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# Educational Advance- ment Abroad

WITH AN INTRODUCTORY ESSAY

BY

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# Educational Advancement Abroad

## I

### WORLD-EDUCATION : SOME GENERAL MOVEMENTS

**J**UST a decade ago, though no one realized it, the old world was coming to an end. The New Year messages of the statesmen of that recent, yet infinitely remote, period, January 1914, breathed tranquillity and conveyed an assurance that never had international amity been more marked, the prospects of peace brighter, the stability of the European system less likely to be shaken. Yet even then, during the early months of 1914, forces were at work preparing the way for that great four years' conflict which sufficed to bring the old order to the ground and to substitute a chaos out of which men of goodwill are diligently, and not unhelpfully, trying—in spite of much unfortunate and misguided obstruction—to constitute a new cosmos.

The War, which revealed many unsuspected or

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but half-realized truths to the eyes of awakened observers, made it abundantly clear that defects in world-education had played no small part in precipitating the world-catastrophe. The three most glaring of these defects were excessive nationalism, excessive materialism, and excessive intellectualism. Each of the three was, as is usually the case, the result of the exaggeration or over-emphasis of a quality which in moderation is valuable and even necessary. First, the proper love of country, which in its true proportion manifests itself in an ennobling and enlarging patriotism, had been inflamed into an exclusive passion which disregarded and denied the common interests of humanity. Devotion to the fatherland, instead of being looked upon as the best and highest means by which a citizen can render service to mankind at large, was treated as an end in itself, and as superseding all other duties and loyalties. Hence a narrow engrossment upon national history, national geography, national language, national literature, to the neglect of those aspects of education which emphasize and display the common heritage of civilization, and the mutual indebtedness of the peoples of the different races and States of the modern world.

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Secondly, the heavy stress everywhere laid upon the economic aspect of life had perverted education to material ends. History was represented too exclusively in terms of industrial advance and commercial development, of conflict for food and clothing, of concentration upon the affairs of the body to the neglect of the affairs of the spirit. Geography, having emancipated itself from the memorization of lists of capes and bays, had become enslaved to the study of national resources, regional activities, and mercantile trade-routes. Language had become too much a mere vehicle of international business and commercial correspondence; and literature a matter of technical journals, trade supplements, and treatises on finance and foreign exchanges. Thirdly, the intellectual side of education had become unduly exalted, to the disproportionate degradation of the moral and spiritual sides. This, no doubt, was to some extent the result of the increasingly keen competition for scholarships and prizes, and to the steady rise in the standard of all public examinations: nothing except early specialization and extreme concentration could hope to achieve success in the field of educational athletics. The neglect of the other sides of education—æsthetic,

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ethical, humane, religious—had, however, the most serious and deplorable consequences. It had produced a generation of men whose mental capacity far exceeded their moral stability; its typical achievements were motor-bandits, card-sharpers, company promotors, international financiers, and real politicians. Hence that confused struggle for world-dominion and world-markets, gold, and glory, which precipitated the World War.

During the War the importance of education was everywhere recognized. Even in the autocratic monarchies, but particularly in the constitutional democracies opposed to them, public opinion was perceived to be the ultimate sovereign power. Rousseau had come to his own: the doctrine which he had propounded in the middle of the eighteenth century had established itself as an axiom in the convictions of all Governments—the doctrine, namely, that ultimate authority resides and must reside in the people as a whole, and that their general will is the final determinant of all policies. Hence in every belligerent country an education campaign of a sort was started. Documents (often garbled or expurgated) were published; stories (in both senses of the word) were told; information (judiciously selected) was

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imparted ; pamphlets (inevitably *ex parte*) were drawn up by tame experts and circulated broadcast, regardless of cost. By every possible means, in every State involved in the colossal conflict, attempts were made to mould public opinion, arouse the communal conscience, and point the general will. The education thus disseminated and implanted was not without fruit. It found a soil eager to receive it : the community at large in every State, except perhaps Germany, had been caught unprepared, and had become involved in a gigantic struggle the causes and the issues of which were alike obscure. Hence there was a world-demand for information concerning international affairs and the history of the antecedents of the great conflagration. But, of course, the education imparted in such circumstances was necessarily of a partisan and partial type. Valiant efforts were made by many of the patriotic professors who were conscripted by their respective Governments into this educational service to keep their minds free from prejudice, and to present things as they actually were. But amid falling bombs, shattered homes, consuming anxieties, and a shaking civilization, scientific precision is unattainable. War-education degenerated into an

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orgy of violent propaganda. Nevertheless, it served some useful purposes. Apart from such share as it may have had in determining the result of the War, it revealed the fact that there exist vast realms of knowledge which call for exploration, and showed how fascinating such exploration may become.

Hence at the close of the War, in every country which had been engaged in the conflict, notable educational movements were manifested. The most remarkable phenomena of a general character displayed by these movements were perhaps the following: (1) a strong demand for the extension of educational facilities; for the prolongation of the period of schooling; for the erection of more ladders whereby talent can rise from the primary schools to the universities; for the increase of the means for adult education; (2) an appeal for the widening of the educational curriculum; for emancipation from the restricted scope of mere nationalism in knowledge; for the study of all the great subjects of the school and college course from the cosmopolitan point of view, so that the same text-books should be equally serviceable to students of the same subjects all the world over; (3) a cry for deliverance from materialism; from the economic interpretation of history;

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from commercial geography ; from infantile book-keeping and shorthand ; from the civics which consists of immature politics ; from the arithmetic which concentrates on stocks and shares ; from the science which has its eye on manufacture ; and from all premature anticipations of the curriculum of the School of Economics ; (4) a call for a return to the humanities ; for a larger and more intelligent attention to art and music ; for a more assiduous cultivation of character ; for a fuller recognition of the supreme claims of the spiritual nature of man. These various demands involve (5) an earnest and general request on the part of teachers for greater freedom in their work, and, above all, for liberty to make experiments in the new modes of education which recent advances in psychological knowledge so richly suggest ; and (6) a strenuous resistance to the efforts made on the one hand by Governments, Boards of Education, inspectors, and officials generally, and on the other hand by voluntary associations of enthusiastic devotees of countless good causes, to capture the schools for propagandist purposes.

The detailed study of these various movements, as they have manifested themselves in this country or in that, falls outside the scope of the present

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introductory sketch. They are dealt with by a number of experts, each of whom treats of an educational system with which he is intimately acquainted. A few matters of outstanding interest may, however, be summarily indicated here. First, there can be no question that the world-movement for adult education is one of the most remarkable and most hopeful phenomena of the time. Those who are sufficiently interested in it to wish to study it in detail are advised to procure the admirable series of reports, still in process of publication, which were issued by the World Association for Adult Education (13 John Street, London, W.C. 2). A recent report relating to Denmark is peculiarly important, for Denmark, it appears, can claim to be the pioneer in the work of providing facilities for those whose early education has been defective or incomplete. The most cheering feature of the movement is the fact that it has come into being generally in answer to a spontaneous demand from the adult students themselves. It is a movement not unlike that scholastic upheaval at the close of the Middle Ages which resulted in the founding of universities where colleges of eager learners elected their own teachers, kept them up to the mark by a stern and



exacting discipline, and dismissed them if they proved to be inefficient ; it is a movement which may well lead to a new Renaissance and a greater Reformation. It is not free from perils such as those which menaced its medieval prototype. The most serious is that it should be captured by political or anti-political extremists, and prostituted to the purposes of the class war. If it can escape this peril, and if it can rise to the height of its educational opportunities, it has a great future before it.

Secondly, it is notable that in several countries parents are beginning to take a more active and direct share in the education of their children. This is much to the good : it is a tardy recognition of the fact that a large part of the effective education of every child is acquired in the place where he lives, and from the people among whom he spends his out-of-school hours. Hence it is eminently desirable that there should be close co-operation between parents and teachers ; that on the one side the teachers should know what are the aims and desires of the parents in respect of their children, and on the other side that the teachers should have the opportunity of educating the parents to take a larger view of their children's possibilities, and to play a more intelligent part in

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their upbringing. In Germany this idea of mutual assistance has been realized in *Elternbeiräte*, or assessor councils, whose operation in practice deserves careful observation. Already it has become evident that their undoubted advantages are counterbalanced by some dangers: there is the danger lest parental interest should develop into undue parental interference, to the weakening of the teacher's authority and the limitation of his freedom; there is the still more serious danger that the councils should pass under the control of political cliques, and become the battle-ground of contending parties in the State.

Thirdly, all over the world there is a marvellous outcrop of educational experiments. The new psychology which has revealed to educationists the unsuspected depths of the child-mind, and the immense power of ancestral impulses, has led to the invention of numerous novel methods specially designed to draw out latent capacities. In countries with old-established Governments and long-settled educational systems these novelties are being introduced with difficulty, treated with suspicion, and adopted with extreme caution. In the new States of Central Europe, where political power is in the hands of new men, they are being

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welcomed, and are undergoing a trial which errs, if at all, on the side of excessive indulgence. Notable among these novelties is the *Arbeitschule* of Austria. This 'work-school' is based on the Dalton principle of laboratory practice applied to all subjects. The pupils discard text-books and develop each his own curriculum under the teacher's direction. No doubt the financial impossibility of procuring text-books in Austria has helped to popularize this development of the Heuristic Method. The Saxon *Volksschule* is another interesting experiment. The aim of this 'folk-school' is stated to be "the development of the child through the training of its physical and mental capacities, so that it will be able to play its part later in social service." The characteristic features of its liberal curriculum are freedom from rigid discipline, mutual assistance in tasks assigned, plentiful handwork, and frequent visits to centres of agriculture and industry, so that every child may have data to guide him when the time comes for him to make choice of a career. Then again there are the new German *Grundschule* and *Einheitschule*, but the distinctive features of these are not so much educational innovations as the social principle that the children of all classes, high and low,

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should be trained together in the earlier stages of their school-life, so that barriers of rank and status, of wealth and profession, may be broken down, and that proletarian equality may be made to prevail.

Finally, it may be noted that throughout the world the very fundamentals of educational theory are being exposed and re-examined by skilled and earnest students. (1) They are asking, once again, What is the ultimate aim of education? Is its supreme purpose personal or communal? Does it set before itself as a final object the creation of the good citizen, or is it more concerned to enable the individual, as an end in himself, to realize his latent capacities of hand, and mind, and character? (2) They are asking, further, What should be the scope and content of education? What subjects should be included in the curriculum? What should be the ratio of the handwork to headwork? Should science be made the basis of modern education, or should the humanities still retain their primary place? Among the humanities should Greek and Latin be retained, or should modern languages with their appendant literature and history take their room? (3) They are asking, last of all, Is there any special method of education which can be regarded as universally

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the best, or rather should each individual teacher be left to develop his own method, and teach in any manner which he finds most effective? These and many other problems are being eagerly and freely debated among educationists of all nations. That these debates will bear good fruit cannot be questioned. No doubt many foolish things will be said in the discussion, and no doubt many wild experiments will be made. A report on one of the German *Versuchsschulen* condemned the so-called education provided as "mere idle playing by pupils and teachers," and described its methods as "crazy extravagance." We can be sure, however, that, provided only that teachers are left free to try and to discontinue their experiments, the bad will be eliminated and the good alone will be allowed to survive. The great thing is that at the present day the world as a whole is a single laboratory, so that whatever of wise or excellent character is generated and developed in any land, it speedily becomes the heritage of all mankind. It is the purpose of this book to make the most recent results of educational thought and pedagogic experiment known to the teachers of Great Britain.

F. J. C. HEARNshaw

## II

### THE DEMOCRATIC ELEMENT IN FRENCH EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

**E**DUCATION is given in France in State institutions, and in private institutions which are to a considerable extent under the influence of the Church. The latter are only subject to inspection by State agents as regards sanitary regulations and the efficiency of the teachers, who are not allowed to teach unless they have the necessary qualifications. The State alone confers university degrees and determines the programme of work which leads up to them. This results in a uniformity throughout the country not only in the State institutions, but also in the others which are obliged by the requirements of their pupils to prepare for the examinations. But, as from the pedagogic point of view they are not inspected, it is possible for them to take certain liberties with the syllabus. From the democratic point of view these free institutions

<sup>1</sup> This article is largely based on material supplied by M. Albert Giraud of the École Turgot of Paris.

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are rarely interesting. In order to exist they are obliged to charge rather high fees. Otherwise they would have to depend on subscriptions from rich economic groups who are not believers in democratic politics. The Roman Catholic Church, which dominates many of the free establishments, is not rich enough to subsidize them to any extent. If, therefore, there exists in France a democratic organization of education, it can only do so at the cost of the State.

French public education falls under three categories: (1) primary education, given free from six to thirteen years in the public schools, and ending with the certificate for primary studies; (2) secondary education, which is partially<sup>1</sup> paid for, given in the *lycées* and colleges up to seventeen years, and ends with the Baccalauréat, an examination which corresponds roughly with our Higher School Leaving Certificate, and serves as entrance to the university; (3) university education, given in the various faculties of the universities, commencing at eighteen years. There exist also numerous special schools, formerly created by the

<sup>1</sup> In all cases fees, when charged, only represent a fraction of the total cost. This enables a comparatively poor student to attend the universities, the charges of which are far below our own.

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Convention and by Napoleon, such as L'École Polytechnique (for engineers and artillery officers), L'École de Saint-Cyr (for infantry and cavalry officers), L'École Normale Supérieure (for professors of secondary and higher education), etc. These schools are entered by examinations, and generally, except in the latter, instruction is partially paid for. In addition, primary education has been extended by the creation of (1) complementary courses given in the elementary school itself; (2) higher primary schools, the value of which is very unequal, for in the provinces they can be entered without examination for a period of from two to three years, whilst in Paris they can only be entered after an examination for a period of three and even four years; (3) professional schools of a more or less pronounced technical character. The higher primary schools are a natural continuation of the primary schools; they consist of a first year of general instruction, a second and third year of specialized instruction (general section, industrial section, commercial section, normal section, following primary education). This instruction ends with the certificate of higher primary education. In the fourth year they prepare for the various schools—for example,



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*les Écoles d'Arts* and *les Écoles Normales*. There are no fees in these schools.

Thus we can distinguish two groups of institutions, each forming a well co-ordinated system, but insufficiently related to one another ; on the one hand the secondary and higher institutions, on the other the primary schools, the higher primary and technical schools, and training-colleges for elementary teachers. This duality has arisen out of the different systems of education in France which have been created at different epochs and with different objects. The first creations date from Napoleon, who established the *lycées* in 1802 and the faculties in 1806, these latter having been grouped in 1893 under the Third Republic in seventeen universities. Napoleon did not bother about primary education, which he left to private initiative and to the religious orders such as the Christian Brothers. *Les Écoles des Frères* represented at that time a fairly democratic type of education, for their spirit and their powerful organization brought them into touch with the people and enabled them to assure free education. But in order to prepare the pupils for secondary education it was necessary to create in the *lycées* and colleges elementary classes with fees, which

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gave a real primary education. These preparatory departments exist to-day for children from six to ten years, and it is not until a pupil is nearing eleven years of age that he really commences secondary work.

The corresponding group of elementary institutions are of more recent creation. The State elementary schools were founded by Guizot in 1833. At the outset they charged fees, and education was not compulsory. It was not until 1882, after the Act of June 16, 1881, that they became free. With the inevitable development of primary education there has followed the creation of complementary courses of higher primary schools, and of training colleges for teachers, of which we have already spoken, the idea being to cater for a *clientèle* that wanted more than the elementary school and less than the *lycée*. All these institutions are free to-day, whilst the *lycées* and the universities charge fees. Thus public education is divided into two rival groups, the primary, more democratic, the secondary and higher,<sup>1</sup> which, in spite of certain opinions to the contrary, retains an aristocratic organization. Each of these two

<sup>1</sup> Higher education in France always means education of university rank.

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groups tends to constitute a complete organization of public instruction, going outside their real function ; for while the secondary schools have formed within themselves a primary course in the elementary classes of the *lycées*, the primary schools have organized higher primary institutions and training-colleges, including higher training-colleges for supplying the professors in the former, which thus form a complete counterpart to (one had almost said counterfeit of) the *lycées*.

These two groups have little dealings with one another for financial and administrative reasons. It is difficult for a poor child who has had free education up to eleven years to pay the fees of the *lycée*, having regard to the fact that whilst he is studying he cannot earn his living. Fortunately, however, scholarships have come into existence, but the number of scholarships was, until the last few years, very restricted, because the grant allowed by the State for this purpose was insufficient. Moreover, these scholarships did not always benefit the poor ; Article 1a of the decree of August 6, 1895, stated in effect : “ Scholarships are conferred on children of French nationality whose ability has been demonstrated, and particularly to those whose families have rendered

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*service to the country*, and they are only granted when inquiry has established the insufficiency of the family's means." Moreover, it is not clear what services are meant here, and what degrees of consanguinity the word 'family' covers. The clause in fact opens the way to favouritism. Even if this is not the case, the fact remains that the scholarships too often are awarded to the children of Government officials, belonging to the lower or even the higher middle class, rather than to those of the working classes. The Minister of Public Instruction admitted this himself in a circular of December 21, 1922, addressed to the rectors of the universities, who are the local heads of education. "The statistics of candidates with national scholarships for secondary schools granted for 1922 show that out of 4152 presented in the first and second series, 2070 came from secondary schools (*i.e.*, they belonged to middle-class families), and 1732 only from the primary schools."<sup>1</sup> The insufficiency of the latter figure, when compared with the total figure of the pupils in the elementary primary schools, is evident. The small number of candidates from the children of the

<sup>1</sup> There are, also, departmental and communal scholarships, but on a far more limited scale than in England.

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working classes proves what their parents know well, that the chances of their children are small. It is necessary to mention yet another cause which is, perhaps, more important: the bare payment of fees by the State is not sufficient for the really poor people, as it is necessary to maintain the child throughout the period of his studies, whilst he is earning nothing. And, again, it is often said that people starve in the liberal professions, so that many parents prefer to teach their children a solid and well-paying manual trade. Let us say, however, that in 1923 the grant allowed for scholarships was greatly increased, and the question of maintenance grants was considered. In spite of the faults of the system it has rendered service, and through that narrow door of competition for scholarships many remarkable men of modest origin have passed; it has helped to mitigate the aristocratic nature of French secondary education.

Added to the financial difficulty is another, resulting from organization. It is at eleven years of age, in the sixth class, that a child in the *lycée* really begins secondary education; and it is at twelve or thirteen, after the certificate of studies has been obtained, that primary education ends. Now the children of the primary schools are

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entitled to present themselves for the examination for scholarships at eleven years old, before they have finished their course at school, or else they must wait until they are twelve years old. They are thus forced to give up working for the certificate before they know whether they will succeed in their work at the *lycée*, or else they must fall a year behind their small comrades who have come from the junior classes of the *lycées*. It is therefore much easier for them to pass on to a higher elementary school or a technical school, which are natural extensions of the primary school. But then they are deprived of the benefits of the more refined culture of the *lycée* and, in addition, of access to higher education, which is forbidden to them as they do not possess the higher school certificate which crowns secondary education, and which, as has been stated, is indispensable for entrance into the university. Obviously all these difficulties are not insurmountable, but all the same they constitute collectively a formidable barrier that restricts the influx of the children of the working classes into the *lycées*, already rendered sufficiently difficult by the lack of means on the part of the parents.

