that he was not English, she at once smilingly said "I know he was American, but he wrote in English." They had read "David Copperfield," "Little Lord Fauntleroy," and other books; but there is a difficulty in obtaining suitable books which make no reference to religious questions. I asked about their holidays, and home work, and holiday tasks, and intentions as to a future career, and found they could understand if I spoke fairly slowly and clearly, and could always answer well. Some were going on to the Normal Section, and one or two intended studying at the University, one desiring to become a doctor.

In all the lessons I heard, the main fact that stood out was that the teacher always gave her lesson in the language she was teaching, and that whether the girls knew little or much, whatever they did know was available for use.

École
Profession-
nelle.

I visited an École Professionnelle in the rue Terre Neuve, where I heard a lesson in German to beginners, but did not observe any new points. The system followed was approximately the same, but on a somewhat lower level. The pupils, I gathered, had been educated in Primary Schools, which of course they leave comparatively young. I much regretted want of time to visit other Écoles Professionnelles where foreign languages were taught with special reference to commercial life.

Communal
Secondary
School.

The last school I visited was the École Communale of Mlle. Dagsbeek, which bears a very high reputation, and, from all I could see, thoroughly deserves it.

English in
Kindergarten

Here I heard an English lesson in the Kindergarten, to children, of course all under seven. They knew the names of objects in the room, and could point out different animals in pictures, and understood quite simple little questions, such as "Where do you live?" "How old are you?" They sang an English song charmingly, and one tiny mite, who could not even speak plainly in French, said a little verse in English, and they played at "Cat and mouse," using English words in their play.

English and
German
Lessons

I also heard an English and a German lesson to children about nine and ten, who had learnt a year; they could understand a simple story and answer questions upon it, and were extremely eager to answer. The English class recited, with a very good accent, "I once had a sweet little doll, dears." A verse was said singly, first by one and then by another; and then sometimes all would join and say a verse simultaneously. My visit was unhappily on a day when the higher classes were

not having language lessons—indeed, Mlle. Dagsbeek most kindly arranged the lessons I heard for my special benefit.

At Antwerp I visited a large and important *École Moyenne* École Moyenne, Boys at Antwerp. English Lesson. for boys, and heard three lessons. One was in English to the youngest class (little fellows of seven); they used more books, and their lesson was not so entirely conversational as that given to girls of the same age at Mlle. Gatti's. Still, they pronounced English well, though it appeared to me that here, as in England, girls take more kindly to foreign languages than boys do.

But I heard a very good lesson to Flemish boys in French, French Lesson. who had learnt three years; they were working steadily at grammar, the lesson I heard being on the use of the subjunctive. In their books a blank was left for the verb, which the boys had to supply, and to give the reason in French why the subjunctive was required.

I heard also a most excellent and animated lesson to the first Second French Lesson. class in French, of the type of a "criticism lesson" in a training college. One boy had been told to prepare a lesson on the evils of "Alcoholism," treated from the moral, intellectual, physical, and social standpoints. Taking his place on the teacher's platform, and with only the most meagre notes, he gave a very clear, sensible, and well-arranged little address. Each boy meanwhile had a note-book in which to note any mistake, and when the address was finished each one read out his accusation, and great amusement was caused by a too eager reformer having sometimes discovered a mistake where none existed. Afterwards the master criticised in a very kindly spirit, chiefly pointing out omissions. Such a criticism lesson is surely an excellent corrective against the self-consciousness of youth, and helps to make a foreign language a really obedient instrument.

In studying the "direct" method of teaching languages it occurred to me that it would be useful to know how it worked in after life, and what were the examination results it produced. Results of "Direct" Method.

With regard to the latter, I am able to quote the authority of a high educational functionary, who speaks with the fullest knowledge. He says:—

"With regard to the teaching of French to Flemish children, the direct method has always been used; and the Flemings, as a rule, speak French as easily and as correctly as the Walloons. The best Belgian writers in French, as Rodenbach, Verhaeren, Van Eckhout, Maeterlink, are pure Flemings who learnt French by the 'direct' method. At the *Concours Général*, in the examinations in English, German, and Flemish in Walloon districts, the teachers who employ the 'direct' method get more numerous and more brilliant successes than the others." He adds: "It must not, however, be supposed that the direct method is the enemy of grammar; quite the contrary; only the rules are learnt as far as possible in the language itself; the teachers and pupils speak constantly instead of only translating; and thus by applying the rules much more frequently they learn their work more thoroughly. In a word, the direct method consists in utilising all available time in the study of the foreign language, instead of spending

a large portion on the mother tongue ; it makes use of translation when it is necessary, but it does not consider translation as the end to be attained, rather as one of the means which the teacher will use to assure himself that the pupils have understood his lesson."

With regard to the effect of the direct method in after life it is not easy as yet to get very positive information. But it is certainly a fact that the older generation, the Directors and Inspectors, and people in middle life, have a good knowledge of English literature and can read it well, but often are quite unable to speak ; while the young teachers, many of whom have learnt on the newer system, speak quite fluently. Nor are indications wanting of an increased interest in foreign languages among Belgian boys and girls at school, as is shown by their desire to take up the optional languages ; but also those who have left school desire in many instances to carry on their study. There exists, for instance, in Brussels a " Polyglot Club " for the study of foreign languages and literatures.

This club, founded in March, 1896, already numbers over 500 members. Its object is to promote the study of living languages. To this end it arranges language-lessons in several sections, according to the language taught ; a reading-room and library ; an enquiry office ; the conduct of examinations and issue of certificates.

The languages at present taught, and the number of students entered for each, is as follows :—

English, 80 ; German, 60 ; Russian, 40 ; Dutch, 30 ; French, 40 ; Portuguese, 7 ; Roumanian, 5 ; Italian, 20 ; Spanish, 25. Most of these sections divide their members into two, some into three, classes. Each section elects its own committee, and draws up its own programme ; but the general principle is that of mutual help, foreigners attending and giving their assistance to the Belgians who are studying their language ; and a meeting of a social kind takes place at least once a week. On the first anniversary of the opening of the club an entertainment was arranged, comprising the acting of short English and French drawing-room sketches, and German, Italian, and Flemish recitations.

The enquiry office undertakes to give information on new developments of linguistic study, and gives help in the translation of difficult passages.

The examining body is appointed by the members of the club, and comprises public and private teachers of proved capacity, and others who, by reason of their profession, nationality, or public services, may be assumed to have the requisite knowledge. The examinations are oral and written ; but no one may take the written examination who has not passed the *viva voce*, which lasts half an hour and includes conversation, and translation at sight. The questions are put in the language which is the subject of examination, and is held in public.

The existence and flourishing condition of such a club seems an evidence of widespread interest in the study of languages ;

and another interesting bit of evidence is supplied by the principal library in Brussels. One of the firm was good enough to furnish me with information as to the sale of foreign books in Brussels. He says: "The sale of foreign books has increased considerably during the last few years, and that thanks largely to the number of courses of instruction which have been established in most places. I speak especially as regards Brussels, and I judge by this fact; a few years ago we were the sole, or almost the sole, house supplying foreign books; at the present time we receive a large number of orders from other firms. This applies especially to English and German works; Italian and Spanish are less studied. The Russian language is making progress." He concludes by saying that the languages seem usually to be studied from the utilitarian point of view, current literature being read chiefly by the cultivated classes.

I cannot end this very imperfect notice without expressing my most cordial thanks to the Belgian educational authorities who so courteously and readily facilitated my enquiries, as well as to the teachers who gave me such a kindly welcome. Especially I desire to record my deep obligations to M. Kleyntjens, Inspector of Écoles Moyennes, and to M. Devos, Inspector of Écoles Primaires, who accompanied me in my visits to the schools, and were always ready to give any information. Most of all I was indebted to M. Van Camp, Directeur Général, whose lamented death occurred during my stay in Belgium, and from whom I received a letter full of kind proposals for my help, written only a few hours before the stroke fell on him from which he never recovered.

From all I saw of the enthusiasm of organisers and teachers, and of the system which together they have brought to such high perfection, I am sure we have much to learn from them. Had space permitted I should especially have desired to call attention to the frequent conferences between teachers in a school, and the larger meetings of the staff of several schools under the presidency of the Inspector, where everyone has an equal right to contribute to the discussion, and which afford an opportunity for an able assistant teacher to show what is in him. Attendance at these meetings is compulsory, and they are specially designed to make teachers in a school work harmoniously with a full knowledge of what their colleagues are doing, while they afford an admirable opportunity for the practical teachers and administrators to come together.

Readiness
to give
information.

Conferences.

II.—Holland.

Reasons for
Dutch study-
ing foreign
languages.

There are several reasons why modern languages should carefully studied in Holland. Not only is it a small country wedged in between France and Germany, but its language unlike French and German, is not spoken in any other country except in the Flemish districts of Belgium; nor is its Literature sufficiently extensive to induce foreigners to learn the language being indeed inadequate to the needs of the Dutch themselves so that both for purposes of international intercourse and satisfy the intellectual appetite of this singularly thoughtful and cultivated nation, an intelligent study of foreign languages is an absolute necessity.

Again, the Dutch travel a great deal, and are possessed of extensive colonies, which exercise a far greater influence on the national character and habits than is generally supposed by the English people. Their East Indian possessions fill quite an important part in the national life, as an outlet for the educated young men, as India does for us; their ideas and interests extend far beyond the narrow limits of their own country, and they unite in a very remarkable degree with cosmopolitan sympathies with an intense patriotism.

The well-to-do classes are extraordinarily good linguists, hard second to the Russians in this respect, especially as the knowledge generally extends to the Literature as well as the language of other countries. The custom of giving children foreign nurses and governesses is very general, and many children learn English before they learn their own language. It is a common thing for families to speak French or English habitually at meals; and friends talk together quite naturally in a foreign language, without any sense of strain or affectation.

The traditions of the time when a French King ruled are still fairly fresh, and in the late King's time French was habitual spoken at Court; while in a small society the diplomatic circle occupies a large place, and French is, of course, still the common language among diplomatists in social intercourse. Again, in the large commercial towns there are English colonies; and there is much social intercourse and frequent intermarriage between England and Holland.

German is usually studied by educated people, but I should say is regarded rather more as a luxury than a necessity, like French and English.

Admitting then, the need, and admiring the facility of the Dutch for the study of foreign languages, let us inquire how the one is supplied and the other cultivated.

Social distinctions and
varying
habits.

Here I think we must recognise the existence of very marked social distinctions, not obtruded, on the one hand, nor resented on the other, but *present* in an unmistakable manner; and in different social classes different habits prevail. The girls of the

highest social position are usually educated at home by resident governesses, and both in the nursery and the schoolroom, as well as in family intercourse, they are accustomed from babyhood to hear and speak foreign languages.