With the development of democratic ideals this

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situation has become so obviously unjustifiable that attempts have been made to adapt the system to the needs of a democracy. A modern education without Latin was introduced into the *lycées* under the ministry of M. Duruy, which attracted a small number of children from the merchants, large farmers, and small officials, but it was held in less esteem in secondary circles until 1902, the year in which a complete reform divided into four equal sections the former classical discipline, and shattered at the same time the strong prejudice in favour of Latin. From the democratic point of view these new types of really modern education offered the advantage of allowing the children from the primary and even higher primary schools to pass straight into the *lycée*, as they were no longer faced with the obstacle of the Latin language, which, whatever their age, compelled them formerly to start it with the beginners of eleven in the *lycée*. They could work straight away in a section that led to the higher school certificate, and so to the university.

At last certain primary examinations had been allowed to rank as equivalents to this higher examination, while the Ministry adopted the practice of granting exemption from it to promising students.

All this, in spite of its rather aristocratic constitution, enabled the French secondary system to offer certain facilities to the children of the working classes. People devoted to democratic ideas, while desirous of safeguarding the strong cultural bias of secondary education, declared themselves satisfied with it, except for sundry alterations of details and certain improvements in the system of scholarships. They maintained, in fact, that, under the new system, a really capable pupil from the working classes could always find the means to enter the higher school. With certain financial concessions the State, they thought, could thus give access to the *lycée* to all those who would really benefit by it ; as for the others, there was no need to uproot them from their proper surroundings. Others, however, declared that the whole system should be rebuilt on a new plan, because the openings offered to the people would never be adequate. The method they suggested was so to improve primary education that it might directly link up with secondary. That is why all primary teachers are in favour of modern education and the recognition of certain examinations as equivalent to university entrance. In that case secondary education, while no longer being the



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sole means of entering the universities, would still remain as an education *de luxe*, classical in form and aristocratic in character, which would end by losing all importance. But it is to be feared that its decline or disappearance would result in a grave loss to French genius, as the value of this education, which has no equivalent<sup>1</sup> in other countries, could hardly be replaced by that given in the higher primary schools. This is really the crux of the problem.

Another method suggested was to link up secondary education with primary education, in such a manner as to suppress all obstacles preventing the free passage of the primary child into the *lycée*. This is the aspiration of the New University, an association of teachers, the Companions of the New University; that is to say, the complete assimilation of the elementary classes of the *lycées* with the primary school, a compulsory competitive examination for entrance into the *lycée*, free secondary and university education, and, eventually, the creation of maintenance grants, a reduction in the time devoted to secondary education in order better to link up the *lycée* with the school, with every facility for allowing those whose ability

<sup>1</sup> Owing to its philosophic element.

is revealed at a later period to enter the *lycée* or the university. The campaign of the Companions has revealed the existence of the problem and thus stirred public opinion. Many of their principles have been accepted ; the chief opposition has been based on the difficulties attending their carrying out in practice.

The present<sup>1</sup> Minister, M. Léon Bérard, has started from another point of view in his recent reform. He wished to restore the general culture which seemed to him to be bound up with Latin and Greek. He has therefore, by the decree of May 3, 1923, made Latin compulsory for four years, and Greek for two years. But he had to give a proof of his democratic spirit by linking up the elementary school with the *lycée*. By the circular of February 24, 1923, he had already divided into two sections the Primary Education Certificate ; in future the first part must be passed at eleven years, the second at twelve. By the decree of May 3, 1923, it is now necessary to pass a competitive examination before entering the sixth class of the *lycée* ; the pupils of the lower classes of the *lycée* are compelled to do this as well as those of the primary school who have obtained

<sup>1</sup> February 1924.

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the first part of the Certificate of Studies. Facilities are given to older elementary pupils who wish to enter the *lycée* later, but on condition that they learn Latin and Greek. A classical certificate, to be obtained prior to the university entrance examination, will be necessary as evidence of having studied the ancient languages. An equivalent examination will probably be allowed to the students of the elementary training colleges in lieu of the examination for entrance into the universities.

These reforms are at present the subject of much criticism and discussion. The opponents of the Ministry maintain that the Latin barrier will prove insurmountable for working-class children, if they have not decided at eleven years of age to enter the *lycée*. It is also feared that the certificate for classical studies may largely profit the private school, whose programme of studies is not under control, and so play into the hands of the Roman Catholic Church. It is further urged that the democratic concessions made under the new system will be largely inefficacious. On the other hand, it is only fair to the Minister to state that the connexion between French and Latin is so close in France, not only in literary but also in linguistic matters, that a far stronger case can be

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made out for compulsory Latin in France than in any other country, with the possible exception of Italy. M. Bérard may well have taken for his motto *Antiquam exquirite matrem*, for French is not only the direct descendant, but the co-heiress of Latin and its culture.

The future will decide who is correct. One thing is certain: the question of making education democratic has been raised. Whatever the obstacles may be, the people desirous of raising themselves will know how to surmount them. There is no law the results of which one can predict in advance, and in this matter custom will usually have the advantage over the letter of the legislation.

The new reforms have already been introduced into the sixth year. They will thus take six years before they are complete, the present pupils in the various sections, Latin-Science, Latin-Modern Languages, and Modern Languages-Science, being gradually eliminated. When the reform is in full working order there will be one single course up to the second year, after which the pupils who do not wish to continue their Latin and Greek will take up modern studies. When the new programmes are in full work it will be found that

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history and geography are in the same position as before, and that modern languages have lost here and there an hour, which they can probably spare. Far more serious is the case of science, which loses about a quarter of its time compared with the former specialized course in science (only nine and a half<sup>1</sup> hours as against twelve and a half for the six years). Mathematics is still harder hit, retaining only sixteen hours out of twenty-four. The *bain de science*, which M. Liard thought so necessary for the nation, has been reduced to a mere foot-bath. At first blush the new reforms would seem to have side-tracked at once the sciences and democracy, though our opinion as regards the latter may undergo modification when the still somewhat vague proposals for constructing new points of junction between the two parallel parts, elementary and secondary, have been more fully worked out. The reform, however, is bound up with the fortunes of the present Ministry. The elections are in six months' time. From which it is clear that nothing is certain, and before the year is out it is quite possible that the new reforms, which some might call reaction, may have disappeared. Meanwhile, however much one may

<sup>1</sup> Adding together all the hours per week for the whole course.

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disagree with M. Bérard, he has certainly proved himself the Mussolini of French education.

CLOUDESLEY BRERETON

### ADDITIONAL NOTE, *May 1925*

What was hinted at in the above article as possible has come to pass. M. Poincaré has been defeated at the polls, and the reforms of M. Bérard have suffered accordingly. As far as Latin and Greek are concerned, a complete reversion to the former conditions has been started under the ministry of M. Herriot, and will no doubt be carried to a conclusion under that of M. Painlevé. There are, however, hopes that the too ambitious syllabuses in some subjects—which were rightly criticized by M. Bérard—may be reduced to more reasonable proportions. Of course, there is always the possibility of a change of Government, especially in view of the election of Hindenburg to the German Presidency. It may come through a fresh election or a regrouping of the existing Parliamentary parties, resulting in a majority in favour of the former *régime*. In that case an attempt would doubtless be made to re-establish M. Bérard's programme in whole or in part, unless the teachers as a body proved themselves strong enough to protest effectively against these constant changes in organization, which are bad for pupils and teachers alike.

C. B.

### III

## REFORMS IN AUSTRIA

ONE of the chief objections to a centralized system of State schools has always been that it would tend to become conservative and obstruct educational progress. The example of New Austria shows that this need not be; that, on the contrary, such an organization may be utilized to test new ideas on a scale unknown where such a system does not exist.

Austria has had State control in all educational matters since Maria Theresa (1774); uniform elementary schools have been in existence for more than fifty years, and higher education has been closely subordinated to central legislation. The new State has not changed this; there are even tendencies to a complete nationalization of the school. Yet the fact that a modern spirit has animated the well-defined central authorities has made it possible to start the whole country on new educational ways and to overcome difficulties that must have proved disastrous to separate action and private enterprise.

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The compulsory character of elementary and the democratic system of secondary education, which low fees <sup>1</sup> and liberal fee-exemptions make accessible to practically every gifted boy of ten or eleven, explain why the problem of the *Einheitsschule* has not become so conspicuous to foreign observers as, say, in Germany, and why the reform in Austria commenced with the inner reorganization of the school. The inner reform itself, however, is essentially conditioned by the comprehensive scheme of a national education for all (*Einheitsschule*), which is designed to secure such a training to every Austrian child as will best suit its abilities.

The scheme in which the Reform Department of the Ministry for Education has sketched the main lines of school reorganization is based on social considerations as well as on the results of pedagogical research, its chief claim being that by postponing until the age of fourteen the necessity of deciding on a specialized course in higher education a stronger spirit of solidarity will be created, and at the same time a better chance given to the slow child, who under the present system might have been denied a higher

<sup>1</sup> About £4 before the War, now about £1 10s. per annum.



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education to which abilities developed after the age of ten would give it a claim. As such ideas are by no means unfamiliar to English readers, a graphic comparison between the existing system and the new plan will need no further explanation.

Year :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Age :	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. OLD SYSTEM :	Elementary School ( <i>Volksschule</i> ) Rural Elementary School				Higher Elem. School ( <i>Bürgerschule</i> ) Rural Elementary School				PROFESSIONS Technical School Commercial Sch. Teachers' Training School				Universities			
					Secondary Schools : ( <i>Gymnasium</i> or <i>Realschule</i> )				Realgymnasium)  PROFESSIONS AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS Technical School							
2. PROPOSED NEW SYSTEM :	Elementary School ( <i>Grundschule</i> )				Rural Elementary Schools (upper standards) Secondary School ( <i>Allg. Mittelschule</i> , 2 courses)				Commercial School  Higher Secondary Schools ( <i>Wissenschaftliche Oberschulen</i> , 4 types)  Girls' High School				Universities			

It will be evident that in such a scheme as this the first two stages must necessarily be arranged to develop the natural faculties of the pupil and to enable him to make the best choice of the facilities for higher education offered at the age of fourteen. It is in this direction that the inner

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reform, of the elementary school especially, comes in. Revolutionary as it may seem to the outsider and to the conservative mind, the scheme is based on international movements which have attracted the attention of all educationists. In Germany (not to mention other countries) G. Kerschensteiner and H. Gaudig had for many years propagated the idea of the *Arbeitsschule*, while E. Meumann had developed a new science through his method of pedagogical experiments. Small-scale experiments had been going on for years in Germany, though widely differing in scope and ways. In Austria, whose German population has never been separated from the intellectual life of the mother country, Dr E. Burger and the German teachers of Bohemia had taken a keen interest in school reform before the War, as shown since 1911 in A. Herget's monthly, *Schaffende Arbeit und Kunst in der Schule*.

In 1919 Otto Gloeckel, himself an ex-teacher and then State Secretary for Education (now President of the Vienna Education Office), decided to test the advocated methods in a manner which could not have been employed in a country with a less centralized educational system. In June of that year he authorized teachers in elementary

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schools to base their next year's work on the methods of the *Arbeitsschule*, and inspectors were directed to encourage such experiments and to report on the results. The experiments (156 in Vienna, 96 in the country) proved so successful that a new curriculum was drafted and ordered to be tried in all elementary schools (Standards I-V) of the country, while in higher elementary and the uppermost standards of rural schools the principles of self-activity of the pupil, local differentiation, and concentration of subject-matter were to be applied, as far as possible, within the existing curricula. The classes in which the new method had been introduced first were now to act as demonstration-classes, and certain modifications, suggested by district committees, were made in order to prevent a chaotic development of individualistic teaching.

Elementary education has been entirely re-organized by the reform. Contrary to the mainly receptive *Lernschule*, the new school makes the child the centre; on his activity and observation all instruction is based; the lessons commence with given surroundings, and when the child's activity is limited by the narrow classroom, he leaves the school-house to acquire new material

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on walks and excursions. Instead of the rigid time-table, which forced the youthful mind to leap from one trend of thought to another, the classwork turns round one central problem, and it is left to the discretion of the teacher to give each subject its proper place round the central lesson. A visit to a market-place (to give one instance only) yields material for oral and written composition, for a discussion on trade (geography and history), for natural history and science problems, for arithmetic (weights and prices), finally for a merry half-hour of creative reproduction (modelling, paper-cutting, drawing, etc.).

The new methods of language and art teaching have certainly resulted in a greater development of individual expression ; handicraft, gymnastics, singing, and (occasional) instrumental training have developed a better conscious co-operation between body and mind ; and only those who have taken part in one of the children's ' school-walks ' can realize how much more can be learned, and is learned—in town and country—by such living object-lessons than ever could have been in the dull classroom. While the acquirement of systematic knowledge has certainly been delayed,

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practical knowledge at each stage can undoubtedly be increased.

It is a natural consequence of the new method that the 'report,' though not abolished, is now of less importance than the 'description of the pupil,' this being in general a lengthy document of about eighty items, which describes the individual features and abilities of the child.

Gloeckel's school reform has not unfrequently been objected to on the ground that it had been "hurled on an ill-prepared mass of teachers," and it cannot be denied that there have been failures. All the more, therefore, must we admire the energy and ability with which the majority of the teachers have set to work, in spite of deficient training, of economic troubles, and of the fact that the new method requires much harder work on the part of the teacher than the old. Their task has been especially difficult in rural schools, most of which only have one or two teachers, who have to instruct all eight standards at the same time. Whoever has seen 'group teaching' in practice has learnt to respect the *Dorfschulmeister*; it is remarkable how enthusiastically he has answered the call, and it is

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to be hoped some of the difficulties he has to meet will soon be removed.<sup>1</sup>

While this inner reform of the *Grundschule* was being tested, experiments were also made in the reorganization of higher education.<sup>2</sup> A new type of secondary school, the *Deutsche Mittelschule*, was inaugurated in 1919. This differs from the old secondary school in the emphasis given to a thorough training in the mother tongue. A foreign language is started in the third standard only, when the pupils have a choice of Latin, French (or English, in a few schools), and an extended German course. Many features of the *Arbeitsschule* are, besides, reflected in the curriculum, and about a third of the pupils' time is devoted to manual activities (art and handiwork lessons) and physical exercises. More than thirty schools all over Austria<sup>3</sup> have adopted the new

<sup>1</sup> There are 416 elementary schools in Vienna, and 4182 in the rest of Austria; almost 30 per cent. of the latter consist of one class, while another 27 per cent. have two classes only.

<sup>2</sup> There were 74 *Gymnasien* and *Realgymnasien* in 1922-23, 35 *Realschulen*, and 21 girls' high schools, with a total attendance of 30,000 boys and 7000 girls.

<sup>3</sup> Thirteen State secondary schools in Vienna, eight in provincial towns, two boys', three girls' private secondary schools, besides the six State boarding-schools. Another new curriculum is being tested in three State schools and one private school. The

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plan, and on the whole teachers approve of it. Exception has occasionally been taken to the postponement of foreign language studies—the most essential feature of the scheme—which, it is true, means a serious disadvantage for children of unusual ability.

The significance of the *Deutsche Mittelschule* curriculum lies in the fact that here a plan of (lower) secondary studies has been devised that will, with certain modifications, provide for the intellectual needs of *all* children leaving the *Grundschule* (i.e., a four years' course of elementary education). It has been devised, indeed, as a part of the reorganization scheme of the Reform Department characterized above: a Secondary School for All, modelled on these lines, the *Allgemeine Mittelschule*, is to take the place of the various types of to-day, and social co-education to be continued until the age of fourteen. Thus all lower secondary education would be made uniform and concentrated in one school of a compulsory character, which would prepare pupils for practical work as well as for technical schools

writer is indebted to Dr Moeckel, head of the School Experiments Department of the Ministry for Education, for this detailed information and much valuable advice.

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(*Fach- and Gewerbeschulen*) or for a continuation of their studies in specialized higher courses (*Oberschulen*). Some differentiation has, however, been allowed for: pupils are to take common lessons in most of the practical subjects, but apart from these they will proceed along two parallel courses, according to their ability (*Klassenzug* I and II), in which the amount of knowledge to be acquired, the method of work, and the pace of progress are differentiated, pupils being moved up or down according to their achievements.

The pupils of the *Deutsche Mittelschulen* being selected from the applicants by the same type of 'entrance tests' as are now used in all secondary schools instead of the old *Aufnahmsprüfung*, a large-scale experiment of Secondary Education for All was inaugurated by the Vienna authorities (1922): such classes were opened in three boys' and three girls' schools for all the children that have passed the fourth standard of an elementary school in the area. So far the experience is insufficient to determine the value of the experiment. One impression appears to be predominant: that it is a social problem more than a purely educational one the new school would have to tackle; what can the best teacher avail against unsatis-



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factory influence outside the school? As a consequence it may be that a third course will have to be introduced for the weakest, and possibly a fourth for such children as might be unduly delayed in the development of their abilities by the mass. A final test may become necessary for those who desire to proceed to higher schools.

Such pupils will be offered four courses of higher secondary education (*Oberschulen*), on the curricula of which instruction has already been based in the State boarding-schools (1923). In three types of these attempt is made to co-ordinate the old ideal of an 'all-round education' with special efficiency in a limited group of main subjects: classics, modern languages (French and English), mathematics and science; while the fourth type bases 'general knowledge' on an advanced study of German and history, manual training and English being among the subsidiary subjects.

A new type of higher secondary schools for girls has been created in the *Frauen-Oberschule*, in which special stress is laid on domestic science, practical work, and gardening.

Various smaller experiments have been made in the old secondary schools, and methodical improvements based on the activity idea have been

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introduced. The reform of the entrance examination has been mentioned here; the new regulations for the final examination (*Reifeprüfung*, 1924) give a wider scope to individual ability.

Quite recently English has been allowed to be substituted for French as the first foreign language in the *Realschule* (though various obstacles are in the way of a complete rearrangement such as may be witnessed in some provinces of Germany); the question whether this latter type should not be made more efficient by adding an eighth year to its curriculum is still a question for solution.

A novel feature in Austrian secondary education is supplied in the *Bundes-Erziehungsanstalten* (State boarding-schools), a type of school well known to-day to many educationists in Europe. Military training-colleges had before 1918 been the only State boarding-schools in Austria. When these were abolished four boys' and two girls' colleges were founded in the same buildings to educate young Austrians (from ten to eighteen) to real citizenship. In spite of great difficulties teachers and 'educators' have succeeded in creating a new spirit in the classes and art rooms, workshops and laboratories, in the gardens and on the playing-fields of these schools, which by

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a system of fee-reductions are made accessible to every child that answers the intellectual standard required.

Different schemes have been laid before Parliament with respect to the urgent question of an up-to-date reform of teachers' training-schools. Most of them have provided for a general education in secondary schools (eight years), followed by two years or more of university training. This, more than any other measure proposed, would make for unity of the profession; but hitherto political differences of opinion have frustrated the final solution of the question, which is of the greatest importance for the future of the Austrian school.

Technical and commercial schools are now attracting many pupils who before the War would have had to complete their full secondary course, but in their constitution and curricula few changes of importance have taken place. The universities, likewise, have stood firm amidst all the educational upheavals.

The revival of compulsory day continuation schools (*Gewerbliche Fortbildungsschulen*), which had suffered much during, and in consequence of, the War, is encouraging, and the foundation of

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rural (agricultural) continuation schools in some of the provinces adds another novel feature to the educational system.