Boys go to the *Gymnasia*, where classical teaching is given, but where certainly more attention is given to modern languages than in the generality of our Grammar Schools. Nevertheless, men in Holland are not such good linguists as ladies, though better than Englishmen; this is due, I think, partly to greater freedom from self-consciousness, and partly to a more rational system of conversational teaching. *Gymnasia.*

Girls and boys of the middle class almost invariably attend the *Hoogere Burger Schoolen*, where languages are well taught; and boys who are intended for commercial life generally pass on to a *Handel School* (Commercial School) where special attention is given to modern languages and commercial history and geography. *Hoogere Burger Schoolen.*

Children of the working-class attend the *Primary Schools*, which are of two grades. In many of those of the lower grade, in the towns, French is taught; but children who can remain at school till about fourteen pass on when about twelve to a higher grade school, where English and German are also taught, and where generally a higher standard is maintained. *Primary Schools.*

Going from Belgium to Holland, one is at once struck by the difference in their educational system. In Belgium it is highly centralised; in Holland it is as markedly decentralised, far more so than in England; for, within certain very wide limits, every town organises its own schools, and publishes its own detailed Reports of work done. There is no official scheme of study, nor special method of teaching prescribed by the Government, the teachers have very largely a free hand, though the schools are, of course, subject to Government inspection. The books to be used are proposed by the teachers to the Inspector, and he authorises them, if he thinks fit, after consultation with the municipal authority. *Education decentralised.*

This great diversity in different towns and provinces makes it very difficult for a foreigner to gain any distinct idea of the state of education in the country generally. I can only give a few broad facts, and will then describe the lessons I heard given.

Training of Teachers.—In Holland no one can teach without a diploma, under very strict penalties, but this diploma, both in the case of primary and secondary teachers, can be obtained by examination alone; indeed, for secondary teachers no training college exists. A University degree confers the right to teach in certain objects; e.g., a doctor's degree in Law entitles the holder to teach Political Economy; a Doctor of Literature may teach Dutch language and Literature, History and Geography; a Doctor of Science, Philosophy, Mathematics, Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, and Geometry. Military men and engineers who have passed through the Military Academy at Breda and the Polytechnic at Delft have the right to teach certain Science subjects. *Training of Teachers.*

Training
Colleges.

For Primary Teachers there are twenty-one Kweek Scholen (Training Colleges), six belonging to the State, three established by the towns of Groningen, Leiden, and Amsterdam, and twelve founded by religious bodies or private individuals; both the latter classes are subsidised by the State. The students enter these colleges at the age of fourteen, and the course of training lasts four years, comprising theory, and practical teaching in the Practising School.

There are also ninety-seven Day Training Colleges (Normal Lessen) belonging to the State, and thirty-four of different denominations, which are assisted by the State. Only some of these have a Practising School attached.

French at least is taught in all these Colleges, usually English also; but as the subjects, methods, and time tables vary in different cases, I found it impossible to get statistics of value on these points.

Examina-
tion.
Primary
Teachers.

Examinations.—There is an entrance examination into the Training Colleges, an annual one during the four years' course, and a leaving examination which may not be passed before the age of eighteen; the latter is also open to candidates who have been prepared by private tuition. It comprises, in languages, translations from and into Dutch, Grammar, pronunciation, and *facility in speaking*, a large part of the examination being *viva voce*.

Secondary
Teachers.

In the case of Secondary Teachers, there are two examinations, called respectively "A" and "B." The "A" examination includes translation from and into Dutch, composition, the origin and history of the language, with *e.g.* in English, a knowledge of Anglo-Saxon and Sanscrit roots, various systems of phonetics, and facility in speaking. For the "B" Examination, a knowledge of Literature and its history is required, and literary style must be understood. For the written composition in the "A" Examination, such subjects as the following are set in the French section: "An account of one of the official journeys of the Queens of Holland"; "A visit to the country, or the seaside"; "A good book is a good friend." For "B," "Le Roman de Renart," "le Roman de la Rose," "Is it correct to describe 'The Princess of Cleves' as the first modern novel"? "The influence of J. J. Rousseau on Nineteenth Century Literature"; "Sainte Beuve's Criticism on J. M. de Heredia, or Paul Verlaine; the material and form of their poetry."

So searching are these examinations, that two or three years' preparation is usually required for "A"; and an additional two years for "B"; and I am told it is hardly possible to reach the required standard in speaking, without residence abroad. During the last three or four years, very few candidates have succeeded in passing the "B" examination in English or German, but more passed in French.

Travelling
scholarships.

The Examining Body, in a recent Report, urge the Government to provide travelling scholarships to enable teachers to attend summer courses in foreign countries; and they draw special attention to the fact that of the foreigners who

attended the 1895 Course at Paris, arranged by the *Alliance Française*, fifty per cent. of those who obtained the highest diploma were Dutch. They also express great pleasure at the zeal with which phonetics had been studied.

One great difference between Primary and Secondary Teachers is that the first are "Form Teachers," teaching all subjects to their own form; while the second are specialists, and teach only one subject; the Secondary Teacher, therefore, is only required to pass an examination in that one subject; but the standard is very high, and such examinations are seldom passed before the age of nineteen or twenty.

The examinations are held once a year; and the examining body in the case of Primary Teachers is composed of School Inspectors and selected teachers from Primary Schools; in the case of Secondary Teachers, the examiners are appointed by the Minister of the Interior (who in Holland fills the place of Minister of Education) and usually include University Professors, and Teachers and Directors of Secondary Schools; there is a separate Examining Board for each subject. Examinin
body.

Primary Schools.—As has been already stated, the diversity of Primary custom in different places makes it difficult to arrive at general facts. In the country schools, and those of small towns, French is not always taught, and in any case only the elements are attempted. But taking one of the chief schools in the Hague as typical of a good town school, I find the children do not begin French till their fourth school year, when they would be about ten, and then they devote from three to four hours weekly to it during the three last years of school life. schools.

Secondary Schools.—By comparison of several time tables I have endeavoured to find out one or two points of general custom amidst much diversity. Secondary
schools.