In this account of recent progress the co-operation of children and parents with the school must not be forgotten. "Parents' Associations" are now connected with every school and show an increasing interest in general educational matters as well as in the welfare of 'their' special school. In many cases they have been able to help where financial needs threatened to frustrate the staff's best intentions, but their activities have been by no means merely limited to providing funds.

Some mention is also necessary of the part taken by the teachers in the recent reform. Great have been the achievements of those leading representatives of the profession who have directed the educational movements from the central posts of the Ministry, the Reform Department, the Department for School Experiments, and others, but it is the rank and file that have made the reform possible, and they have shown admirable earnestness and energy in coping with the difficulties that confronted them. It is of interest also to realize that the present Minister for Educa-

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tion, Dr Schneider, was formerly a secondary school master and that many heads of administration departments have been filled by teachers. To fill the gaps left by an old-fashioned and deficient training and to determine the best ways of making schoolwork more efficient, study groups (*Arbeitsgemeinschaften*) have been formed everywhere, in which both elementary and secondary teachers are successfully co-operating, and special classes have been opened at which the teachers attend for systematic study. The Pedagogic Institute of Vienna has, in the course of one year, seen its attendance rise to nearly 2000, and the number of its classes increase from fifty to eighty. The activity manifested by rural teachers, under so much more difficult conditions, must here be mentioned once more. In addition to these voluntary efforts, official meetings of teachers are held annually to secure a definite decision on the most important problems under consideration.

It is significant, too, that in addition to the semi-official educational supplement of the Ministry's Gazette (*Volkserziehung*) four monthly papers dealing with school reform problems have been brought into being.

In spite of the economic strain, local authorities

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have done much to assist the great work. To quote the instance of Vienna, books, writing materials, paper, colours, etc., are now supplied free of charge, and three free tram rides are allowed to every class per annum for visits to places of interest. Further numerous new scholarships have been founded.

The State authorities, on the other hand, have been forced to cut down expenditure, in consequence of the Geneva Scheme. It is a sad feature in the 'reconstruction' of Austria that 'economy' should still threaten the very foundations of national recovery. Already the maximum number of pupils per teacher has been raised to fifty, and even more; teachers have been dismissed for economy reasons; there has been talk of closing schools, and salaries, which have been nominally increased, represent not much more than a third of pre-War standards (£60-£180 per annum).

Much of what has been described here as taking place in Austria will, no doubt, sound familiar to an English reader; but while there has been no desire on this account to attribute an exceptional position to activities which have much in common with educational movements in other parts of the

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world, yet it is hoped that an Austrian teacher will be pardoned for being proud of the headway made by his profession, which, in the face of untold distress, has fearlessly striven for a better future for the nation.

M. C. SCHMID-SCHMIDSFELDEN

#### IV

### ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

**I**N comparing his educational system with the European, the intelligent American likes to stress the duality of the system on this side of the Atlantic as contrasted with the unity on his side. In the United States the path from the infants' school to the higher grades at the university is straightforward, rectilinear. In Europe there are two lines running parallel: the elementary line and the secondary, and they are so set out that, in Kipling's phrase, "never the twain shall meet." It is true that the lines are kept parallel, with malice aforethought, in the case of many of the European nations, but only accidentally in England. But in any case, even in England, with its ever-broadening educational 'ladder,' it cannot be denied that the dualism exists. One of the most striking points in which America is in advance of England is to be found in this unity; the great republic has attained what we are but yet striving after—the broad highway of learning open to everybody.



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All the same, America is having to fight for the maintenance of this highway. The private schools are a threatening symptom. A combination of ecclesiastical and social intolerance is promoting the spread of proprietary schools in the United States, with the result that there looms up the possibility of a new sort of duality. The dominance of the common school is not yet really challenged. Yet there is abroad a certain feeling of suspicion that all is not well, as witness the violent attack on the private schools exemplified in the Oregon School Law of 1922. The chances are that this law will be decided by the law courts to be unconstitutional, and therefore void. But none the less the incident gives evidence alike of the public danger and the general awareness of that danger.

The line of advancement that promises most to the keen school-people of the States may be said to be the cutting down of the time to be spent in elementary education. It is being realized on the other side of the Atlantic that in the total educational period they contrive to use up more time than we do on this side : and the intelligent American wants to know why. An ordinary boy entering school at six in America is expected in

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normal circumstances to finish with the elementary school at fourteen, with the high school at eighteen, with his first university degree at twenty-one, and with his professional training at twenty-five or twenty-six. In point of fact, the normal American student does not seem to be able to advance so rapidly as this, in proof of which it has been pointed out that the average age of entrance at Harvard has just risen to 19.4 years. In contrast to this it is stated that the normal European child who sets out to complete a higher and professional course will finish his elementary work at about twelve, his secondary about eighteen, and the higher and professional at twenty-two or twenty-four, according to the profession he is to follow and the particular country in which he carries on his educational course. To put the matter in the words of an American witness—Professor W. A. Smith, of the Southern Branch of the University of California—“In any event, he [the average pupil in Europe] completes his educational programme—a programme supposedly the equal of that supplied by American institutions—on the average about two years earlier than the American student who follows a standard programme.”

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Naturally the American does not see his way to put up with this slower rate. It is against all the traditions of his race that he should fall behind anyone, much less the effete people to his east. Accordingly there is a vigorous demand for a re-organization of the whole educational system, particularly in the matter of the correlation between elementary and secondary work. For long the twelve years of school education, from six till eighteen, was divided into eight years of elementary work and four years of secondary, the usual formula being 8-4. In many parts of the country a couple of grammar-school years were introduced between the elementary and the definitely secondary, giving the formula 6-2-4. Trouble came from those interpolated two years. Doubt arose as to whether they belonged properly to the primary or to the secondary region. The grammar school was admitted not to have a sufficiently defined place in the system. A remedy was sought in the introduction of a deliberately co-ordinated three-year period between the elementary school and the high school proper. This involved the cutting down of the time allowed for the high school course, so that the educational formula ran 6-3-3.

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This is how the matter stands at present. The new type of school is known as the junior high school, and is winning very general acceptance. The first six years are found to be quite enough for the mastery of what are really elementary subjects. Genuine secondary work begins in the junior high, but it is so organized as to fulfil two purposes: (a) To give a secondary course, complete as far as it goes, and thus suitable for pupils who must give up school altogether on completing the ninth grade, and (b) to supply a secondary course that shall form a suitable foundation on which the final three years' course at the senior high school may be satisfactorily built.

Hitherto the university has been the next stage, but here again the need for a more satisfactory articulation has been felt. There has always existed the college as a sort of intermediary between the high school and the university, but of late there has appeared a tendency to legitimize the standing of the college as the place where a first degree may be obtained. Within the university itself the work for the first degree has been largely left in the hands of what was known as the College of Letters and Science. Now the tendency is to relegate this work to a separate

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institution known as the Junior College, which thus has the same relation to the university that the junior high has to the high school proper.

So keen is this desire for an accurate articulation of all the parts of the school system that already there are signs of a fresh distribution of time between the elementary and secondary periods. So general is the belief that in the past we have spent too much time on the merely elementary parts that a further reduction in the elementary time is being suggested. It is not improbable that within the next year or two the formula will have developed into 4-4-4, thus reversing the proportions between the amounts set apart for the elementary and secondary branches.

It will, of course, be realized that in this account of current theory and practice we are describing things in a rather general way. Since each State is an independent educational unit there is abundant opportunity for variety in different parts of the country. It is, indeed, surprising how uniform teaching methods are in the different States. For this there are various causes: the gradual spread of education from a common source in the East, the wide circulation of certain text-books, the mutual interaction among

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universities and training-colleges, the assimilating influence of summer schools and teachers' institutes. On the other hand, there are a great many points in which the different States differ from one another in the matter of administration. But even on the administrative side great advantages are coming from intelligent comparison of the mistakes and successes of the different forms found in the different States.

In one particular there has been a notable change that is not without its lesson for us in England. In the United States, as with us, it used to be a complaint of the first magnitude that the universities dominated the schools. The entrance requirements to institutions of higher learning determined to a large extent the curriculum of the schools long after the period at which the majority of the pupils had no intention of seeking admission to any university. Some of the American universities still exercise a considerable power over the schools. But in a certain important group of universities the position between school and university has been practically reversed. These are the State universities, and the change has been brought about in this way :

From the nature of the case the State university

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is under the same control as all the other educational agencies. The State Board of Educational Control has equally at heart the elementary schools, the secondary schools, the technical schools, and the universities. In the old days the university was an independent body standing apart from the schools, and could impose its will upon them. Now the schools can appeal to the same authority as the universities themselves, wherever the latter are part of the State system. Formerly, when the universities presented a curriculum the schools had to prepare their pupils to meet that curriculum. To-day exactly the opposite takes place. Parents and employers make demands that certain subjects be taught in schools. The State educational authorities think these demands reasonable, and classes in these subjects are established in the schools. Certain of the pupils wish to carry these subjects to a higher stage; but no such subjects find a place on the university syllabuses. In the old days that would have closed the incident: there would have been nothing more to be done. Parents and employers would have had to grin and bear it. Not so to-day. The same authorities that introduced the subjects in question

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into the schools have the power to introduce them at a more advanced stage into the university.

Many university people look with considerable uneasiness at the resulting crowding of the curriculum with subjects that by no stretch of the meaning of the term can be called academic. But with the gradual segregation of the cultural subjects into the junior college, it is probable that the universities will become more and more technical and specialist institutions, where vocational and other utilitarian subjects will be less out of place than they are thought to be at present.

Nothing can better illustrate the rapid advancement of American education than the increase in the number of high schools. In H. R. Bonner's *Statistics of High Schools* we read: "Some concrete conception of this enormous increase may be gained when it is noted that one high school has been established each day in each calendar year since 1890—a high school a day for twenty-eight years." It is well known that there is a much higher percentage of the population attending secondary schools in America than in any other nation in the world. But, in spite of all this, America has a very high percentage of illiteracy. The reason for this is not far to seek. Immigra-

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tion has been so extensive that the problem of Americanization has proved a very difficult one, particularly of late years, when the stream has come so largely from South-eastern Europe. The trouble is intensified when the foreign elements insist upon segregating in certain localities. Still, the process of Americanization goes merrily on, and one of the most characteristic educational movements is a campaign against illiteracy. Some of the more optimistic reformers look forward to eliminating illiteracy by 1927. But even the estimate of the more sober—1935—will be hard to realize when we consider the figures submitted by the Illiteracy Commission of the National Education Association. The official figures, based on individual confession, represent close on five million illiterates in the States, but, to quote Cora Wilson Stewart in the *New York Times*, September 9, 1923: "If a careful census were taken, in which every individual should be put to the test of reading simple paragraphs in the newspapers, and writing simple sentences, the number of illiterates in this country, according to the Commission, would approximate ten millions, and the number of near illiterates would be equally as large. Twenty million illiterates

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and near illiterates in the United States !” Germany has 0.2 per cent. of illiterates, England 1.8 per cent., France 4 per cent. ; the United States has the bad pre-eminence of 6 per cent. Between 1910 and 1920 there was an annual average decrease of 58,426 in the number of the illiterates. But at this rate it would take eighty-four years to wipe out illiteracy, and America is not at all inclined to wait so long.

Two other weak points in the American school system are laxity in enforcing the compulsory education laws and the number of one-teacher schools. Every State in the Union has a compulsory education law, more than three-quarters of them insisting upon attendance up to the age of sixteen, three of them extending the compulsory limit to seventeen. Yet in 1919 it was discovered by the census that a million and a half of children attended no school. This was based on the returns made by parents themselves, and it cannot be doubted that it is very far short of the actual absenteeism.

The one-room and one-teacher school is costly and inefficient. Yet in a book published four or five years ago Miss Evelyn Dewey told us that there were then in the States something like

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200,000 such schools. This number is being rapidly reduced, since improved transportation has rendered it possible to extend the range of the consolidated or graded school.

The most hopeful feature about the American system of education is the sensitiveness of public opinion to the needs of the children. No better proof of this could be asked for than the enthusiasm thrown into the 'Education Week' that, after the American fashion, is observed once a year. From November 18 to November 23 in 1923, all Americans kept asking each other what were the weak points in their educational system, and how they were to be strengthened. So far from the old-fashioned boastfulness that tradition used to demand, the citizens kept their attention closely fixed on the points needing reform. English teachers will be glad to learn that professional claims are generally treated very sympathetically in this propaganda week, one of the days being specifically set apart as 'School and Teacher Day.' The salary question is fairly faced by the public, and one of the italicized conscience-questions put to each citizen runs: "Are the salaries paid in my State such as will place teachers capable of a skilled service in its classrooms?"

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There is at present a general feeling toward greater centralization in educational organization in the United States. The Americans see the good points of a central authority in Europe, and perhaps do not sufficiently realize its dangers. We, with our fear of Government interference and our longing for greater decentralization, feel inclined to warn them of possible dangers. But as a matter of fact there is not the slightest fear of the Americans going far wrong in the direction of inviting greater central *control*. They are learning its snares in other directions, and may be trusted to get the maximum benefit from central advice and aid without endangering the liberties of the separate States.

JOHN ADAMS

## V

### REFORMS IN HOLLAND

IT was with some gratification that I saw my country mentioned among those where the editors of *The Journal of Education* expect to find "Educational Advancement," but I must confess that it is very difficult to give foreigners an idea of our educational system. Education is one of the most important factors in the life of a nation and is closely connected with its social and philosophical basis. Thus it is that a study of a nation's educational system requires a rather intimate knowledge of that nation's characteristics.

One of the most powerful factors influencing our national life from the sixteenth century is religion. No wonder that our schools were, and are still at the present, the mirror, so to say, of the deplorable splitting up of our people in its many denominations. Before the Act of Education of 1920 only the *public* schools (taken in the American sense of the word as meaning State-supported 'neutral' schools open to children of all denominations)

## EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD

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were totally paid for by the State. The *non-public* schools, mostly sectarian, received a grant which only defrayed part of the expenses. The consequence was that many sectarian schools were in a bad condition—the buildings, the salaries of the staffs, and the equipment of the schools were frequently highly insufficient. The centre of our national politics was for a long time the battle between the supporters of the public school idea (the so-called left parties) and those advocating the right of any religion, party, or sect to establish State-supported schools after their own ideas. In 1920 this fight of long standing was ended by a compromise in which the sectarian schools acquired the same rights on public money as the public schools. This principle of equality led, and still leads, to the erection of a great number of non-public schools, and, owing to the tendency of the Dutch to split up in numerous denominations and sects, this number is exceedingly great.

In that same year, 1920, another principle was introduced into Dutch education—at least for the public schools—viz., the establishment of the ‘unity school’ (*eenheidsschool*). The new democratic ideas, which fascinated so many minds in

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the after-War times, influenced the schools too, and one of the consequences of this new measure was the abolishment of the teaching of French in elementary schools. The New Education Act forbids the teaching of a foreign language before the seventh standard. There are many who doubt the wisdom of this radical change, since the smallness of our country and its position among great nations make it a *sine qua non* for every Dutchman of any culture to read, speak, and write at least three foreign languages: French, German, and English. This explains why all our secondary schools teach these languages, while the gymnasia (the classical secondary schools) include Latin and Greek in addition. It is an important pedagogical problem to ascertain at what age a child should start foreign language study and which part of the study ought to be tackled in early childhood. This problem is at present under wide investigation by our scholars and teachers.

A third powerful influence—alas, not an advancement!—threatens to cut deeply into some vital parts of our education: *economy*. The cry is raised that our national budget is endangered by the huge expense of our schools. Owing to

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the fact that the equality between public and sectarian schools, which is the main factor in the rise of the cost of education, cannot be changed, the Dutch Government propose to deal rather drastically with the salaries of the teachers and the numbers of pupils per teacher—a proposal which tends to create great pessimism in educational circles.

But the fine English proverb, "Every cloud has its silver lining," holds good for the educational world too. There are many signs that the scientific study of education is taking more hold of our teachers than formerly: the number of pedagogic periodicals is increasing, the requirements for the teacher's certificate have been brought to a higher level, and, above all, things educational are more and more attracting the attention of the nation at large, and educational movements abroad are closely followed.

There was a time when Holland was strongly influenced by Germany: German philosophy was for a long time the leading star of our pedagogics. But of late years much of this influence is diminished. The beautiful building of Germany's philosophy was crushed by the world's catastrophe. We realize more and more that the accumulation



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of facts is fatal to the building of the character : an ounce of wisdom or character is more than a pound of learnedness. And so it is that we now turn our eyes in a westward direction and study minutely English and American education. A recent example of this is given in the attention shown to the Dalton Plan movement which is so rapidly spreading in England. A Dutch delegation, consisting of Professor Dr Ph. Kohnstamm (one of our foremost men of science), Mr L. C. T. Bigot, principal of a training-college, and the writer, were sent to England to investigate the practical working of the Dalton Plan. What we saw and heard convinced us that the future development of our education must be sought in the loosening of the class-teaching system. I may be permitted to say that we were struck by the great hospitality and ready assistance of all to whom we turned for information : teachers, inspectors, professors, and private persons. On our return we published a report which was widely discussed. At the moment (early 1925) the Dalton Plan is being introduced in a number of schools and is *the* topic in educational circles in Holland.

Another proof of the growing Anglo-Saxon

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influence is the intense study of the test-problem and the increasing attention given to sport as an educational factor.

The Dutch educational system is built on the following lines :

I. *The Kindergarten*, for pupils up to six years of age, generally run on Froebel—sometimes on Montessori—principles. These are in the main municipal institutions, especially in the large towns. Some of them are private undertakings with a relatively high fee. Attendance at kindergarten is not compulsory.

II. *The Elementary School*. Compulsory for pupils from six to thirteen years of age. As explained before, all elementary schools (except a few for the children of the wealthy classes who can afford high school fees) are State-supported. About half of these are non-sectarian public schools, open to all children of whatever social status or denomination, the other half being sectarian in character : Roman Catholic, Calvinist of divers shades, and a few Jewish. The sectarian schools are rapidly increasing in number, while the public schools are losing ground.

III. From the elementary school a pupil can follow divers ways :

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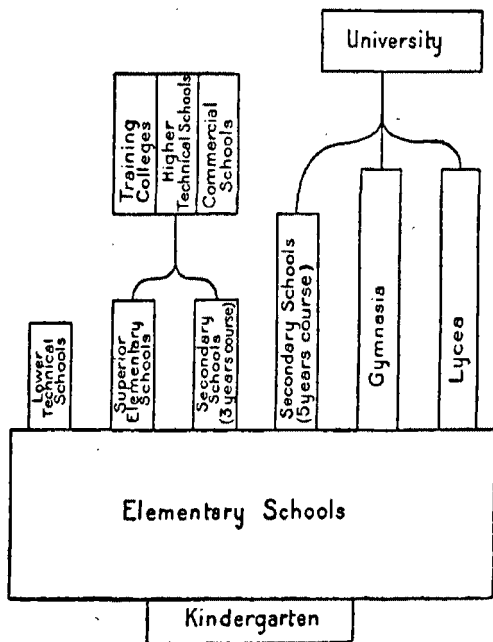
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- (a) To the *lower technical school* (two years' course).
- (b) To the *superior elementary school* (three or four years' course), which includes in its curriculum German, French, English, mathematics, besides the ordinary branches of the elementary school. From this school a pupil may enter a *secondary technical school*, a *commercial school*, or a *training-college*.
- (c) To the *secondary schools* :
1. With a three years' course.
  2. With a five years' course.
  3. The *gymnasia*, with a six years' course.
  4. The *lycea*, with a five or six years' course.