(1) In the Hoogere Burger Schoolen the time given to languages seems to be much the same for boys and girls. Language
teaching.

(2) French is the first language taught, and has most time devoted to it; then comes German, and, lastly, English, which surprised me, as certainly in daily life English seems most used.

(3) The time devoted to each language per week seems usually from three to four hours during the three first years, and from two to three hours in the two final years.

(4) In all the programmes of study I have seen, the language is studied during the first three years, and only in the fourth year is the literature, and history of literature taken.

(5) While, especially in the case of French, speaking is insisted on, translation (from and into Dutch) plays a much larger part in all the programmes of study than in Belgium; but so far as I could judge from the lessons I heard, practice is being largely modified in this respect, and is ahead of theory.

(6) In nearly every case the first place in the study of English is given to *pronunciation*.

The usual course of teaching seems to last five years, but in some cases only three. The boys who have had a five years' course in a Hoogere Burger School can, if they wish, take the Abiturier
examinat

Abiturienten Examination. In one of the few published Instructions I found the following addressed to the examiners for this examination:—

"They must remember the chief aim of these schools—viz. to give young men such a knowledge of various subjects as is expected now-a-days from every well-educated man. The candidates must show by the thoroughness of their work that they have obtained the necessary foundation for a special preparation for any future career or position; and that an all-round mental development fits them to benefit by the experience of practical life. Therefore, in the examination more regard will be paid to intelligence than to memory. The examiners will rather try to find out what the candidates know than to spy out gaps in their knowledge in the less important subjects."

"In French, English, and German, candidates must show by an essay on a set subject that they can write these languages without gross mistakes. In the *viva voce* examination, candidates will be expected to show that they can express themselves fairly well in these languages, and can apply the rules they have learnt."

Primary
school at the
Hague.
French
lessons.

I will now describe the visits I paid to Primary Schools:

(1) Mixed school for boys and girls at the Hague.

Here I heard a French lesson to children who had learnt a year. They knew words and sentences about common things, and repeated them in a good accent, but they seemed to be learnt by rote, rather than drawn out from the children's own knowledge. The teaching was not entirely on the 'direct' method, nor was it so animated as in Belgium.

I heard a second lesson to children, who had learnt a year and a-half, and had made great progress. A picture of a fish was put up, and they had an object lesson on it in French; they could produce longer sentences, and replies of one word were not accepted. In speaking of fresh and salt water, the teacher actually filled a glass with water, put salt into it, and let one or two of the children taste it. Both lessons were carefully given; but it seemed to me that memory played too large a part, the children seemed to be *remembering* that the French words were equivalents for certain Dutch words, rather than freely expressing their meaning directly in French.

Another
primary
school at the
Hague.

(2) At another mixed Primary School, I heard a lesson on the Gouin Series Method, now too well known in England to need description. While it has much in common with the "direct" method, it is not identical with it. These children had learnt two years, and had made considerable progress, and the lesson was brightly given, but seemed a little mechanical in comparison with those I heard in Belgium; where sequence of idea is so much insisted on, it seems to me there may be a danger of children only knowing words and phrases in the customary connection, and not applying them to new cases.

Higher grade
primary
school at the
Hague.

(3) My next visit was to a Higher Grade Primary School, to which girls from the former school pass on, if they desire to continue school work for a couple of years and yet do not aspire to the Hoogere Burger School.

Here I heard a quite admirable lesson in English, to girls who had only learnt about eight months, and had made astonishing progress. They were reading a little story of a visit to London, full of every-day expressions. The teacher spoke English entirely, asking questions rising out of the story, and giving illustrations and additional information; such as facts about London; what river it was on; noting how many capitals were on rivers, and asking why; then the children were asked what a traveller would see on reaching London; crossing one of the bridges was described, and buildings were named, such as St. Paul's, Westminster Abbey, the Houses of Parliament, the Tower, and the Crystal Palace, which they were carefully reminded was *near* London.

Engl
lessn

Again, when the story suggested it, English customs were described, hours of meals, &c.; the lesson was thoroughly interesting and would help to familiarise the class with English life as well as the English language.

(4) I visited also an excellent Primary School in Leiden, and heard two lessons in French to young classes, children from about eight to ten; the "direct" method was employed; but books seem to be used at an earlier stage in Holland than in Belgium. The book I heard used in this case was well adapted for its purpose, describing the streets in the early morning, and the tradesmen bringing their wares, the milkman, the butcher, &c.; after a complete little story, one on much the same lines was given with blanks for the principal nouns, and then another with blanks for the verbs, which the children supplied, always giving the root-tenses. The teacher used a good deal of gesture and kept the children's attention completely rivetted. French was used throughout both by teacher and children.

Prim
scho
Leid

Hoogere Burger Scholen :

(1) I visited the Hoogere Burger School for Girls at the Hague, and heard two lessons, one in French and one in English.

Hoo
Burg
Scho
Hag

The French one calls for no special remark; the girls, who had learnt for three years, were simply reading a play in very good accent; but when I was there, no special teaching on it was given.

The English lesson to girls who had learnt a year and a-half was decidedly interesting. They were reading *Julius Cæsar*, and the teacher gave an excellent useful lesson, explaining verbal and grammatical difficulties, and the girls were encouraged to ask questions; the lesson treated the subject from the linguistic and not from the literary point of view; but, of course, that may have been done on other occasions.

Eng
lessn

Everywhere in Holland I noticed that progress in English was quicker than in French. Boys and girls who had learnt only eighteen months knew as much as they had learnt in French in double the time, and their accent was amazingly good. No doubt the close relationship between English and Dutch quite explains the fact.

Rap
prog
Eng

(2) One of the schools which impressed me most was the Hoogere Burger School for Boys at Utrecht. It is a fine spacious

Hoo
Burg
Scho
Utr

building, light and airy, and splendidly equipped with chemical and physical laboratories and apparatus.

French lesson.

I heard a French lesson to boys of the third class (about fifteen years of age). It was like those previously described in Belgium, asking for synonyms constantly, and teaching the grammar in connection with the book the boys were reading.

English lesson.

Then I heard a first-rate lesson in English to boys who had learnt a year and a-half. They read a very difficult passage from one of Wallace's books, in an excellent accent, answering questions on both substance and form of the passage with accuracy and intelligence. Then they were asked to give an account of a journey to Amsterdam, which was done with great animation, great amusement being caused by one boy saying he took a "first-class ticket;" another boy described giving "a little tip" to the cabman; then the boys translated orally with astonishing ease and accuracy a passage of considerable difficulty.

Dutch lesson.

I looked in at a Dutch lesson to the highest class, who would soon be proceeding to the University; they were reading a standard novel, and were studying style and etymology of words. Girls were admitted to this school, but out of two hundred pupils only sixteen were girls, one or two of whom were intending to study at the University.

Private school at Scheveningen.

(5) I was allowed to visit the private school for girls at Scheveningen of Miss Snoeck, which has a very high reputation; I was present at a French lesson to girls about sixteen, but found nothing special in the method; the girls were only reading, and writing out and learning by heart new words.

Handel School at Amsterdam.

(6) The last school I will mention is the *Handel School* (Commercial School) at Amsterdam, in a beautiful old house with splendid ceilings and panels; this school is also a Technical School, and seems admirably organised and equipped; all the teaching I heard struck me as especially brisk, intelligent, and up-to-date.

German lesson.

The first lesson I heard was in German, to boys about twelve who had only learnt eight months. They had read an easy story and were giving an account of it in their own words, answering questions, and following the master closely, though he spoke extremely quickly.

English lesson.

Next I heard an English lesson to boys of thirteen or fourteen, who also had learnt less than a year. The teacher had a London degree and had hardly any accent at all. Two boys chosen from the class came up on the platform and recited and acted a little dialogue in very idiomatic conversational English; I asked the boys one or two questions, and several were able to answer quite correctly.

Advanced English lesson.

Then I heard an English lesson to lads about seventeen who had learnt five years; one had prepared and repeated from notes a short essay on the character of the country round Terra del Fuego; another boy described a new line of railway—the difficulties of construction, the crops grown in the neighbourhood, and the nearest markets. The language teaching seemed well

adapted to give useful teaching in commercial history and geography as well.

I next heard a German lesson to little boys about eight and nine who had learnt eight months; they could already tell a short anecdote, or give an account of their holidays, or an excursion, the master only helping them out by questions in German, supplying a word which he saw they did not know. They were allowed also to correct each other; and were sometimes asked to decline a noun, or conjugate the tense of a verb. In this case the master was a German, and he ended the lesson by letting the boys sing a German song, which they did most charmingly, in two parts, with admirable precision and well-marked light and shade.

The last lesson I heard was in German commercial correspondence to young men of eighteen or nineteen. They were asked to answer letters on commercial subjects, *visd voce*, introducing all sorts of technical business phrases, and dealing with currency questions, export and import duties, rise and fall of prices, &c.; the speaking both of master and pupils was very rapid, and the answers were given without any hesitation at all.

I was told that a party from this school had visited London last year and had gone up to Yorkshire to visit some of the large manufacturing towns, and mills, as an important part of commercial education.

In Holland, as in Belgium, I found the greatest readiness to show everything likely to be useful for my purpose, and the teachers were all most kind in their welcome. Nor did I observe the slightest self-consciousness on the part of the children; my visit seemed in no way to disturb them, though I was told the visit of a lady to boys' schools was very unusual.

I have also to express cordial thanks to the Dutch educational authorities, who requested Mynheer van Aken, Inspector of Secondary Schools, and Mynheer Snoeck, Inspector of Primary Schools, to give me any assistance in their power. The latter was unfortunately away from home during a part of my stay, but gave me very helpful information, and the former accompanied me in many of my visits, and to him and his daughters I am indebted for valuable help, as also to Mynheer van Marken, who visited several schools with me.

JESSIE DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY.

January, 1898.

[Since this Report was in print I have had the advantage of reading a valuable paper on somewhat similar lines, presented in 1893 by Professor Herbert Strong to the Scotch Education Department.—J. D. M.]

SCHOOL HYGIENE IN BRUSSELS.

SUMMARY OF CONTENTS.

Attention to Hygiene.
 Collectivist Policy.
 Charitable Distribution of Soup by Progress Club.
 Proposal that Commune should undertake it.
 Preliminary Enquiry into
 (i.) Clothing, (ii.) Food, (iii.) Housing of Children in Primary
 Schools.
 Result of Enquiry as to these points.
 Discussion of Council on Report presented by Committee of Enquiry.
 Summary of Report.
 Tables of Statistics.

APPENDICES.

- (a) Rules for Construction of School Buildings:
 Class Rooms. Lighting. Cloak Rooms. Ventilation. Play-
 grounds. Baths.
- (b) Health of Teachers in Training Colleges:
 Teaching of Hygiene. Gymnastics. Illness of Teachers.
- (c) Health of Children:
 Doctors' visits. Examination of Children. Cleanliness.
 Exercise. Posture in School. Temperance.

SCHOOL HYGIENE IN BRUSSELS.

Attention to
 School
 Hygiene.