All these schools include in their curricula the three modern languages French, German, and English, besides Dutch, mathematics, history, geography, science, and physical training. In the gymnasium the classics are also taught. The lyceum is a compromise between the secondary school and the gymnasium. As it is very difficult to predict with certainty whether a twelve or thirteen-year-old child will develop in a mathe-

## EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD

mathematical or a literary direction the lyceum pupils are not differentiated until the third standard. At the end of the second standard a decision is



taken as to whether the pupil is to follow the secondary-school department or the gymnasium department of the lyceum. It is clear that this organization puts off the important decision

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about the further course of study to be undertaken till a time when the ' prognose ' may be given with more certainty. The popularity of the lycea is very great, and is due largely to the success of the highly skilled teachers employed.

All these types of schools are duplicated according to denominations. Even our universities show this deplorable sectarian division. Thus we have *four State universities, a Calvinist, and a Roman Catholic university*. In this way it is possible that a Roman Catholic child, for instance, enters a Roman Catholic kindergarten, is taught at a Roman Catholic elementary and secondary school, and completes his studies at the Roman Catholic university. Whether this is beneficial to our national life is not my right or task to judge here, but it is not conducive to efficiency.

In the accompanying diagram, p. 76, the reader is given a bird's-eye view of the Dutch educational system.

P. A. DIELS

## VI

### RECENT ADVANCES IN CANADA

**T**HERE is a twofold difficulty in the path of one who would write concisely the story of educational advance in Canada in the past few years. In the first place, Canada is a country of such vast dimensions that very few Canadians themselves have been able to visualize it as a whole. Canada is almost as large as Europe, and either the province of Ontario or the province of Quebec is about as large as France and Germany combined. It is a seven-day trip by transcontinental train over the Canadian National Railway or the Canadian Pacific Railway from Halifax to Vancouver. In the second place, Canada is a federation of nine provinces, and by our constitution, the British North America Act, each province has absolute and sole jurisdiction in educational matters. Hence Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia, have their own individual educational systems. We are like Australia with

## *RECENT ADVANCES IN CANADA*

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her six State systems and the United States with her forty-eight State systems.

There is one great feature in common in all our Canadian provinces, and that is an enthusiasm for education. Regardless of difference in race, religion, or area, we share the same desire for the best education for our people. In 1922 the enrolment of school attendance for Canada was 2,124,254 out of a total population of 8,788,483; that is to say, nearly one-quarter of our population was in attendance in our elementary, secondary, and special schools and universities. In the same year our total expenditure on elementary and secondary education was \$107,685,069, of which approximately \$14,000,000 came from the provincial treasuries and \$94,000,000 from municipal sources. The average cost per pupil in daily attendance varied from \$31.49 in one province to \$114.23 in another. In every province, however, there has been a great increase in educational expenditures in the last ten years. Speaking generally, elementary and secondary schools are free, with free text-books in some large cities, and university fees are low.

In every one of the nine provinces education has received the careful attention of the authorities

## *EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD*

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from the beginning. In Quebec the authorities of the Church and the State established schools of different types in the early seventeenth century, and have continued and expanded these schools to meet the growing needs of the community. The English provinces of the eastern half of Canada were founded upon the United Empire Loyalist immigration from the United States, following the loss of the American colonies. The Loyalists brought with them to Canada the same passion for education which had characterized the American colonies, and from the very foundation of these provinces schools have been of prime consideration. The Western provinces, based largely upon immigration from the Eastern provinces, have had the same characteristics, and have also had the advantage of several generations of educational development in Eastern Canada. They have, therefore, made remarkable strides in the few decades of their history and have spent money very freely in order to secure the very best in education.

There are so many phases of educational advance in Canada in recent years that I must restrict myself to almost a mere catalogue, in order to cover the ground within the limits of this article.



## *RECENT ADVANCES IN CANADA*

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The administrative side will perhaps serve best for the first phase to be considered. At the outset it may be pointed out that on the administrative side education in Canada belongs to both the provincial authority and the municipal authority. In Canada, while the seat of educational authority is in the provincial legislature, and while the province controls and supervises and to a considerable extent finances education, yet the municipal authority plays a very large part. In Ontario, for example, the municipal area may be the village, the township, the county, or the city; in each case the Board of School Trustees (by whatever local name it may be called) is responsible for the administration of the schools within that area. This Board acquires property, builds schools, engages and dismisses the teachers, fixes their salaries, and through the municipal council raises by taxation the funds necessary for the schools of the area. The provincial authority authorizes the curriculum, trains and authorizes the teachers, determines, more or less, the type of school buildings, is responsible for supervision through the inspectors, and supplements the funds raised in the local area. This divided control and divided financial responsibility has worked out satisfactorily.

## *EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD*

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There is one other phase of this administrative side of our schools which is quite interesting in a country operating under federal government, whose constitution assigns education absolutely to provincial authority. This phase is the provision for large grants to the provinces from the federal treasury through the unanimous consent of the nine provincial authorities. On two occasions it has been possible to get this consent, and for both technical education and agricultural education a sum of \$10,000,000 each was set aside by the Dominion Government to be appropriated to the nine provinces over a period of years on a *pro rata* basis. This money has been used exclusively in the provinces for the improvement and the extension of technical and agricultural education, and has been of immense value in both directions.

Coming back to the administrative phase of the matter, it may be pointed out that the recent work of the provinces has taken on such aspects as these: improvements in legislation, increased grants, improvement in inspection, encouragement to various forms of educational activity, revision of curricula, adaptation of schools to special needs, improvements in teacher-training and develop-

## RECENT ADVANCES IN CANADA

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ment of summer schools, elevation of qualifications of teachers,<sup>1</sup> abolition of fees, extension of vocational schools, attention to Canadianization of foreign-born. Just a few examples must suffice. The province of Quebec, for example, has paid special attention to the adaptation of her rural schools to the needs of her population, with gratifying results. Ontario has developed the summer school perhaps more completely than any other province or state in Canada or the United States, in the variety of courses offered and the financial assistance to the thousands of teachers in attendance at these schools. Alberta and the other Western provinces have also developed the summer school.

In another respect Ontario surpasses possibly any other state or province or country, and that is in the extension of the privileges of secondary education. For a good many years every city and town, and quite a number of the villages, had high schools or collegiate institutes. During the last

### <sup>1</sup> Teachers' certificates in Ontario :

Year	Total	I	II	III	Lower Grade
1908	10,085	767	3979	3565	1774
1912	10,757	674	6419	1804	1860
1916	12,094	1084	8559	1346	1105
1920	13,318	1303	9544	1160	1311
1922	14,260	1273	10825	1190	972

## *EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD*

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ten years there have been established in the small villages and rural centres what are called continuation schools, which, however, is another name for small secondary schools. There are now almost as many of these as there are of the larger high schools or collegiate institutes. These offer the same courses of study, leading to teachers' certificates and university matriculation, as are offered by the larger secondary schools, and are under the same regulations as to curriculum, teachers' certificates, and inspection. During the two years of the operation of the Adolescent Act the enrolment in secondary schools has increased 42 per cent., and the attendance in the higher forms of the elementary schools has also been greatly increased. The Western provinces have distinguished themselves for the rapid extension of their schools,<sup>1</sup> and especially for their work in the Canadianization of foreign-born in rural districts. Their school fairs are also noteworthy, while Saskatchewan has specialized in school nursing and school health work.

<sup>1</sup> Statistics for Saskatchewan :

	Schools	Teachers	Pupils
1905	942	—	25,191
1912	2924	3367	81,496
1922	4565	7023	183,941

## RECENT ADVANCES IN CANADA

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The municipal phase of education and administration is concerned with such matters as the provision of buildings and equipment, the development of health education, including medical and dental inspection, the establishment of special schools for defectives, experiments in buildings, such as the Platoon or Rotary Schools, increases in salaries, furnishing of free text-books and supplies. All through Canada our municipal Boards of Education, rural and urban, have been displaying a great deal of interest in educational development in the past decade. Wonderfully fine buildings for both elementary and secondary education have been erected, costing very large sums of money, and wonderful in their equipment. The increases in salaries have in many cases been very generous; for example, in 1920 the city of Toronto made a 25 per cent. increase in the salary schedules of all grades of their teachers from the kindergartener to the high school principals, this increase applying to both the minima and maxima, thus lifting the whole schedule up to a distinctly high level. Somewhat similar action took place throughout the whole of Canada within the next year or so.

One very interesting phase in secondary educa-

## *EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD*

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tion has been the tendency to develop what is known as the composite high school; that is, the high school which is in itself a compound of the academic high school, the technical high school, and the commercial high school. This is a favourite type in the United States at present, and is being developed in Canada in the smaller cities. In the larger cities, such as Toronto, the tendency is to keep these three types of high school as separate institutions.

The second phase of the subject might be styled the professional side. It is quite a striking phenomenon throughout the world, this growth of professional organization among the teachers. Educational journals from all over the world carry the same story, and doubtless the same forces have been at work in all countries, viz., economic and social. Teachers have everywhere felt that they were getting neither the remuneration nor the social recognition to which they were entitled, and they have decided that the method by which these objections can be reached is through professional organization. It is quite true that in Canada we have had educational organizations for a long time; for instance, the Provincial Association of the Protestant Teachers of Quebec

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was organized in 1864, while the Ontario Educational Association, a most comprehensive organization, held its sixty-third annual meeting at Easter 1924, and there have been similar organizations in the Maritime Provinces for many years. The recent development, however, has been of a more strictly professional type. The British Columbia Teachers' Federation, the Alberta Teachers' Alliance, the Saskatchewan Teachers' Alliance, the Manitoba Teachers' Federation, the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation, the Public School Men Teachers' Federation of Ontario, the Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario, the New Brunswick Teachers' Association, the Prince Edward Island Teachers' Union, and the Nova Scotia Teachers' Union are all organizations of comparatively recent origin, and are composed almost exclusively of teachers. They exist quite frankly, in the first place, for the financial betterment and the improvement of the working conditions of the teachers, and, secondly, for such development of the status of the teacher in the public estimation as will place him in the same rank with the other learned professions. They hold, however, that in thus improving the status of the teacher they

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are making a contribution to the public welfare, inasmuch as the better the teacher the better the school, and the better the State.

Two further developments of this spirit of organization are seen in the organizations of a local character, such as the Toronto Teachers' Council, which gathers up into a co-operative working unit the representatives of some twenty sectional teachers' organizations in the city, and in the organization of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, which is a strictly delegated body, limited to three representatives from each province. The Canadian Teachers' Federation held its fourth annual meeting in August 1924 at Victoria, B.C. It has already demonstrated its service to the teachers of Canada in several striking ways, and has been able to exhibit a solidarity among Canadian teachers that is remarkable when one considers the great variations in the different provinces and the vast distances involved.

A rather interesting feature of the Canadian Teachers' Federation Conference at Victoria in 1924 was the running of a special train from Montreal and Toronto across the continent to accommodate the delegates and their friends,

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making an eight-day going trip in all, including four days in the mountains.

This development of the professional side has in view higher standards of teachers' qualifications, the encouragement of summer schools, and of extramural study at our universities, and the advance of all phases of university extension. It seeks, also, the closest co-operation with the provincial and municipal educational authorities, and in most cases that has been the effect. In British Columbia, for instance, the Teachers' Alliance and the Provincial Trustees' Association have worked hand in hand to secure modifications of the school law that were in the interests of both. In Ontario the Department of Education has sought the counsel and assistance of the teachers very freely in the recent general revision of curricula. There can be no question but that improvement in the financial status of the teacher has led to an improvement in many other ways, and this provincial organization, along with the national organization, is resulting in a development of national consciousness among the teachers, which is of the highest value to the welfare of the Canadian nation.

The third phase is the growth of our universities

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and colleges. In Canada we have twenty-three universities and sixty-five colleges of one type or another. In British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba there is only one university for the province, and that the State University. The five other provinces, however, have nineteen universities, most of them on private foundations. Of the sixty-five colleges eighteen are theological, six agricultural, two technical, two law, and the others of various types. The number of students at these universities and colleges in 1922 was 49,900. Of these, 3348 graduated in the various faculties, and 644 received post-graduate degrees. The income of the universities and colleges was \$12,075,047, of which \$5,148,626 came from Government and municipal sources and \$2,577,239 in fees. Approximately \$9,000,000 out of the \$12,000,000 was the amount of income of the twenty-three universities.

Two features are specially notable in connexion with the universities: the raising of the entrance requirements and the development of graduate research work. In Ontario matriculation into the seven universities is a common standard absolutely under the control of the University Matriculation Board representing all the universities. During

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the last few years the raising of the standards for matriculation into the arts, medical, and applied science faculties has been equivalent to practically another year's work at the secondary schools. In graduate research work one has only to mention the name of Dr F. C. Banting and his discovery of insulin to recognize the high type of work that is being done in the University of Toronto graduate departments. The conferring of the highly prized honour of Fellow of the Royal Society upon members of the staffs of Toronto and McGill Universities is another indication of the same high standing of our leading Canadian universities.

Public interest in education is another phase of great importance. There has been a great development of Home and School Clubs, known in other countries as Parent-Teachers' Associations, whose purpose is to stimulate the interest of parents in the work of the schools. The National Council of Education has for some years been active in creating a general interest in educational betterment. Through its organization it has held two great national conferences on education in Winnipeg and in Toronto. Trustees' Associations, district, provincial, and national, have been

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remarkably active in the last few years. The province of Ontario made a grant of \$10,000 toward the financing of the Trustees' and Rate-payers' Association of Toronto, and thousands of trustees have attended the annual meetings of the Ontario Educational Association in the last few years. The Frontier College is an organization designed for the education of the men in the lumber camps and on great construction enterprises, such as railways and canals. It is dependent partly upon Government grants and partly on subscriptions, and has in the last ten or fifteen years sent hundreds of university men into these lumber and construction camps, where they serve in the dual capacity of employees and teachers.

The Canadian Press has been realizing the news value of education, and has given space very liberally to reports of educational advances, and to discussion of educational values and problems. Two of our leading Canadian dailies, the *Toronto Globe* and the *Toronto Mail and Empire*, carry in their Saturday issues a section devoted to educational news.

The public libraries of Canada are a very considerable factor in our educational systems. In

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Ontario the public libraries, operating through the Public Libraries Act, are under the direction of the Minister of Education, represented by an Inspector of Public Libraries. The Annual Report for 1923 shows 193 free public libraries and 267 subscription public libraries, 460 in all, giving Ontario the distinction "of having, in proportion to its population, the largest number of public libraries in any country, state, or province in the world." Associations such as the Ontario Library Association, the Saskatchewan Library Association, the Manitoba Library Association, the Alberta Library Association, and the British Columbia Library Association are constantly improving the work of these libraries.

In religious education Canada takes a very profound interest. The Roman Catholic Church has, of course, for centuries insisted upon the place of religion in its schools; consequently all the Roman Catholic schools throughout Canada pay very definite attention to religious education. In the State schools, however, religious education does not play so definite a part, although each province makes certain provision for religious exercises in the schools. Religious education among the Protestant bodies is carried on chiefly

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through the Sunday schools, of which there are many thousands in Canada. The Protestant denominations have developed Boards of Religious Education for their own schools, but within the last few years a national co-operative movement has been consummated. The Religious Educational Council of Canada is a body made up of official representatives of the Boards of Religious Education from the great Protestant denominations and from the Dominion Councils of the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association. This board operates through such national committees as the National Boys' Work Board, the National Girls' Work Board, and others. In the provinces there are Religious Education Councils organized in the same way. The result of it all is a nationwide co-operative movement for religious education, and in this national movement Canada is trying out for the first time in the history of religious education an experiment, continent-wide, of the highest possibilities. Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, Canadian Standard Efficiency Tests (Boys), and Canadian Girls in Training are similar movements, and very active.

The Imperial aspect of education has received

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a great deal of attention in Canada in the last few years. By a system of exchange of teachers we have had teachers from the British Isles, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, and we have sent our teachers in return to the Mother Country and to Australia and New Zealand. Possibly 200 Canadian teachers have in this way had a year's experience in another part of the Empire, most of them, naturally, in the Motherland. We have had, on our part, over 100 teachers from all parts of the Empire. This work has been carried on through the League of the Empire and the Overseas Education League. In 1921 Toronto entertained the Imperial Conference of Teachers' Associations under the auspices of the League of the Empire, through the invitation of the Government of the province of Ontario. By reason of the generous assistance of the provincial Government and the University of Toronto, the arrangements for the Conference were planned on such a scale and carried out in such a way as to make the Conference a very delightful affair. Teachers' excursions, under the auspices of educational leaders such as Dr James L. Hughes, for many years Chief Inspector of Toronto, or of organizations such as the Overseas Education League,

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under the direction of Major F. C. Ney, M.C., have enabled many hundreds of teachers to visit the British Isles and Europe under very favourable circumstances.

It is evident to anyone who makes a survey of the activities of our Canadian provinces that education is regarded as fundamental in our life. There is a tendency for co-operation and standardization among the different provinces on the part of both administrative authorities and the teachers. There is a growing consciousness of the profoundly important part that the teacher plays in the making of the nation. As the Canadian teacher looks out over his country and tries to think of its possibilities, material and spiritual, for both its own people and for the world, he realizes more and more the responsibility placed upon him to send out of his classroom boys and girls of sound knowledge and high ideals, personal and national. The Canadian schoolmaster and the Canadian schoolmistress are trying to do their part for Canada, the Empire, and the world.



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E. A. HARDY

## VII

### SCANDINAVIA

**T**HE three northern countries, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, are usually regarded by the rest of the world as a unit with the name Scandinavia. To a certain extent this is correct. Natural conditions, however, have in the course of time fashioned civilization somewhat differently in these three countries. An inaccessible mountain range has separated the Swedes from the Norwegians, and, to some extent, the waters between the Baltic and the North Sea have divided the Swedes from the Danes. Each in consequence has turned a somewhat different face to the outer world and has in part been differently influenced by its culture.

The state of education in the three countries naturally reflects these conditions. The short review of it which is here given must therefore follow three lines, in so far as conditions in Norway and Denmark are essentially different from those obtaining in Sweden.

## SCANDINAVIA

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### SWEDEN

The modern State elementary school in Sweden was established by the Education Act of 1842. On that same foundation it was added to right down to 1921, when the present Public Elementary Education Act came into force. The connexion between the elementary school and the so-called 'learned school'—secondary and high schools—has been very slight. To a great extent the elementary school has developed parallel to the State secondary schools. The whole of the existing school system thus appears as in Diagram I. Below the four-year gymnasium course there run, on the whole, two courses of education side by side, namely, the modern school (*realskola*), which is based on the first three classes in the elementary school, and the communal intermediate school, which starts from the sixth-year class of the elementary school. The causes of this state of affairs, which at the best is unsatisfactory, are many and deep-seated. The more important of them will be considered later on in connexion with some remarks on the struggle round the unified school.