The subject of School Hygiene seems to have received a full and enlightened consideration from the municipal authorities in Brussels; and the sanitary regulations prescribed in the Primary Schools of the Commune seem to me worthy of attention, as showing in a marked degree a characteristic which runs through all official educational documents in Belgium, viz., a close and minute attention to detail, combined with a constant reference to scientific theories and general principles.

I wish especially to call attention to a remarkable Report presented to the Communal Council in 1896, by the *College* (i.e., the special education authority appointed by the Council, and presided over by the Echevin, whose position answers, perhaps, approximately, to that of our Vice-President of the Council, but whose powers only, of course, apply to Brussels). I propose presently to summarise the most important passages of this Report; and then, in Appendices, to give the Brussels regulations with regard to school buildings; and, what is more novel and interesting, details of the medical examination of the children in the Primary Schools, and other sanitary provisions.

Collectivist
 Policy.

In visiting these Primary Schools, it is manifest at once that to a large extent a collectivist policy has been adopted by the Commune, especially with regard to School Hygiene. Medical and dental attendance are provided gratis; and what is known as "preventive medicines," i.e., cod-liver oil and a pulverised preparation of iron, are supplied to necessitous children. It must be remembered in this connection, that since hospitals are managed by the Commune, and the

remedies ordered by the medical officer are supplied by them, these preventive measures are practically an extension of the out-patient department. But as a result of these measures, the Commune already finds itself confronted by a serious problem. Medicine can do but little for underfed children, living in unhealthy homes. Having begun a paternal policy, is it to be carried to its logical conclusion, and is the Commune to provide necessitous children with food, clothing, and beds? If so, why only children attending the Communal Schools, since others equally need help? On the other hand, if the Commune accepts such a burden, what will be the moral and economic results? Will not early and improvident marriages be encouraged, parental responsibility abrogated, and family life broken up? And will not national character deteriorate if a compulsory and mechanical payment of rates relieves parents from the need of personal effort and self-sacrifice for the good of the family?

Again, will not an almost crushing burden be laid on the hard-working and respectable among the industrial population, while a premium is offered to the lazy and good-for-nothing? These are the questions discussed in the Report, which I desire to summarise; and as we note the comparatively small numbers with which Brussels has to deal, we are reminded how many Socialist schemes in all ages pre-suppose small States or small cities.

The Report is called "Enquiry into the Clothing, Food, and Housing of the Scholars attending the Communal Schools, presented by the College to the Communal Council," and it bears date January 1894, but was not considered by the Council until 1896.

Report on
Food, Cloth-
ing, and
Housing of
Children.

It opens with a historical review of the situation, and records that in 1888 a certain Association, called the "Progress Club," was authorised by the College to provide doles of soup at mid-day to necessitous children in the Primary Schools of the Commune. At first the distribution took place in the premises of an Industrial Co-operative Society, but these becoming overcrowded, it was transferred to the schools themselves, the Co-operative Society still undertaking the preparation of the soup, the City providing tables and allowing the Fire Brigade to convey the soup, while the "Progress Club" provided the crockery needed, and the teaching staff of the schools undertook the washing up.

Historical
Review.

At first, the public warmly supported the enterprise, and money flowed in, the result of subscriptions, collections, and entertainments, sprang up for other objects, and the stream of public generosity changed its course; in its need the "Progress Club" decided to appeal to the civic authorities for help, and as a result, in December, 1891, a member of the Communal Council proposed a subsidy of 5,000 francs to the "Progress Club." The "College" and the Committee of Public Instruction opposed this vote, on the ground that it would lead to a continually increasing outlay, involving an immense expenditure by the town, and, further, that it raised the whole question whether or no the Commune should accept the responsibility of feeding necessitous children, or whether it should subsidise the efforts of private philanthropy. In spite of these representations the Council voted the sum of 5,000 francs, but only for one year.

What the College had foreseen actually occurred. As soon as public assistance was given, private contributions fell off, so that in 1893 the former vote was insufficient, and a Councillor proposed that the subsidy of 5,000 francs should be doubled, and that a supplementary

Commission
of Enquiry
appointed.

grant of 5,000 francs for the supply of clothing should be voted. The College repeated the former arguments against the proposal, and after discussion, the following Resolution was unanimously passed:—
"The Council decides that a Commission of Enquiry appointed by itself from among its own members should be constituted to examine into the condition of the children attending the Communal Schools with regard to food, housing, and clothing. It shall also enquire into the financial outlay required for the supply of soup and clothing to the schools."

Scope of
Enquiry.

This Resolution was further considered by the Committees of the Council dealing with Public Assistance, Instruction, and Finance, who, in conjunction with the supporters of the Resolution, recommended the following procedure:—

(a) A Form should be sent to Head Teachers, who, with the assistance of their Staff, should furnish information as to the clothing, the habitual food, the cleanliness, and school attendance of their children.

(b) The public officers of health should be entrusted with an enquiry into the state of the children's health, and the sufficiency or insufficiency of their habitual food.

(c) The police should undertake the enquiry into the housing of the children.

With regard to *a*, the following information should be given:—How many children wear *sabots*, shoes, slippers, or are otherwise shod? How many are well and how many badly shod? How many have habitually clean and tidy clothing; and how many are habitually dirty and untidy in their dress? How many receive clothing from some charitable agency? How many *ought* to receive such assistance considering their usual condition?

With regard to *cleanliness*:—How many habitually come dirty to school (face, hair, neck, hands)? How many take a bath, at least, ten times a year? and a foot-bath, at least once a week? How many wash all over every week? How many are habitually without a pocket-handkerchief? How many children share in the distribution of soup? How many appear to be insufficiently nourished, judging by their appearance?

With regard to *(b)*, the following classification was to be adopted by the doctors:—How many children are habitually in good, moderate, or bad health?

2. How many have sufficient, how many insufficient food?

With regard to *(c)*, the questions to be answered were:—How many children sleep in a bed, or have no bed? How many sleep in the same room? How many in the same bed with their parents? In how many cases do brothers and sisters sleep together? How many live and sleep in one room? How many in a basement, or cellar?

The case of 14,447 children was considered, with the following result:—

2,442 or 16·89 per cent. were badly shod.

3,620 or 25·4 per cent. were badly clothed.

3,663 or 25·55 per cent. were badly fed.

The outlay necessary to remedy this state of things was estimated at 389,000 francs annually.

Discussion
on Report.

The results of the enquiry were communicated to the various Committees of the Council in November, 1894; when the Echevin (the

President of the Education Committee) pointed out not only that the amount demanded was beyond the resources of the City to provide, but that even such a sum would be insufficient for all needs. Experience unfortunately, shows that every distribution of relief produces an increased crowd of applicants, and he urged the grave danger of rendering the parents indifferent to the wants of their children, and weakening the bond of family life. The real question at stake, he urged, was: "Should the Commune take the place of the parents in providing food and clothing?"

Another Councillor disputed the accuracy of the figures, and moved that enquiry should be made as to what was done in other towns in Belgium, and in foreign countries. Others desired to fix an arbitrary limit to the expenditure in this direction, and proposed 50,000 fcs. as the sum; while another desired the present system of relief to be extended, and continued during the whole year, not only in winter.

The Council met two days later, and having considered the arguments put forward by the Committee, decided by a vote of 18 against 5 to adjourn the question, in order to allow time for further enquiries, especially in foreign countries.

The full report of the Committee, including the results of the enquiry in Brussels and elsewhere, was only presented in 1896. I do not propose to enter into the statistics from other countries, of which it is difficult exactly to estimate the value, as we are not told the sources from which they are derived, nor can we appreciate them justly without some knowledge of the conditions which obtain in the various towns and countries named. But the conclusions as to Brussels are of considerable interest, and in all cases we know exactly the persons who undertake the enquiry.

The Committee of Enquiry first deals with general considerations as to the question of *principle*; then gives an account of what is being done at the present time, and sums up the results as bearing on the right action to take in the future; while the figures obtained in the various enquiries are given in Appendices.

Summary of Report.

With regard to general principle, the Committee express sympathy and admiration for the philanthropic agencies which have provided soup for the children; they are undoubtedly deserving of personal assistance, and to a certain extent of the assistance of the town; but they point out the gulf which exists between this view and the desire to transform a work of private benevolence into one of public responsibility. A private individual, the Committee contend, follows the prompting of his heart, and helps according to his power, without asking himself what will be the moral consequences of his action. But the case of a public body is quite different. When a proposal is made to create a far-reaching organisation for the help of the poor it is necessary to ask whether the remedy may not be worse than the disease, whether the moral consequences would not be disastrous, and whether, after enormous expenditure, the results attained might not be exactly contrary to what was desired. We can no longer, continue the Committee, accept the simple formulæ of the French Revolution as adequate remedies for social evils; we know that the *literal* interpretation of the Gospel precept, "Feed the hungry, clothe the naked," is not a solution of the difficulty. Experience has shown that, except in cases of temporary or accidental necessity, public and systematic relief only tends to moral deterioration; it is but a return in modern guise to the daily doles of religious communities under the *ancien régime*, which only resulted in the encouragement of the sluggard and the misery of whole masses of the people.

General principles laid down by Commission

Causes of
Poverty.

Depreciates
indiscrimi-
nate help.

es
of
bene-
volence.

Sanitary
measures
ready in
3.

The Committee then ask: "In the greater number of cases, is the condition of necessitous children the result of unmerited misfortune on the part of the parents? In the majority of cases it is due to idleness, thriftlessness, drunkenness, or ignorance. Furthermore, in cases where no blame attaches, then not only the children but the whole family need help; the head of the family needs to be supplied with work, and the various associations of private charity can best deal with such cases."

"But," says the Committee, "it is urged that all children who are or who seem to be in want should be helped. Is it not obvious that to do this is the surest way to augment the numbers who require such aid? With every charitable intention, the last bond uniting parents and children is broken, which is often the only influence restraining parents from giving way entirely to vicious habits. To quote a French economist, the free distribution of relief only makes the poor comfortable in their poverty, instead of helping them to rise out of it."

"It is useless," the authors of the report continue, "to maintain that the obligation in this case is the same as that of providing education, which the progressive party in Belgium has always recognised as one of the most pressing duties of the State. Education is a great social interest, a need which individual citizens are not able to supply for their children. But food and clothing are not public, but personal necessities, which it is not inherently impossible for parents to provide. Our energies should rather be directed to restore self-respect, and to make parents feel the necessity of working for their children. And in our endeavours to protect the poor from unmerited adversity, we should strive to develop the spirit of forethought, order and economy."

"But in spite of all that has been said," continues the report, "it must not be supposed that nothing ought to be done, and that nothing is done. We gladly recognise the admirable efforts of the benevolent, which provide warm clothing every winter for the children in our schools. In the case of Kindergarten for instance, School Committees, charitable societies, young girls in the higher grade schools, vie with one another in generous effort. In the primary schools, clothing is frequently given; in some schools members of the staff forego certain payments in order to assist this work; and the Communal Committee of Benevolence during the past year have clothed 1,435 children; while, finally, the Communal Council voted a sum of 10,440 fos. for the purchase of materials to be made up by the needlework classes in the girls' schools, and then distributed among the poorer children."