The last decade has been one of the most

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important in the developmental history of the elementary school. The central point in the de-

### THEORETICAL SCALE OF AGES.

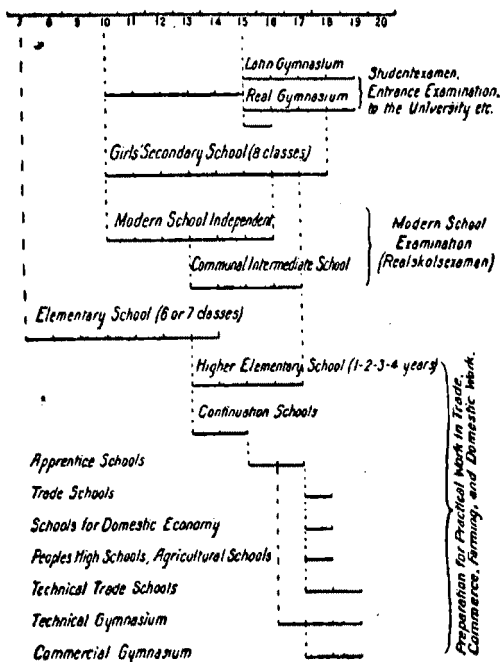


DIAGRAM I

velopment is formed by the Normal Syllabus of 1918. In and through this the pedagogic theories of the new era have had their effect on the Swedish

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elementary school. From being preponderatingly intellectual, with passive pupils, it has passed into the stage of the manual work school, with its pupils active in the highest possible degree. To learn by doing is the pre-eminent pedagogic rule. This rule is put into practice chiefly in connexion with teaching about the home locality (*Heimatskunde*), which means that the instruction in virtually all subjects during the first three years draws its material from and concentrates itself around the 'home region,' or the environment in which the children are growing up. There is religious teaching, not, however, based as formerly on Luther's Catechism, but on the Bible itself. The time allotted to this is diminished; on the other hand, the time for physical training is notably increased. Working in wood and metal, women's needlework, and housewifery have a more prominent place in the curriculum.

The various subjects are correlated so far as possible with one another. Thus geography is joined up with biology, botany, drawing, and exercise in writing the mother tongue. In the teaching of history particular weight is attached to accounts of the heroes of peaceful development, both at home and abroad. As regards instruction

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in the mother tongue, quite lately a beginning has been made with practice in speaking, *e.g.*, dramatic representations such as are familiar in England and America. Several of the elementary schools in the larger cities have instituted a seventh class, in which, together with the vernacular, English is studied ; and proposals are at present on foot to carry this latter back to a still earlier stage.

For many years there have been established continuation schools for pupils who have passed out of the elementary school by examination ; but attendance at them has been voluntary. In 1918 Parliament decided to make attendance obligatory. The whole course comprises at least 360 hours, and at most 540 hours, and can be spread over two or three years. The intention of these continuation schools is, without hindering the pupils from earning their living, to give them that more practical training which they may need for their future vocation. The teaching is therefore concentrated round agriculture, industry, and commerce, in each case according to the conditions of life in the places where the pupils have their homes and occupations. These schools are also intended to lay a foundation for apprentice schools,

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provided for those who wish to gain skill in some trade. Where it is desired, however, the teaching in the continuation schools can be given a more theoretical turn.

Especially in smaller communities and in seats of industry there are established higher elementary schools. The course in these varies from one to four years. Besides the ordinary school subjects, there are studied there English and German, as well as, in the four-year courses, some French. The four-year higher elementary schools are, however, being changed as a rule into communal intermediate schools. The course in these terminates with the Modern School Examination, which, among other things, entitles the successful to a position in the post, telegraph, and railway offices. It is thus the same examination as is taken after passing through the sixth class of the State secondary schools.

The Modern School Examination or a corresponding degree of knowledge is also required for entry into the State training-colleges.

These last educational establishments were materially altered by a law of the year 1914. The course, indeed, remains a four-year one, but the qualifications for entry have been raised, the

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subjects of study widened, and the teaching methods more adapted to the increased age and capacity of the pupils. Thus a considerable time is allotted to the pupils for independent study and research. English and German, which formerly were only the occasional subjects of private and voluntary study, are now included in the compulsory syllabus. At present the two languages are, so to speak, struggling with one another, but signs are not wanting that the former will prevail. In 1918 the regular class-teachers of the training-colleges were given the same title (lector or professor) as the teachers in the higher classes of the secondary schools, as well as corresponding salaries. Consequently the training-colleges can now attract the chief teaching strength of the country.

A natural result of this is that an old question has again come to the front, namely, whether the teachers of the elementary schools should not have access to the university with the same privileges as the students who have passed out by examination from the gymnasia. Outsiders may well find it hard to understand why some bridge has not yet been thrown across from the State training-colleges to the university. In the main the question has been one of language. The



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linguistic equipment of the elementary school teacher, even when supplemented in certain directions, is held to be too slight. Now, however, a Royal Commission has elaborated a proposed settlement of the question which seems acceptable, at least to the academic authorities. Possibly these have begun to open their eyes to the fact that the elementary school teachers have of late in constantly increasing measure betaken themselves to foreign universities.

The State secondary schools owe their existing organization to a law passed in 1905. As will be seen from Diagram 1, they are divided into two groups: modern schools and higher schools, the latter embracing both modern school and gymnasium. The modern school consists of the five lower classes, as well as a sixth class, and it is after passing through the latter that the pupil takes the Modern School Examination already mentioned. Its aim is to provide the general education of a citizen, with a wider scope than can be furnished by the elementary school. It is an exception for the modern school to be co-educational, whereas the communal intermediate school is so as a rule.

The gymnasium starts from the fifth class of the modern school, comprises four classes, and is

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divided into two sides, of which the one is called the Latin gymnasium, and the other the modern gymnasium. As the name implies, Latin and Greek are the chief subjects of the former side, and with them are constantly read French, English, German, and the elements of philosophy. The modern side, on the other hand, attaches chief importance to mathematics, natural science, and modern languages. A school here and there admits the Russian language as well. The gymnasial course concludes with *studentexamen* (matriculation), which consists of written papers and *viva voce*, under the control of examiners appointed for the purpose, who are usually university professors. This examination qualifies for enrolment at the universities as well as many other higher educational institutions.

The higher girls' schools run parallel with the secondary schools up to the third class of the gymnasium. The subjects of instruction are, on the whole, the same, except that in some girls' schools there is teaching in needlework and domestic economy. Some girls' schools have widened their courses and gained the right to arrange a matriculation examination. Quite recently in a couple of girls' schools experiments have been made with

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the so-called practical year, during which the pupils are taught handicrafts of various kinds, such as weaving, needlecraft, and bookbinding. Most of the girls' schools of this type are private and confined to the towns. Of late years, however, a beginning has been made with placing secondary schools for boys, as well as girls, in the open country, so as to provide more room for an open-air life and for bodily exercises.

Especially during the last decade has the demand for unity in the school system gathered force. In 1914 Parliament decided on a revision of the school organization, and in 1918 a Royal Commission was appointed with instructions to work out the necessary proposals. In 1922 the Commission was ready with its report. Space naturally forbids a detailed account of its proposals, but their outlines at least deserve a place. According to the proposed scheme, the school organization would be arranged as in Diagram 2.

The six-year (six-class) elementary school would thus be the foundation of the whole system, and on it would follow a four-year modern school course, to be succeeded by a three-year gymnasial course, divided into three 'sides': a Latin-humanistic, a new or modern linguistic, and a

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natural science side. Alongside of this, lyceums would be established in the larger towns, and, in addition, experimental schools where new methods would be tried.

Some of the underlying principles of the scheme are: Equal opportunity for all; a faculty of

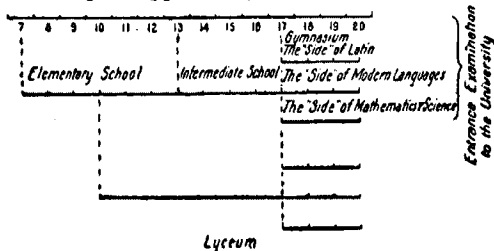


DIAGRAM 2

learning, and not the possession of wealth, should make itself felt in the school; the school organization must be such as to level out the opposition between social classes; private schools must not be supported by the State.

It is apparent that a truly democratic organization of the schools is here in question. The supporters of the old system of parallel schools have raised a vehement opposition to the plan of reorganization. In the main, however, it ought to be realized, since it corresponds to a demand for social justice.

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It would take us too far to give a detailed account of the reorganization of the higher teaching, its courses and methods of work. It can merely be mentioned in passing that education in scientific and special subjects is given in the main by four universities, of which two are controlled by the State and two are private. In addition there are colleges for the training of engineers, foresters, pharmacists, dentists, and the like.

Since 1893 a summer course has been arranged at the universities every year for teachers and others. And since 1917 a so-called people's university has been in process of formation. Its aim is to give a scientific education to people who are interested in such studies, but who have not passed the usual entrance examination to the university proper. There has been established a section for knowledge of the home region, one for physical training, and one for sociology. In 1920 about a million kroner, say £60,000, had been collected for this object.

### NORWAY AND DENMARK

An account of the state and progress of education in the two other countries of Scandinavia

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would naturally be no less important and interesting than that which has just been given concerning Sweden. If, none the less, the author seems compelled to be shorter and more summary, that is for no lack of goodwill. The reasons are the limitation of space and the partly similar conditions which make much of what has already been said equally applicable to Norway and Denmark.

Education in Norway was first established by law in 1889. That law made a distinction between town and country, so that the town schools had a longer learning period and consequently more extensive courses than the country schools. The Education Act was, it is true, revised in 1915 and in 1917, but this distinction between town and country remains unaltered.

As appears from Diagram 3, Norway has carried out the idea of the unified school. A seven years' elementary school course provides the foundation. On this is built a three or four years' intermediate school course, and on that follows a three years' gymnasial course, divided into sides, one for mathematics and natural science, and the other for languages and history.

The unified school system was finally established in 1921, and was in large part rendered possible

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through a decreased time for the study of languages. Thus in the gymnasium the Latin course is very short, and Greek is voluntary. In the intermediate school there are studied alternately English and German or English and French.

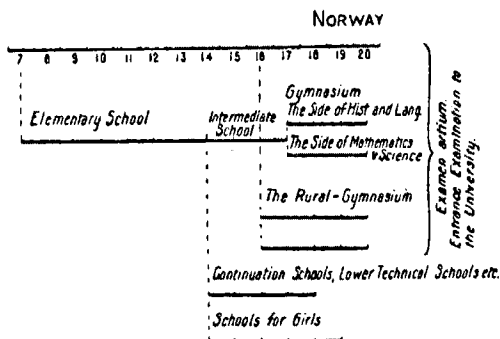


DIAGRAM 3

English and the vernacular are the principal languages.

The so-called country gymnasia form a special class of school. They have a four-year course and are placed right out in the country. The intention in this is to move the high school out to the country children, so that as far as possible they shall not have to journey into the cities and towns, and there be put to great expense for board and lodging. It was in 1914 that Parliament deter-

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mined to establish schools of this kind, and at present there must be at least three of them in activity.

In addition there are, of course, a number of higher and lower trade schools for various objects. These have enjoyed many advances and improvements during the last decade. Here attention may be specially directed to two of them—the lower schools of commerce and the pedagogic faculty of the university.

The lower commercial instruction was established in 1918, when, for the institution and maintenance of the necessary schools, Parliament determined to contribute half the cost, and, in some cases, a little more.

The pedagogic faculty was instituted in 1922, after some preliminary experiment, and was attached to Trondhjem. It is intended for teachers in the elementary schools who have not taken the Arts Examination, but who wish to pursue scientific studies. The institution obviously is of great importance for the scientific education of the teachers.

The regular education of the teachers in elementary schools takes place in training-colleges, where the course lasts for three years.



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The country has a State university in the metropolis.

In Denmark education is the concern of the commune to a far higher degree than in Sweden and Norway. The State confines itself to giving economic support, coupled with a certain amount of control. Naturally Parliament has, by an Education Act, laid down the main lines of development. The fundamental law was passed in 1814, and was so greatly in advance of its time that still after more than a century it has not been completely carried out. Certain alterations have, however, been made to it here and there. In the main the State has, up to the present, refrained from more direct and active intervention in educational organization. Quite recent times, however, have seen the beginnings of a change in this respect. The educational problem has often been discussed in Parliament and in the Press, and in 1919 there was set up a large Commission to work out proposals for the reorganization of the whole educational system.

The many legislative proposals which the Commission has now worked out seem in the main to bear on the carrying out of the unified school system and a more active participation of the State

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in the work of education. A particularly interesting part of this organization is the so-called examination-free school for youth, which has for its object a more thorough training in the public duties of the citizen without special examination

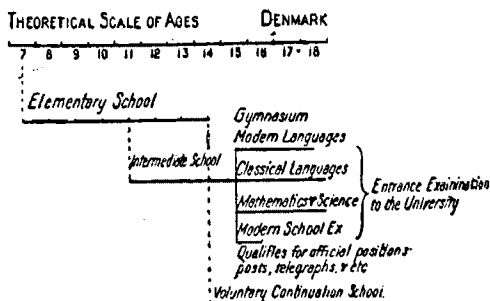


DIAGRAM 4

tests. It is plain that the People's High School, which originated in Denmark and is characteristic of that country, formed an important component in this school of youth.

According to the school law now in force, which was passed in 1903, the school system is arranged in the manner shown in Diagram 4.

The higher education is the care of the only university of the country, which is situated in the capital, Copenhagen.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the preceding short review it may be gathered that a rational arrangement of public education has been the subject of deep interest and devoted work by the Scandinavian peoples. It may, indeed, be truthfully said that scarcely any period in the history of their national education has been so full of importance and energy as the first two decades of the twentieth century. The main attempt has been to democratize the school system. In the course of this, however, two pedagogic theories have come into conflict with one another, namely, intellectualism and naturalism, or perhaps one would better say 'voluntarism.'

As in many other similar countries, this conflict has been sharpest in the field of elementary teaching. Thus the followers of Herbart's *book-learning* are opposed to those who support *knowledge from experience* and whose first talented champion was Herbert Spencer. He taught, as is well known, that it is not the subject of study, but the work that is done with it, experiment, which develops the brain. Jan Ligthart, Kerschensteiner, and others have in our days built further on this

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pedagogic tenet. Thus has come into existence the modern manual training-school, which has for its aim the training of the mind through handiwork.

But the people of Scandinavia, and, above all, the Swedes, have in times past been strong supporters of intellectualism. To be a learned man was the same thing as being a walking encyclopædia. "There is no better baggage on a journey than much of knowledge"; so says a stanza in the days when the North was still under heathendom. That love of encyclopædic knowledge perhaps had its origin in the geographical conditions: for example, the long winter evenings, during which it was from of old the custom to tell stories and to read. At the present time intellectualism has received a set-back, notably in elementary teaching. The work school is going quickly ahead. The nations of Scandinavia have opened many a window toward the West, and their pedagogic ideals now lie in many respects nearer to Locke and Spencer than to Herbart.

PER SKANTZ

## VIII

### GERMANY

**I**T is not easy to give to foreign countries a clear picture of our present school organization. The variety of schools that we have must be confusing, and all the more bewildering because the various German States, which together form the Empire, have not yet attained any unity. The lines of progress are always confused, because, unfortunately, owing to the frequent changes of systems of government which the separate States since 1918 have experienced, politics are intensified to the detriment of the study of education. Whoever looks more deeply into these matters, though, and with sympathy for this movement in aid of youth, will be aware in all this restless movement of a distinct trend toward a system definitely guided by the life of the people. A few observations are therefore presented about the conditions which reform has to fulfil with us.

Since the beginning of the seventeenth century Prussia, as the greatest State in the German

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Empire, had to lead in educational matters. The other German States fell in with the Prussian regulations in the main. Prussia indeed gave a great example to its federated members, for, after the catastrophic events of 1806, far-seeing men like Stein, Hardenburg, Fichte, and Humboldt began a new foundation for the life of the people and the State, based upon a thorough education. The founding of the University of Berlin at a time of national crisis is a testimony in stone to that liberal spirit. But the development did not fulfil what those great-minded men had designed. Certainly the gymnasium grew as the type of a boys' higher school with a well-developed culture of the humanities. Also much was done toward uplifting the elementary school. But both remained markedly separate from each other; their teachers underwent such different training that the future teachers of the two types of schools never mixed; and the introduction of preparatory schools for the gymnasiums of the first school years established from the sixth year onward a barrier between the children of the well-to-do and those of the working class.

Since 1870 Prussia gained for itself the uncontested leadership throughout the German Empire,

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and therefore also in education. Unfortunately a probably correct and originally sound opinion of the value of the school was applied in an inverted sense. Somebody had asserted that in the Franco-German War it was the Prussian schoolmaster who conquered. While it is true that the old Prussian spirit of conscientiousness, of loyalty, of simplicity, was characteristic of the conquering army, yet the reflex action of the military spirit had a harmful influence in the school. It became only too easy to exercise the external military discipline, to use force, to get the schoolwork done by obedience instead of by the creative strength of a free spirit and character—the only thing worthy of the high name of education. These hard conditions were the accompaniment of the hard fight for subsistence in Germany, and this fight extended from the life of the people into the school. The preparation for a successful career usurped more and more the harmonious thorough training of personality which the founders of the humanistic gymnasiums visioned. The final examinations of the higher schools were qualifications for a civil service career, for public service, and for the professions. In a similar manner equally ideal

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and material reasons overthrew at the end of the nineteenth century the supremacy of the gymnasiums, with their dead language teaching divorced from everyday life, amongst the types of higher schools, and won recognition for modern languages, science, and knowledge of institutions and customs of the country in new kinds of schools. The way these types were arranged will be shown later.

Contemporary with these changes in the boys' higher schools, a thorough reform took place in the main subjects of instruction in a girl's school-life. Excepting for the *Landschulen* of one and two classes, the public schools in Germany had no co-educational types, and the education of girls in more advanced studies had been neglected. Whilst in the elementary schools, attended by children from six to fourteen years of age, the teaching was the same for boys and girls and the accommodation for both sexes was ample, the girls' higher schools had to be content with fewer facilities than the gymnasiums and similar institutions possessed. Instruction in science was inadequate, and the number of the public higher *Töchterschulen* so small that the parents almost wholly made use of private schools, which, owing



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to lack of means and to insufficiently educated mistresses, were unable to reach any high educational level. But a thorough girls' school reform created at last (in 1908) the necessary number of public (*i.e.*, State or town) girls' schools, which, with certain individual differences, were comparable to the existing types of boys' higher schools. These provided a freer access to university studies under the same regulations as boys. For those girls from six to fourteen years of age who, after their arrival at puberty, wished neither to study nor to enter immediately into any training for a career, so-called *Frauenschulen* were provided, to give a one to two years' course in domestic work, hygiene, the care of babies, and social welfare.