"We also call attention to the sanitary measures in our schools, which have been taken as a model in many other towns, both in Belgium and elsewhere. Sixteen doctors inspect the schools, each being bound to visit a certain number every ten days, and the Service of Public Health keeps control of their visits by means of the readings of the thermometer in every school, which have to be signed by the medical officer at each visit."

"Sickly children are given every day a dose of cod-liver oil, or a preparation of iron powder, which is supplied by the Committee of Public Benevolence. These remedies are administered by members of the teaching staff; every child has a separate glass, which must be washed daily; and once a month the visiting doctor must be present when the medicine is administered."

"A dentist is attached to the schools, who visits all the schools once month, and attends to the cases which are brought to his notice by teachers, and those which he himself observes. In 1894-5, 3,676 children were given preventive remedies, and at the end of the year,

3,409, or 92·7 per cent., were reported as benefited; and 1,292 children were operated on by the dentist. These things cost the town annually from 10,000 to 11,000 fcs."

"With regard to food, the 'Progress Club' has organised the supply of soup and a piece of bread to such children as are recommended by the teachers as needy; and in this work the town has assisted. The very fact that the resources of this private association are limited is an advantage, keeping its work within due limits. We consider that this organisation should continue its operations with, if necessary, subsidies from the Town."

With regard to the future, the report considers that "the annual expenditure necessary to provide for the estimated needs, as to food and clothing, would amount to about 389,000 fcs., exclusive of working expenses. The vote of 51,000 fcs. to the 'Progress Club,' proposed by one member, might be a sop to public sentiment, but it would be only the bandage which hides the wound but does not heal it."

"The plate of soup supplied to necessitous children does something for them doubtless, but is not sufficient for their support, even with the more substantial stew, which is sometimes given, especially as some parents make it a pretext for giving no meal at home, and the doctors pronounce that every child who does not get meat or eggs four times a week is insufficiently nourished. Some have taken higher ground in advocating the supply of food to the children at school, talking of the preservation and the future of the race. If we take that ground, the simple plate of soup will not suffice, and we must not be contented with half measures, if we admit the principle."

"In our estimate of expenses, we have not included the supply of bedding. Many poor people who are bound by their work to live in the town would have no room for beds even if they were provided."

"Questions of this kind," concludes the report, "require calm consideration, apart from pure sentiment. The College has endeavoured to conduct the enquiry desired by the Council loyally and completely. But it must not be forgotten that the enquiry only included children attending the Communal Schools, and that the needs of children attending other schools, and of those not at school at all, are equally great. The number of children of school age in the last census is estimated at about 27,000, nearly double the number of those attending the Communal Schools. A sum of nearly 800,000 fcs. would be required to extend the distribution of food and clothing to all necessitous children. Need for sobriety & judgment.

Ought the Town to bear this burden?

We think we have already answered that question.

Can the Town bear this burden?

An examination of the Budget furnishes a sufficient reply. Assuredly it would be desirable to ameliorate, and if possible, to remove the sufferings of children; but where can the Town obtain the necessary means? The financial administration of large towns is becoming ever more and more complex and difficult; needs increase every day, but the public protest loudly against any new demand. Moreover, is it not better to provide for the more imperious necessities by the help of private benevolence and personal initiative? For we repeat, that we should avoid encouraging improvidence, vice, and idleness, and allowing a whole crowd of worthless and degraded people, as it were, to crystallise round a nucleus of temporary and deserving unfortunates. As a general rule all help should be earned by the able-bodied. Every other form of alms degrades a man, and prolongs his wretchedness, and that of his children. With many, the necessity of working for their children is the last rem- Final conclusion.

nant of personal dignity, the last prompting of conscience with regard to work and sobriety. We must not underestimate these considerations, but must echo the words of M. Paulian: "A misplaced benefit is an injury."

This remarkable document is completed by a large number of Appendices, with tables of statistics; some seem to be well worthy of study, and I add those which appear most important.

Method of
Enquiry.

The enquiry form sent to the Head Teachers of Primary Schools is prefaced by a warning that all investigations should be carried out with tact and delicacy. Children are not to be asked any questions publicly which might humiliate them, or ruffle their dignity and self-respect.

Nothing

The enquiry as to the clothing of the children in the Primary Schools of Brussels, includes 11,604 children, with the following result:

Number wearing

Sabots? ...	2,347
Shoes? ...	8,536
Slippers? ...	187
Other covering for the feet? ...	834
Badly shod? ...	1,910
Well shod? ...	9,994

How many

Are usually cleanly and neat in their dress? ...	10,438
Are usually dirty and untidy in their dress ...	1,466
Receive gifts of clothing? ...	2,187
Require such gifts? ...	2,783

efforts
private
volier

With regard to cleanliness:

How many

Habitually come dirty to school? ...	876
Take a bath at least ten times a year? ...	5,577
Take a foot bath once a week? ...	9,086
Wash all over once a week? ...	8,234
Are habitually without pocket-handkerchief? ...	1,924
Receive a dole of soup? ...	3,109
Appear to be insufficiently fed? ...	2,120

pieces

Housing:

Housing.

Children who sleep in a bed? ...	10,543
Who have no bed? ...	538
Sleep in same room as parents? ...	5,635
Sleep in same bed as parents? ...	590
Brothers and sisters sleeping together? ...	578
Sleep in the living-room? ...	2,608
Sleep in a cellar or underground room? ...	99

Food (enquiry includes 11,604 children).

Food

Adequately supplied with food? ...	8,042
Inadequately supplied with food? ...	2,433
In good health? ...	8,410
In moderate health? ...	2,231
In bad health? ...	963