The above-mentioned tendencies, partly militaristic, partly utilitarian, of the boys' higher school systems in the last thirty years of the nineteenth century, the exclusion of girls from the advantages of higher education, the alienation between masters and scholars owing to the strictness of discipline and the resulting inclination of the scholars secretly to avoid carrying out school rules—all came into being, but not without many misgivings on the part of the best of the teachers and of the youths themselves. This reaction

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found its creative spirit in the country educational homes (*Landerziehungsheime*) founded at the beginning of this century by Herman Lietz, Gustav Wyneken, Paul Geheeb, and by others after their example. These contained both boys and girls, and gave to the school the character of the life in the country, with its proximity to nature, instead of the unnatural one of the big towns; they fostered comradeship between teacher and pupil instead of formal discipline, and encouraged voluntary common agreement of the whole school community. Instead of mere word and brain knowledge, there arose a fuller ability through manual training, and, in place of the mere transmission of knowledge, individual work by the scholar—'learning by doing.' The difference between the existing conventional schools and the *Landerziehungsheime* can only with difficulty be fully realized. Whilst to-day many of these tendencies have penetrated into the public schools, and whilst also these principles are commonly recognized, even where unfortunately the practice lags far behind the recognition, yet it may be said that this active change in our total estimate of proper education is founded mainly on two important points: on the existence of the *Landerzie-*

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*hungsheime* and the resolutions and self-sacrifice of their founders and their fellow-workers, and on the youths (an *élite* of intelligent youth), who themselves demanded the new schools, with their principles of freedom, self-reliance, and truth, and who also helped to found them, supported them with youthful enthusiasm, and are even yet supporting and helping their further development.

Thus before the World War the spontaneous movement of the best of the German youth for a spiritual and living reconstruction of the school life, which had been deadened by convention and external influences, was a beacon of hope, even if it has since burned less brightly.

The evils in the elementary school were, in part, of a different kind from those of the higher schools. Certainly the tendency toward making the teaching more mechanical and loading it with lifeless knowledge was common to both types. But the smaller mass of teaching matter to be managed, the nearer contact of the elementary school teacher with the working classes and their wants, removed this danger to a certain degree and preserved a more intimate relation between the children and the teachers. The greatest damage was the narrowing of the curriculum of

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the elementary school and of the possibilities of the further continuance of education, together with the intrusion of the examination system (and with it the control of subject-matter), both of which checked the new aim of rousing the powers of the mind. Here improvement followed the aspirations of the elementary school teachers themselves, especially in Hamburg, who, supported by the workers amongst the townspeople, had fought for a generation for an active principle in the schoolwork, *i.e.*, 'for the child' and against set systems.

When in the early November days of 1918, immediately following the political change, the radicals amongst the Hamburg teachers asserted for themselves full freedom from all official regulations and obtained permission to form new teaching groups with a free choice to begin afresh in various schools of some hundreds of children each, untrammelled by any imposition of disciplinary rules, of curricula, of time-tables, of subjects or courses designed for the necessities of the child—it was no birth of revolution, no wilfulness, no mere adventure: it was the harvest of tens of years' spiritual sowing.

It must especially be shown how this succeeded,

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how, through freedom and order from within, life and communal teaching and learning arouse and to-day stand out as an example for the whole of Germany. The experiment is, perhaps, the most successful one on a large scale that has so far been made toward full freedom allied with the deepest responsibility and with the belief in the inner orderliness of all life. It is sufficient here to state that the results of the experiences of the first four free schools, however strongly these may insist on self-determination (*eigenes Werden*) and research (*Suchen*) are so convincing that the reaction which has been awakening for one or two years in Hamburg, like everywhere in Germany, has not yet ventured, and will we trust not venture, to take away freedom from the Hamburg schools. Instead of four there are already ten elementary schools which work according to their own plan. Twenty-four, still clinging partially to tradition, have joined the free school commonalty, and one higher school, the *Lichtwarkschule*, is endeavouring, though still keeping a watch on the leaving examination, to work in the same way.

If so far, in this article, more has been said of the impulses which, taken from life by teachers

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and young working men, have given a new aspect to the spirit of school life, so we may well proceed to show what facilities have been inserted in the codes as a direct result, what chances there are now for a wider development along the same lines, and upon what they depend, and, finally, how the school system in Germany is to-day made evident by its external organization.

Among the official school innovations which owe their introduction to the revolutionary period of 1918-19, and which since then have been retained at least on paper, are the school community, the scholar-advisers (concerned with the self-government of the scholars), the parent assistant advisers, and the democratic staff organization for the elementary schools. This latter is usual throughout Germany, and connotes that the director of the school is chosen from the staff, can be changed every few years, and is not the headmaster, but the democratically commissioned member of the teaching body. In the higher schools, on the contrary, in most States, the director is appointed by the school governors, and is endowed with disciplinary powers. The facilities for self-government by the scholars have unfortunately found such scant support in many

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schools from the masters that the scholars have little influence. The parent assistant advisers have an important task in creating a link between school and home, but unfortunately the fulfilment is often hindered by the parents grouping themselves into political parties.

In 1919, in Berlin, the first great Empire School Conference met to work out a basis for a uniform set of Empire school regulations for the separate States. There were not only representatives of the various educational authorities present, but leading school reformers from all over Germany were invited, amongst whom were many who received thus their first official recognition. Here the movement of youth was brought in, and for the first time, in a parliament of pedagogues, youth itself, instead of being merely the object of instruction, took part in the discussions by sending delegates from the older scholars. On the whole the Empire School Conference remained a theatrical gesture. The promised Empire school regulations are not yet issued, and the economical steps of Governments, which are inimical to reforms, threaten further postponement.

However, several paragraphs dedicated by the new Weimar constitution of the German Empire

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to the question of schools and education are, on the contrary, of great importance. These prescribe for all schools an instruction in the spirit of reconciliation between the peoples and of religious tolerance, and state that the basis of any claim for the education of children of all grades of society and classes of people shall rest in all cases on their intellectual fitness.

From these arose :

1. The chief school regulation (*Grundschulgesetz*), which is now in force throughout the Empire and which set up a reform of great social influence. According to this all children from six to ten years of age, *i.e.*, during their first four school years, must attend the same kind of public elementary schools. Attendance is obligatory and without fee. The fee-supported schools preparing for higher ones are done away with for the first school years of the child. They may not for the remainder of their existence enrol any new scholars, and they must close at the latest in 1930. Even though this regulation is so rich in the promise of more intimate relations between the youth of the various classes, it has unfortunately the drawback that, by the general prohibition of private schools for the first four years, private schools of



an educationally experimental character are made thereby impossible. Only in a few cases can exceptions be allowed.

2. The interdenominational character of the public schools. The "Spirit of Religious Toleration" requires that children from an early age shall learn to respect people of different religious thought, and to this end children of different sects are educated side by side. Education in denominational religion is the business of the parents, or of the Church, not of the State. Even where, as is generally the case, religion is taught in the school, participation is quite voluntary and is decided by the parents. There are, however, limitations to the carrying out of these broad-minded regulations at present, for parents are given the right to ask the State for sectarian schools, provided a sufficient number desire the provision. Such schools have a tendency to carry their denominational character too easily into the whole of their instruction, and thus weaken the spirit of religious tolerance which the German people wish to come into education.

3. The demand for new training for teachers. If the gap between the elementary schools and the higher ones is to be bridged over, the teachers

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of the elementary schools must first have a right to a more extended education, and entrance to the universities must be assured. It is to be regretted that the conservative spirit of the majority of German universities opposes this new attempt, which is intended to bring fresh blood from the people to the pursuit of knowledge. Only Thuringia and Saxony, of the present radical Governments, have taken it seriously, and their aspiring elementary school staffs try to retain what has been instituted, even during the passing of the reactionary wave which is again going through the German States. At the universities of Jena, Dresden, and Leipzig educational sections are arranged with theoretical and practical courses for intending teachers in conjunction with academic studies in the separate subjects chosen by the candidate himself. Courses such as these will in time be standardized.

In the other parts of the Empire the question of the future training of the elementary school teacher is only solved negatively; the existing teachers' training centres (quite inadequate drill institutes) are being closed and their place taken by a new type of school, the so-called *Aufbauschule*, which takes fourteen-year-old scholars from the

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elementary schools and, like the higher schools, has a final examination giving entrance to a university course. By this means a second step is made toward the connexion of the elementary school with the higher one (the first being the provision of one school only for the first four years of school life). But nothing has been done for the education of the teachers. From a purely economic point of view no harm is being done to the profession. So many young teachers are waiting for posts, and in the years just coming there will be such drastic reduction of teaching staff owing to measures of economy, that a limitation, or, better still, a present cessation of the supply, would be a relief to school authorities.

But much serious harm is being done to school-work, since the elementary school is robbed of the flow of young blood and remains in the hands of the tired elder teachers—a generation who are no longer capable of making these changes—at a time in which a teaching revival is more important than ever for the whole people. The tragedy of Germany and of its youth fighting for a spiritual revival becomes visible in the barbarity with which the collapse of household economy throughout the land has tightened its grip on

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the gathering strength of this most important movement.

If the struggle to make the elementary school a place of education and of life is checked from the outside, so in the higher school the hindrance to full and free development arises partly from within. The teachers of the higher school are concerned for their privileges, which are being threatened by the incoming of the elementary teachers, and they appear to consider this more than the necessity of revitalizing their extremely torpid teaching systems. The time-tables of the higher school have had a great unburdening during the last two years, but full use of the permission given to the members in the upper school to choose their own subjects has not yet been made; it is more convenient to continue in the old way, to instruct rather than to be leaders and assist the pupils in their individual choice of material for study.

It still remains to point out briefly the types of the higher schools which the severe rough-hewing of the latest Prussian Ministerial decree has instituted: (*a*) the dead-language-teaching gymnasium, with Latin and Greek modernized by the cessation of the Latin essay in the final examina-

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tion and with one foreign modern language ; (b) the *Real-gymnasium*, offering two modern foreign languages, with a detailed study of natural science as a central subject and a limited study of Latin ; (c) the *Ober-Realschule*, in which mathematics and science are the leading subjects and modern languages are taught more practically than scientifically ; (d) the German *Oberschule*, in which the study of the national language and literature and history form the kernel, with two modern foreign languages as extras ; the above-mentioned *Aufbauschule* would be mostly of this last type.

The sharp accentuation of the peculiarities of these types of schools, coupled with the decision a child must make for a definitely limited educational course at an age at which his capability for making such a choice is not sufficiently awakened, does not satisfy the desires of the leading German school reformers. What they want rather is the adaptable individual school (*elastische Einheitschule*)—no levelling system, but a school which, through the mobility of its teachers and its timetables (a mobility extending farther than the permission already gained for the free choice of subjects for the upper classes), would prevent any frittering away of energy. In a school of this

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type full co-ordination of the separate branches of individual education would be arranged, and provision made for an all-embracing and thorough study (*Kernunterricht*) of historical, cultural, lingual, scientific, and mathematical subject-groups radiating in all directions.

ELISABETH ROTTEN

IX  
EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN  
ITALY

**D**URING the last few years Italy has been recasting her whole system of education, in the attempt to develop a new spirit of progress in the school, and to create a stronger educational conscience in the Italian public at large. In order to understand the character of the recent reform, it will be useful perhaps to summarize briefly the chief aspects of Italian educational systems during the last thirty or forty years.

Education has always been in Italy a complete State monopoly. The State only granted secondary school certificates or diplomas and university degrees; and the State only determined all programmes of work leading up to these. All the schools, therefore, were State schools, with the exception of a comparatively small number of private institutions, run either by the Catholic Church or by other independent bodies. But even these private establishments were obliged to

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follow, more or less strictly, the curricula set by the Government in order to prepare efficiently their pupils for the State examinations. All the educational machinery, therefore, was strictly centralized, and people mockingly used to say that if a glass-pane were broken in one of the schools of the kingdom a special decree from the Government would be required in order to replace it. On the other hand, the State system, although excessively bureaucratic and lacking elasticity, was, on the whole, good, at least in theory.

Italian public education fell under three categories very clearly defined, namely, primary, secondary, and higher education. There has never been in Italy any duality in the system, and from the infant school to the university the educational 'ladder' was direct and consistent. Primary or elementary education generally, preceded by *asili* or *giardini d'infanzia* (kindergartens), attendance at which, however, was not compulsory, was given free to children from six to ten years of age. But the inability of enforcing efficiently the law of compulsion has always been the weakest point of Italian State education. It is not here the place to dwell on the various causes which could help to explain this comparative in-

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ability to obtain regular attendance at school from children of some Italian districts. A country until sixty years ago parcelled in seven small States, generally misruled and fiscally exploited, Italy has developed her economical and social resources in a very irregular way. The South, almost entirely agricultural, economically undeveloped, with insufficient communications, and with a population widely scattered on the slopes of the Apennines and very difficult to control from the scholastic point of view, presented a sharp contrast to the North, chiefly industrial, with a population concentrated in big towns of a Continental type.

Secondary education, for which fees were, and still are, very low, was given either in technical or in grammar schools (*scuole classiche*). The latter, whose curriculum extended to eight years (five of *ginnasio* and three of *liceo*), led to the university; the former could have led to the higher school for civil engineers (*politecnico*), but was more generally considered to be only a preparation for business with a smattering of general culture. In fact, it is curious to remark, the pupils from the classical schools were generally considered to be better prepared, even for the scientific training of the *politecnico*.

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Moreover, there was a secondary school (*scuola normale*), completed by a higher course (*scuola di magistero*), for the training of teachers for elementary schools. The teachers for secondary schools in Italy must all possess a university degree.

Finally, there was university education given in the various faculties commencing at eighteen years of age.

The educational 'ladder,' therefore, was an accomplished fact; all schools were opened to everybody, and the fees to be paid were very low. The extraordinarily democratic character of Italian education was also manifest in the fact that in the State schools boys and girls of all social classes were mixed together. Co-education was to be found in nearly all classical schools, but rarely in others. Only comparatively wealthy families preferred to send their sons and daughters to special private institutions or to have them educated privately at home.

Now we may pertinently ask ourselves what was wrong with Italian education, if the machinery itself was excellent in theory, and why such a drastic reform as that imposed by the late Minister of Education, Professor Giovanni Gentile, has

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been found necessary and has gained the general approval of the nation.

The faults were many and serious: spiritual more than technical and administrative. On the one hand, Italian State schools were too mechanically controlled and had very little hold on the moral life of the nation at large. The teachers were strictly bound by Draconian directions to certain curricula, time-tables, text-books, syllabuses, etc. The intellectual side of education was almost exclusively taken into account, and all other sides—ethical, humane, æsthetic, and religious—were neglected to an amazing extent.

In the secondary schools this lack of balance was almost ludicrous. First of all, the number of subjects taught in these schools was excessive: French, either German or English, Latin, Greek, history, geography, mathematics, natural history, physics, chemistry, Italian literature. Certain subjects were taught, especially in the *liceo*, in a fairly exhaustive manner, and the standard reached was exceptionally high for a secondary school. But there were no games, no music, no fine arts taught; practically no attention was paid to physical training, and very little recreation or

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open-air sports were given to the boys and girls. The worship of culture and of cramming the pupils' minds with hard encyclopædic knowledge was the dominating feature of Italian education—the very method more likely to produce an ill-balanced generation without any moral stability. Moreover, the teachers themselves, being merely officials paid by the Government to cram the pupils' minds with that particular amount of knowledge which was rigidly determined by the programmes, were hampered by them in their essential functions of educators.

No wonder that really intelligent youths were not attracted by the school, which was bound to become a sort of hated workroom, instead of being a joyful abode, like *la Gioiosa*, the ideal school of Vittorino da Feltre in Mantua.

The struggle endemic in Italy between Roman Catholics and anti-clericals or so-called free-thinkers aggravated the situation. In 1906 a law was passed in consequence of which all religious teaching was suppressed in the State schools. The faculties of theology had already been suppressed since 1873. The teaching of religion abolished, the curriculum of the schools became more and more intellectual, and the

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results of this mechanical *surménage* of the brains led to very unsatisfactory results.

The situation in the university was slightly better. In fact, the Italian schools of medicine and engineering turned out in the last forty years some of the best professional men in the whole world; but, of course, the same spiritual uneasiness was to be found in the faculties of moral sciences, where the conditions were bad. Philosophy and *belles-lettres* had lost their humanistic character, only to adopt a heavy Teutonic garb unsuitable to Italian mentality. The faculty of law, which had a great tradition in Italy, had become too crowded with young men without any special vocation, trying to obtain the maximum of academic advantages in the easiest possible way. The result was an overcrowding in Governmental offices of young men possessing an academic degree, but utterly unprepared for practical life.

Very briefly sketched, such was the educational situation in Italy up to a few years ago. We could add that the positivistic mentality of the last forty years had shaped a pedagogical science on purely empirical principles, considering educational questions merely from the standpoint of salaries, material organization, devising of new didactic

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methods, and other purely exterior considerations. We venture to observe that this mechanical mentality, indeed still dominant to-day in many countries, has been responsible for great disasters in the world, under the well-intentioned appearances, of course, of helping to avoid them.

Now an effort has lately been made by Italian educationists in a more liberal direction. The educational principles of Gentile, and of his collaborator, Lombardo-Radice, are well known in the scholastic world and do not need any further illustration. The interesting point to note, however, is that these philosophers, who wrote excellent books, also tried to apply in their entirety their principles in practical life. It is a typical and perhaps tragic side of Italian mentality, this constant attempt to bring into actual reality universal schemes, only perfected in theory. The amazing chaos of English educational legislation, and at the same time the elasticity of its compromises, are a wholly admirable instance of the practical genius of the British community. Italians, on the contrary, must have philosophical principles beforehand, and a brilliant theoretical programme to think about, which is for them far more important than its practical realization.

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The aims of Gentile's reform are numerous. First of all he maintains that the only reform worth the name is the reform of the teachers. Any system of education will be efficient if the teachers are intellectually and morally efficient. The teacher must realize that education is not a routine to be followed according to empirical rules or merely a question of organization, but a spiritual activity, a mission which requires a continuous re-creation of one's culture and didactic energies. Gentile's system does not give 'rules,' does not 'invent' novel methods to educate, but strives to prepare in the teacher's mind the intrinsic capacity, the sense of mission, by which only he or she will be able to communicate intensely with the pupils. In the end, teaching, and being taught, must be a work of mutual co-operation and an identical process of auto-education.

With the Royal decrees of May 6 and November 11, 1923, supported by other enactments, known as the *legge Gentile*, Italian education was entirely reorganized on these general principles :

- (a) Administrative and didactic elasticity.
- (b) Development of continuation schools.

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- (c) Stricter enforcement of the law of compulsion.
- (d) Strengthening of the classical side in secondary education.
- (e) Strict selection of candidates for the universities, which must not be overcrowded with unsuitable students.
- (f) Moral and physical education to receive far more attention than before and to constitute the ultimate aim of all training.
- (g) Religious education to be restored in primary schools.
- (h) State monopoly to cease ; and education to be opened to private competition.

Let us consider briefly some of these points.

With the Gentile Act the local education authorities (*provveditori*) receive more power and have more independence. They can adapt the general rules set by the Government to the special requirements of their particular district. For instance, the curriculum of an elementary school in the plains of Lombardy must be sensibly different from that of one on the mountains of Calabria. Local interest in special trades and handicrafts, folk-lore, tradition, must be taken



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into account. On the other hand, all programmes must be merely intended as guides. In fact, the State points out to the teacher the results that are expected of him at the end of each scholastic year, allowing him full liberty as to the means for obtaining these results. The programmes, in fact, to use the words of the decree itself, "have been especially devised with a view to obliging the teacher constantly to renew his store of learning by a deep study of the true erudition of our people, and not by the superficial scanning of non-instructive manuals." The main points referred to are *popular traditions* and *popular literature*, the revival of which is a typical feature of the reform. A complete revision of text-books therefore took place with the object of removing all pedantic and purely mechanical manuals and catalogues of scattered notions. The text-books must be, as far as practicable, the classical authors themselves and the rich material of folk-literature from which a good teacher can draw any amount of educational elements.

In elementary schools (five years, completed by a three years' continuation school or *scuola complementare*) the time-tables have been modified so as to give more scope to the teaching of such

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subjects as gardening, games, hygiene, manual work, singing, drawing, etc. Out of a week of thirty-five hours not less than twenty-four must be spent in the teaching of these subjects. A very large part of the time-table is given to art and singing. The details of the programmes regarding singing are extremely interesting, and the educational value of music and of the fine arts generally is strongly emphasized. Much work is being done in that direction at the present moment in Italy, as is the case in England, and some interesting collections of folk-songs, nursery-rimes, and original compositions for children will be issued shortly by the Gruppo d'Azione per le Scuole del Popolo. The work done by this organization is one of the finest instances of the goodwill and enthusiasm prevailing amongst the Italians in order to bring about a higher level of popular education. It is a typical specimen of the kind of work done by Italian educationists to-day in the effort toward improving the moral and social conditions of their country. Those interested in modern Italy ought to watch carefully the humble work done by these pioneers in education.

Finally, the teaching of religion has been restored in all primary schools. By law religion "is

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considered as the foundation and complement of all elementary studies." Religion must be taught in relation to moral education, to history, to the arts; it must always be present and frequently recalled as an element spiritually dominating all subjects. The teaching of religion must be undertaken, so far as possible, by the ordinary teachers, and must be free of sectarian and too strictly dogmatic catechisms. The ultimate aim of the *riforma Gentile* is, in the matter of religious teaching, to give to the Catholic world the scheme of a liberal Catholic education, which could correspond in England to the so-called "common Protestantism of the English nation." In all classrooms the Crucifix and the portrait of the King have been recently replaced.

Secondary education has been now divided into three sections: (a) *scuole complementari*—a completion of elementary education, like the English continuation schools; (b) *istituti tecnici e istituti magistrali*—a preparation of students for special purposes, the former for trade and business, the latter for the teaching career in elementary schools; (c) finally, *ginnasi-licei e licei scientifici*—institutions for culture and higher education leading to the university; in these schools the

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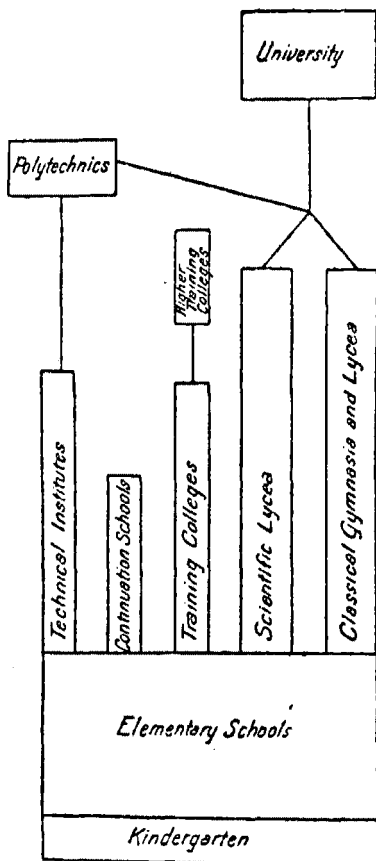
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classical side has been considerably strengthened. Moreover, even in secondary education the main object must be that of *educating* rather than *instructing*. Another innovation is the abolition of leaving examinations and the instituting of examinations for admission. The principle (not a new one for England) is that each school ought to have the right to choose its own pupils.

The curriculum of the university has not been altered, and only minor modifications in the appointing of the staff were applied. But the important feature, so far as university education is concerned, is the institution of the so-called *esame di Stato*, by which the State reserves to itself the right of granting eligibility to exercise the various professions. The university, in fact, can give only an academic degree, and not the professional status as was the case before the reform.

In all schools alike the playing of collective games has received special attention. Also intellectual games, like acrostics, riddles, and many other popular pastimes, together with storytelling, recitations, competitions of various kinds, are playing a great part in the curriculum of primary and secondary schools. To the teaching

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of hygiene very careful attention has been paid, and many interesting devices have been found to interest the pupils in the matter.

On the other hand, we find that the disciplinary value of mathematics has been recently challenged, and the teaching of this subject has been greatly reduced in secondary schools. If mathematics is necessary as a preparation for those who are to study physics, engineering, etc., it is quite useless, it is argued, as a propædeutic to those who are taking up literature, history, ethics, etc.

Finally, the school in Italy has now been given what the Italians call its 'liberty' (*la libertà della scuola*). The meaning of this *libertà* is this: the State no longer retains the monopoly of national education, but, on the contrary, it welcomes and encourages all private enterprises which want to compete with it. A *régime* of free competition will be inaugurated, and the State is ready to facilitate the growth of independent schools. Various critics of the *riforma Gentile* strongly object to this policy of freedom, pointing out that, as the only powerful educational organization in Italy is that of the Catholics, all private schools therefore will become more or less the prey of the Church. The future will show whether new in-

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dependent energies will spring up in Italy outside the Catholic Church or not.

The educational campaign, which is still in full swing in Italy, will probably bring about some more changes and slight alterations in the scholastic machinery. But the essentials of the reform, of which we have tried to sketch an outline, will certainly remain as a step forward in the educational progress of Italy.

PIERO REBORA

X  
JAPAN

[The writer wishes to express his sincere thanks to Mr Seyd Ross Masood, I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad-Deccan, India, for leave to use his recent book, *Japan and its Educational System*—a permission of which he has availed himself to supplement his own observation.]

**N**O nation has taken to heart more seriously than Japan the Aristotelean maxim that education must be framed with the constitution in view. The Japanese educational system is an integral part of the national life, deliberately planned and subordinated to the wider aims of statesmanship. Her schools, and the administrative system on which they rest, bear the marks of their origin; they are the creation of the most daring piece of constructive statecraft on record.

Recent events have driven home to the imagination of Europe the reality of Japan's achievement



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in adopting the mechanism of Western life. Her success has been in many respects so complete that it has often blinded observers to the nature of the process by which it has been brought about.

Sixty years ago the Government of Japan was a decadent feudalism. After more than two centuries of voluntary and almost complete isolation she had no ships capable of long ocean voyages. Her institutions and customs were so remote from those of any other people as to be unintelligible to the rest of the world. It was the naval victory over Russia at Tsushima which forced Europe to take the transformation seriously, and Europeans explained the marvel in terms of 'imitation'—a reassuring formula which hid almost as much as it revealed.

The relation of Japan to her past history and traditions was no mere turning aside from the old paths to a slavish following of European models. In fact, the most striking feature of the reaction of the Japanese to Western influences has been her freedom from any compulsive tendency to imitate, her attitude of deliberate choice between alternatives, and her power to conserve and adapt everything of value in her own tradition.

A factor of supreme importance for the change

is the Japanese conception of loyalty to the Emperor. In a recently published book the present Mayor of Tokio has attempted to translate this conception into terms intelligible to Western thought. The history of Europe provides no real parallel; the highest claims of Pope or Emperor in the Middle Ages, or of the monarchy of Louis XIV, or of the Stuarts, are pale shadows of the Japanese image. The Emperor, whose throne is "coeval with Heaven and Earth," is the centre of the circle of his people. Emperor and people form a unity so close that there can be no question of a 'relation' between them; each is inconceivable apart from the other. At the heart of all Japanese political thought lies a mystery unapproachable by European logical analysis—unless, perhaps, it employs the technique of traditional theology. There follows from this a conception of citizenship fundamentally different from anything which Europe can show; its intensity is not more remarkable than the *a priori* character of its sanctions. The citizen simply does not feel himself as in any sense an individual over against the State.

It is noteworthy that, except for the short period of the Jesuit Missions, Japan has never

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known a religious system which made claims upon conscience rivalling political obedience. Shinto, the national cult, has no theology, and its ethic is little more than patriotism ; it is co-extensive with the nation, and the Imperial House is the natural centre of its devotion. Buddhism takes local colour readily, and in Japan the Zen cult provided the inspiration for the knightly code of honour. Shinto and Buddhism lived comfortably together, often sharing the same shrines ; and though at the Restoration the major shrines were cleansed of Buddhistic symbols, there seems to have been no kind of acute controversy.

These facts have an important bearing upon the problem of education which faced the constitution-builders of modern Japan. They stand in direct contrast with the conditions out of which the schools of Europe grew up, and they differ no less widely from the struggles which determine the background of educational reform in India, for example. It is difficult to exaggerate the influence of the rivalry between Catholic and Protestant, Moslem and Hindu, upon the form and content of teaching. Again, in Europe and Asia alike the new learning has had to win its way against high resistances. A member of the Young Chinese

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Group in Peking recently suggested that the most important contribution of Europe to Asia had been the scientific *method*—rather even than the results of scientific thought. England still stands near enough to the struggle over the application of evolutionary conceptions to religious development to understand something of the ferment set up by the impact of the historical method of investigation upon Asiatic tradition. In Japan Western science came up against no kind of dogmatic resistance; and the supreme motive of loyalty carried such barriers as did exist: the Japanese set to work to educate themselves as a measure of national defence, willed by the Emperor. Those who planned the schools had to fear neither the prejudice which imposes caution upon Western reformers, nor the inertia and suspicion which mars so much educational effort in India. They had neither to create nor to conciliate public opinion; they were given *carte blanche*, with the schools of the world as their models.

This freedom explains much of the success of the Japanese experiment; but it carried with it specific disadvantages. A motive so exalted as pure patriotism is apt to fail a little in concreteness

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when applied to definite situations. An early attempt to throw the burden of policy upon the provincial Governments broke down, and Japan was forced to adopt a system of centralized control; although nearly all primary and middle schools are provided by the prefectures, the scheme of study is determined somewhat rigidly by the Educational Department. For higher education the Imperial Government is itself mainly responsible. The work of education was from the first accepted as one of the most important services of the State, and though many voluntary schools and colleges exist the national system has neither been based upon them nor built round them.

Patriotism has been both the motive and the instrument of educational advancement in Japan. The new learning was at first regarded as a kind of armament; compelled to abandon the policy of isolation, and convinced of the futility of resisting the *force majeure* of the West, the leaders of Japan set themselves to protect the integrity of their country and of their national soul by a process of thoroughgoing but controlled Westernization. Their perception of the part played by universal education in the formula of Western

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power was a stroke of genius. It was not until later that a real passion for instruction, as a means of individual advancement, caught the masses of the Japanese people. To-day its significance is fully realized, and knowledge is sought with avidity. Rickshaw coolies, waiting for fares, spend the time reading not newspapers, but books. A 'foreigner' walking up-country will hardly have been in his inn half an hour before (with the utmost courtesy and ready to withdraw at a sign of displeasure) half the children of the village will appear with notebooks and pencils, ask the English name for everything within sight, repeat it to make sure they have heard correctly, and record it carefully for future reference. It must be added that they are quite ready to teach Japanese words in exchange.

The school attendance figures for Japan compare very favourably with those of any European country. The 'teacher absenteeism' which invalidates the records of so many Indian schemes would be unthinkable here. The percentage of literates must already be extremely high, although literacy is no easy achievement in a language which uses Chinese characters as the roots of its words. It is characteristic of Japan that although

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she possesses an ancient system of syllabic phonetics, in constant use as terminations and in proper names, she set her face against any attempt to replace the traditional script by phonetic writing. A more radical proposal was the adoption of English as the national language; but this met with even shorter shrift, although its possession as a secondary language is coveted by every Japanese. Business houses make use of English in their correspondence, since the Japanese typewriter is a cumbrous machine; the names of railway stations are written up in Roman characters, as well as in phonetics.

Western science brought with it the need for a great expansion of the language. Japan had to find equivalents not only for the strictly scientific terminology of the new sciences, but also for thousands of words which have long been generally current in the West—the names of the machines upon which Western civilization rests, and their derivatives: railway, typewriter, telescope, and the like. Japanese scholars set on foot a process of wholesale invention, drawing freely upon every source available, and not disdaining, where possible, to choose a form which would recall in some measures its English equivalent.

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Circumstances forced upon Japan an eclecticism for which she was in many ways peculiarly well fitted. Her national genius consists less in a capacity for imitation than in a power to adapt what she takes—as the Mayor of Tokio puts it, “to rob innovations of their sting.”

In spite of her incalculable debt to Chinese culture, she had kept her hold upon traditional social values in strong contrast with those of China. The task she set herself in the 'sixties was not obviously different in kind, and she can have had little idea of its complexity. The unity of Western civilization is most impressive when seen from a distance. To the Japanese observer the national traditions of the various peoples of Europe and America can hardly seem so widely divergent as to be incapable of combination. The course adopted was obviously reasonable; picked observers were sent to tour Europe and recommend which of the variant forms of her institutions should be adopted. The test they applied was twofold: which European system expressed most nearly the Japanese political ideal? and, in each department of life, which model passed best the pragmatic test of success? Germany was at this very time engaged in solving



the problem of internal unity. She provided an example of a modern State, obviously successful, which was not founded upon the doctrine of ministerial responsibility. The German constitution became in many respects the model for Japan, and after 1871 the army was trained mainly on German lines. England supplied the pattern for the navy, and for the commercial services and the schools which served them. Later, American influence became powerful, especially in the field of hygiene.

An important feature of the German model was its stress upon the political importance of instruction. America showed how the common school could be made the instrument of social education. Japan sought to combine these various fruits of her foreign studies, and to harmonize the result with her traditional ethic. The administrative framework is in the main German in conception, but there is a variety of options, due to grafting-in other growths, which makes for flexibility, while it increases the difficulty of adjustment.

The basis of the system is the primary school, at which attendance is compulsory between the ages of six and twelve. Above this is the middle school for boys, or the high school for girls, which

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may be attended for five years, from twelve to seventeen. Those not proceeding to the middle or high school are provided for by an advanced elementary course, often in the primary school, covering the years twelve to fourteen. Boys and girls destined for advanced education may leave the middle or high school at sixteen, and spend three years in the 'higher school.' Boys proceeding to the university do so usually at nineteen, and remain there three or four years, after which they spend a further two years in working for a higher degree. A few university places are now given to girls.

The division of the higher school courses into 'literary' and 'scientific' suggests the influence of the German *Gymnasium* and *Realschule*, but Chinese classics are taught as a part of both courses. A new type of higher school is being organized, covering the seven years from twelve to nineteen, the object being to secure continuity. Some of the universities also hold a preparatory course lasting two or three years, taking the place of the older type of higher school. The line marking the various stages of school and college life is less clearly drawn than in Europe or is blurred by conflicting options.

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Normal schools training teachers for the primary system are generally entered at the age of fourteen from the higher elementary school, the higher normal schools at seventeen, or sixteen from the middle school or girls' high school; the course lasts four or five years.

Technical education in its various branches is provided for by schools and colleges of every grade above the elementary. Schools of art, music, and languages have also been established in considerable variety. Japan has followed the West in making special provision for defectives, and in setting up a school medical service. There are some 600 kindergartens.

A striking feature of the curriculum in all grades is the time given to the teaching of science. This is begun in the fourth year of the elementary course. The syllabus is designed to give a knowledge of general scientific principles. The selection of examples seems a little haphazard, but a serious attempt is made to provide necessary apparatus and avoid mere theorizing. The science taught in middle schools covers a wide field, while higher schools and universities provide specialized courses, and there is opportunity for the equivalent of post-graduate research.

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The stress laid on physical training is characteristically Japanese. The education of old Japan was predominantly physical and moral, and habits of courage and self-control were formed by means of instruction in the ancient sports of wrestling and *judo* ('ju-jitsu'). This physical training merged imperceptibly into specifically military exercises. Archery is still valued as a sport, and so is a kind of fencing with large wooden lances. It is curious to see all these exercises being carried on—at the Kobe commercial school, for example—side by side with tennis, football, and baseball. It can hardly be an accident that physical fitness and ability is so highly valued in Japan. Here, as in many other ways, the Japanese have compensated for their natural disabilities by the development of qualities which outweigh them: small stature is offset by a high degree of courage, control, and physical skill.

The teaching of morals plays a prominent part in the life of schools and colleges. The ethical aims of Japanese education have been inherited almost intact from the old knightly code; in fact, the common school was deliberately planned to be the means of spreading among all social classes the ancient ideal of the *samurai*. One of

the gravest problems which the makers of modern Japan had to face was the transformation of the merchant class; in old Japan the merchant ranked below the craftsman, the cultivator, and the soldier, as a man whose trade was in itself dishonourable, since he produced nothing. If commerce was to be the basis of national wealth and progress, the status of the merchant must undergo a revolutionary change. In the Kobe commercial school definite periods are given each week to the teaching of "business morality."

Religion is not taught in Japanese schools and colleges; but patriotism is taught throughout, and the portrait of the Emperor—himself the centre of Shinto devotion—is revered in every school. It might almost be said that the whole curriculum is simply a series of concentric circles round this symbol of the nation, beginning with the training in fitness, in which physical and moral elements are closely blended.

In recent years an effort has been made to teach directly the principles of social hygiene. A large exhibition was set up in Tokio, containing information and apparatus collected from all over the world. Here were exhibited models of typical waterworks, diagrams showing the comparative

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park-space in the world's principal cities, charts illustrating many branches of preventive medicine, and pictures designed to teach "Safety first." Lecture-rooms were attached to the exhibition hall, and teachers from provincial schools were brought to Tokio in batches and given a short course which could become the basis of their own teaching.

The Japanese educational system is in conception both complete and adequate. It is perhaps the only system in Asia to which one can really apply Western tests. Japan has grappled successfully with the colossal problem of mass-illiteracy which elsewhere in Asia drags down every attempt at serious progress, whether political or economic. The primary system is on the whole solid and sound. There are many excellent middle and higher schools; but the percentage of places available is still very inadequate, and competition for them is cruelly keen. The general standard of work is more difficult to maintain than in elementary grades; the schools depend for their teachers upon the graduates of the higher training-colleges, who are themselves the product of the middle schools. Improvement can only come slowly, and the need for it is fully recognized by

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the heads of the service, especially by those who are acquainted with European and American standards. Technical education is making rapid progress. The Imperial Government has reserved for itself the direct control of higher education, and there are five Imperial universities, and several private foundations. The stress laid on research, in all faculties, is proof that the Government looks to the universities to take the lead in the advancement of knowledge. The medical schools especially have won international recognition.

It is still curiously easy for the European visiting Japan to put his finger upon the source of innovations which seem strangely odd in their new setting. Perhaps one may take as typical the peaked cap and horn-rimmed glasses of many boy-students, and the faded red skirt which girl-students wear over their kimono. Japan has not yet had time to harmonize her borrowings, either with each other or with the basic national ideals which they were meant to serve. It is doubtful, too, how far the adoption of the trappings of the West can go without involving a modification of fundamentals. And yet, the farther one is privileged to penetrate into Japanese domestic

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life, the more remote the West seems, until at last, in the traditional simplicity of some cultured house—whose owner may be a graduate of an English university—there is nothing to remind one of Europe, except the electric light! Half an acre of ground, or less, is enough, even in the outskirts of the capital, to secure complete isolation.

Even in the crowded life of the industrial cities one comes constantly upon oases of custom or sentiment absolutely untouched by the changes of the last sixty years. It may be that Western ethics and social values are less intimately bound up than one imagines with the mechanism of an industrial and scientific civilization. Certainly, in her domestic (as distinct from economic) relationships, Japan is still governed in the main by her ancient codes. In her schools the introduction of Western methods is itself scarcely a greater innovation than the spread among all classes of the traditional ideal of hardship and loyalty.

JOHN H. NICHOLSON



## XI

### RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN AUSTRALIA

**I**N each of the six States of the Commonwealth of Australia a co-ordinated system of education, extending from kindergarten and primary schools to the universities, has been established. These systems are now under the control of Cabinet Ministers responsible to the State Parliaments. The functions of the Federal Government in respect of education are confined to those parts of the Commonwealth that are outside the territories of the States. The chief of these areas is the Northern Territory, on the mainland, which, though of vast extent, has at present a population of not more than 3500 persons exclusive of aboriginal natives. The schools in the Federal Capital Territory (Canberra), carved out of New South Wales, are still linked up with the State system and administered by the State Government, but their cost is provided for from the Federal revenues.

On its historical side educational progress in

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Australia is full of interest and, if studied comparatively with the movements in Great Britain that have brought things to their present complexion, many parallelisms bearing witness to similarities of feeling and differences of opinion among the people of the two countries would be observed. But such a study does not fall within the scope of the present article, and references to history must be limited to those points necessary for an understanding of recent development.

The beginning was, of course, in New South Wales, and this State has had a predominating influence in the evolution of method and system throughout the country. Before the mother State had been reduced to its present dimensions and Australia was politically divided as it is to-day, the question of public instruction had already received considerable attention. The new colonies (now States) inherited the benefits of past experience and began their own activities at different stages. In 1844, while Queensland and Victoria were still included within the boundaries of New South Wales, the late Lord Sherbrooke, then Mr Robert Lowe, secured the appointment of a Committee of the Legislative Council to report upon education and to devise

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means of placing it upon a basis suited to the wants of the community. This Committee reported that the state of education was extremely defective; half the children in the colony were receiving little or no education; about one-sixth were in private schools and two-sixths in State-aided denominational schools. It recommended a general instead of a denominational system, and that adherence thereto should be an indispensable condition for State aid. The incorporation of a Board of National Education was the result, but it was upon a compromise which satisfied nobody. In 1867 a forward step toward present conditions was made by a statute which committed the administration of primary education in New South Wales to a single body, denominated the Council of Education, and entrusted with the expenditure of all moneys provided by Parliament for primary education. It took over 259 national schools and 310 denominational; on its abolition, in 1880, it handed over to the Department of Public Instruction a total of 1220 schools, of which 1115 were national and 105 denominational. To-day there are about 10,000 State schools in Australia and 1700 private schools.

By the Public Instruction Act of 1880 State

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grants were finally withdrawn from denominational schools, and the control of education was raised to the full dignity of a Department of State. Parliamentary control had already been established in Victoria, Queensland, and South Australia, but Tasmania and Western Australia did not adopt the system until 1893. The resultant position in all States is not unlike that which obtains in France: public and private educational establishments exist side by side, but while the former are under the sole control of the Minister, the latter are liable to inspection only for certain particulars, such as the suitability of buildings and the assurance that the education provided is up to a certain standard of efficiency. Private schools may be (1) proprietary, or (2) foundations, with a Council or Board of Trustees, to whom the headmaster is responsible for the conduct of the school. The latter are most commonly secondary or high-grade schools connected with religious denominations, while the former are mostly preparatory schools drawing the majority of their pupils from the families of the professional and wealthier classes.

The problem of the foundational and private school in a State which aims at a co-ordinated

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system covering general education, technical training, and qualification for professions at universities has recently been dealt with in New South Wales in the following manner. Parliament formally enacted in 1916 that all children between the ages of seven and fourteen must be provided with "efficient" education, and that no school should be recognized as efficient unless so certified by the Minister of Education, who should take into consideration the standard of instruction, the qualifications of the teachers, the suitability of school premises, and the general conduct of the school. This provision applies to both primary and secondary schools where children of statutory ages are educated. The conditions upon which benefits under the Bursary Endowment Act of 1912 are extended to private secondary schools involve a similar inspection and certification. This Bursary Endowment Act was an important innovation. It established a statutory fund of moneys appropriated by Parliament or supplemented by private donation to provide bursaries for pupils from lower to higher schools and to the university. It is administered by a special Board, consisting of representatives from the Public Instruction Department, the Uni-

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versity, and the registered secondary schools. Its benefits are open to pupils from all State schools, but in respect of private institutions are limited to schools registered and certificated by the Department. The result has been to cause nearly all non-public schools to be so registered. The standards required for the registration of private schools, whether primary or secondary, are the same as those of State schools of similar grade and situation. Public examinations are based upon the curricula of State schools, and this tends toward establishing uniformity in the standards of instruction. It may be mentioned incidentally that in this, the most populous State of Australia, the proportion of pupils in private schools to those in State schools has stood at 19.9 per cent. since 1920.

The principles of the present public or State school system originated in the Public Instruction Act of 1880; and this Act, as amended by the Free Education Act, 1906, the Bursary Endowment Act, 1912, and the Public Instruction Amendment Acts of 1916 and 1917, is the statutory basis of present education in New South Wales. Though there are variations in details, the Public Instruction Acts of the other States are framed on similar lines.

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Since 1899, however, the growth of new educational ideals has led to extensive changes in the practical application of the Statute, inspired by endeavours to construct a national system which should correspond with the economic and political ideals of the people. In the Primary Syllabus of 1922 the aim of the present system was set forth as follows: "The function of a school is to supply the circumstances and conditions most favourable to a child's growth." No particular method of teaching is imposed, and emphasis is laid upon the acquisition of personal culture and the development of intelligence, as well as an assimilation of useful knowledge. Education under this system is secular, free, and compulsory, each of these principles being enjoined by the Statute. But though teaching is to be non-sectarian, the term 'secular instruction' is held to include general religious teaching as distinguished from dogmatical or polemical theology.

The events preceding the change in 1899 and the motives for it have been exhaustively reviewed by F. Anderson, M.A., Emeritus Professor of Philosophy of Sydney University, in a handbook published in 1914 by the Federal Government. It was a change of heart rather than of machinery,

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and its proximate cause was a realization of the fact that, although from the bureaucratic standpoint the 'machine' seemed to be running smoothly, the results were unsatisfactory; in plain terms, that in spite of good reports and comfortable statistics as to 'instruction,' the youth of the country was not being well educated. As Mr Anderson observed, although there were excellent officials the Departments had produced no "men of striking personality who left any impress on the educational life of the community." He makes an exception in the case of Mr J. A. Hartley, of South Australia, and records the debt of Western Australia to the late Sir Cyril Jackson, whose services it was fortunate enough to secure from England for the organization of the well-administered system in that State.

Criticism had come from within. Political 'labour' took the right turning on the question of education, and, clearing its mind of all prejudice against higher schools and universities, found itself on common ground with other classes in demanding a system which aimed at turning the child into a useful citizen rather than at regarding him as a statistical unit in departmental reports. For a time controversy was acute. The Departments



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either saw no need for reforming their methods, or thought that a few readjustments were all that was necessary. New South Wales sent two Commissioners to travel for a year and pick up hints from other countries. The report of one of them (Mr—now Sir—G. H. Knibbs, afterward Commonwealth Statistician and at present Director of the Institute of Science and Industry) covered the whole educational field and—in Mr Anderson's words—"in effect led to the entire surrender of the policy of passive resistance on the part of the Minister of Public Instruction and the chiefs of the Department." Since then the educational methods of New South Wales—adopted in essentials by the other States—have been consistently directed toward the construction of a "flexible, coherent, and comprehensive national system" corresponding to the economic and political ideals of the people.

"Although as a general rule," say the regulations issued by the Department of Education in Victoria, "the efficiency of the instruction will be measured by the inspector's tests and by the number of pupils who pass the qualifying examination, or gain the certificate of merit, or a scholarship, it should be clearly understood by teachers

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that the inspector's opinion of the worth of the school to the community will outweigh the results of examinations. The worth of the school to the community consists in the work it does in quickening the mental life of the pupils, in forming habits likely to result in worthy character, and in inducing its pupils to pass on to a higher type of school, or, before they leave the elementary school, to complete the full course. More important than successful acquisition of knowledge as revealed by examinations is an affirmative answer to such questions as these: Are the teachers faithful and zealous in their work, and are the pupils being systematically practised in earnest, honest endeavour? Are they being trained to think, to think quickly, and to think for themselves? Are they interested in what they are doing, and are they being taught to apply it in their out-of-school affairs? Is their school environment calculated to produce a cheerful performance of their duties, a consideration and respect for the rights of others, and an ideal of honour and truthfulness in word and act?"

The scheme of co-ordination of schools in New South Wales is comprehensive, and its chart may be constructed from the following data: kinder-

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garten and infant school, two years; leading to primary school, six years; thence by qualifying certificate to either (1) superior public school, two years, or (2) evening continuation school, two years, or (3) the first and second year high school course at a district school, an intermediate high school, or a high school. Each of these last-mentioned schools grants qualifying certificates for higher grades, viz., a superior public school certificate, a continuation school certificate, and an intermediate certificate. The two former may carry the pupil on to a technical college or advanced evening commercial school, which may lead on to advanced courses at the technical college and thence to the university; the latter may lead to the third and fourth year courses at a high school or (if desired) to an agricultural college, from both of which institutions leaving certificates admitting to the university or to the teachers' college may be obtained.

Without asserting that the potentialities of this scheme are being realized to the full, it is demonstrable that New South Wales, which is now spending about one-ninth (say, £4,000,000) of its revenue on education, is doing the utmost feasible under present conditions. It makes, for

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example, strenuous efforts to reach every child, even in the most sparsely populated districts. By half-time schools, week-end schools, itinerant instructors, and correspondence schools the difficulties of distance and isolation are obviated to the greatest possible extent so far as primary instruction is concerned, and the results from correspondence schools (inaugurated in New South Wales in 1916 and now copied throughout Australia) have been surprisingly good. According to the evidence of the Director of Education of New South Wales before the Royal Commission on the New States question, there are children holding bursaries in high schools who received their first education through correspondence schools, and never saw a primary or other school until they went to take up their bursaries.

The problem before the reformers in Australia was (1) to co-ordinate the schools and construct a ladder from the lowest grade of school to the university; (2) to reconstruct the curricula by means of appropriate groupings; (3) to provide for the training of the teaching staff.

In the last-named department drastic reform was urgently needed. It was a branch of the system which had been grievously neglected or

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mishandled, though every authority on education knows it to be the key of the position. Throughout Australia vast improvements have been made during the last twenty-five years in the establishment of training-colleges, the abolition of the pupil-teacher throughout all States, and adequate organization to ensure a wider basis of culture in the candidates for entrance into the profession.

Here also it may be mentioned, by the way, though space cannot be given to elaborate the subject, that during the same period the need for the provision of proper school-buildings and equipment has been clearly recognized, and that great ameliorations in these respects have been, and are still being, effected.

The teachers' training - colleges have been brought into closer connexion with the universities, and in New South Wales the Principal of the College is also University Professor of Education. Students are first selected by examination at a standard which assumes a three years' course of education beyond the primary school. Free or assisted education then follows at high or secondary schools. At the college the ordinary course is for two years, but a one year's course may

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suffice to entitle the candidate to a third-class certificate. Selected students are eligible for third- and fourth-year courses. Provision is also made for courses for kindergarten and infant school teachers. Students may qualify for free attendance at the university, and are encouraged to proceed to a degree. Diplomas of Education are granted to graduates who have passed a prescribed course of training for secondary teachers. It should be mentioned that the University of Sydney provides for lectures in the evening in many of its faculties for students unable to attend those given during the day-time.

These developments have done much to facilitate the systematic interchanges of teachers between England and Australia that the last few years have seen in operation—an arrangement likely to prove of great value to both countries.

The main defect of the superseded systems was the division of the curriculum into separate subjects treated independently. On the institution of the new methods strong emphasis was laid on the need for vocational training. The experiences of the last ten years have done much to indicate the most effective means for organizing the primary school system as a serviceable pre-

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paration for later specialization, but great difficulties have been encountered in the attempts to establish and co-ordinate the various institutions designed to give vocational training. To judge by current opinion, as represented in the Australian Press, though good work has been done, there is still much room for improvement and further development. Some sort of order had first to be produced from rather chaotic conditions. Technical education had not been systematized by the departments in the same way as primary and secondary education. Good schools and colleges existed—especially in respect of agricultural and mining pursuits—which were subsidized by the State Governments, but were managed by local committees or councils, and now measures have been taken for the linking-up of these with the general system. The need for placing technical training in satisfactory association with the national system of education is fully recognized ; the obstacles are costliness and the difficulty of equalizing the opportunities for all.

In commenting on the unsatisfactory condition of technical education in 1914, Mr Anderson predicted that it was not probable that the German

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model of technical universities would be used in Australia. Future development would be on British lines, a greater extension of the higher scientific-technical work at the university, which should be the highest centre of training, and at which all the great national interests should be represented. The technical colleges would be organized so as to free the universities from a great part of the necessary elementary scientific instruction, and to supplement the university by affording material facilities for specialized technical application and research. The prediction, if not yet fulfilled, may be said to represent the ideal toward which progress, as it becomes possible, is being made.

The universities of Australia, of which there is now one in each State, with faculties of arts, literature, and an ever-increasing number of professional schools, are of inestimable value to the country. Though they are governed by their senates or councils, and administer in some cases large endowments from private benefaction, they are all in receipt of Parliamentary grants and stand at the apex of each State's educational organization. Yet there is no clashing with the respective Departments of Public Instruction, nor is there



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likely to be ; and the measure of independence that the universities possess is of real advantage to the community. They exert a strong influence and collect into corporations potent for action the most enlightened minds and the most eminent personalities connected with education. It was by members of their personnel that the necessity for the change from the old to the new systems was first seen and most strenuously advocated. They may be trusted to oppose any reaction or retrogressive movement, and to assist to the utmost of their powers further advances toward realization of present educational ideals and perfection of method.

E. R. GARNSEY

## XII

### INDIA

**I**N Europe modern education has been the development of a system indigenous to the soil. In Africa, America, and Australia education was carried by the white settlers with them, but it has not yet touched the aboriginals in these lands, and therefore educational method and practice there are not much different in character from those of mid-Europe or Great Britain. The story of the educational advancement in India has, however, certain characteristics whereby one can easily distinguish it from that of Europe on the one hand or of Africa, America, or Australia on the other. India is a country with an ancient civilization as great as that of Greece and Rome, if not greater, and once upon a time the country possessed a system of education in every way comparable to the most modern types. From about 600 B.C. to A.D. 600 the Indian universities were powerful centres of culture, and a mass of literature is now available showing this most glorious period in the history of India in its true perspective.

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It is not yet clear what led to the subsequent decay. It might have been the effect of successive foreign invasions from the North-West Frontier, or the intolerant attitude of the early Moham-medans, who would burn everything but the sacred Koran, or the rise of some schools of thought which gave greater prominence to faith than to reason. It is true, however, that from about A.D. 1000 the great Indian universities disappeared from the land, and a hundred years ago, when the British rule was firmly established here, what passed for the Indian system of education was not worth encouragement ; and at the advice of Lord Macaulay, who was then a member of the Viceroy's Council, Lord William Bentinck decided to establish in India schools and colleges on Western models. The system of education adopted in India is therefore entirely foreign, and before it is assimilated by the country either the system or the people's minds will have greatly to be modified. Meanwhile English education is steadily progressing. In the year 1824, in this vast country, there were not six schools of the modern type and almost no expenditure was incurred by the Government treasury on their account. In 1924 the country had a dozen

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universities—seven of these were added during the last seven years, and perhaps seven more will be added by 1930. These universities have affiliated over 250 collegiate institutions and 2000 high schools. According to the *Report on Indian Education, 1922-23*, the total number of scholars receiving primary, secondary, and higher education in March 1923 was 8,791,090, and the total educational expenditure by Government and other sources was Rs. 190,404,036 (£12,693,602). This is a glorious achievement for the British bureaucracy, and when the dust of political controversy settles down, and the self-governing India looks back with an impartial mind on this period of a hundred years, without any hesitation this will be put down as the greatest debt India owes to Britain.

However, vast as these strides are, India continues to be one of the most backward of the civilized countries in the world. Less than five per cent. of her population can read or write, and there is little hope of this percentage going much higher during the next decade with only about three per cent. of her population attending various schools and colleges. The secondary schools are sending out students ill-prepared for the battle of life, and the universities are any-

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thing but centres of culture. In fifty years Japan placed herself on a level with the most advanced of European countries, while, in spite of 150 years of British rule, India has to occupy one of the back seats. Government attribute this to the numerous difficulties in the way of progress. India is a continent almost as big as half Europe and has a population less homogeneous. Numerous provincial vernaculars, the caste-ridden society, the large number of untouchables, and an equally large number of semi-civilized population are no ordinary impediments. On the other hand, certain communities like the Brahmins of Western and Southern India, the Baniyas and the Parsees of Gujarat, the Nairs of Malabar, the Kayasthas of Bengal, the Mohammedans of Northern India, offer excellent material. They have so far supplied the country with two senior wranglers, a Smith's Prizeman, three Fellows of the Royal Society of London, a Nobel Prizeman, a Cabinet Minister and a few statesmen of international reputation. With a more vigorous and well-directed educational policy it should have been possible to get a good deal more out of them.

Partly these inherent defects in the educational policy, and partly the general awakening in the

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country caused by the spread of English education, have produced a lot of discontent in the Indian mind. The whole country is in a ferment, and there is a universal demand for compulsory education, vocational schools, reform of universities, improvement of high schools, and establishment of technological institutions. Representatives of the people are pressing their claims in each and every legislative council, and one need not be surprised if the next generation witnesses a more rapid advance than has ever been possible before. Unfortunately, these claims are being pressed at a time of great financial stringency. In spite of enormous increase in taxation the provincial and central legislatures have had to face deficits during the last four years, and the above claims, instead of supporting each other, as they ought to, are conflicting between themselves. The representatives of the illiterate masses want all available funds for compulsory primary education in rural areas; the university men consider it a waste unless the secondary and higher education progresses hand in hand with the primary. Economists who are distressed at the ever-increasing poverty of India are clamouring for technical education and vocational

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schools all over the country. It is impossible to satisfy all claims, and there is the fear of the progress of education in this generation being hampered at each step. From 1900 to 1910 there were huge surplus balances with the Government of India, and if these had been more liberally utilized for the all-round advancement of primary, secondary, higher, and technical education the investment would have by now yielded a handsome rate of interest ; but bureaucratic administration everywhere likes to move at a snail's pace. The University of Dacca contemplated by Lord Curzon in 1904 began its work in 1920. A tame measure of permissive compulsion in municipal towns introduced by the late Hon. Mr Gokhale in 1911 was thrown out by Government with the help of the official block.

It is shown above that modern education in India is a renaissance of learning brought about by the British administrators in the last century and has naturally all the virtues and defects of the Renaissance period of mid-Europe. The study of letters is even now more dominant than the study of Nature and her work. The educational institutions are machines for turning out matriculates and graduates, and possess little cultural

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value. The university degree, instead of being a hall-mark of superior intellect, has degenerated into a ticket for admission to the services, and this has added to the discontent of the public against the educational administration of the country. The tempest has been slowly gaining strength. Almost at the close of the last century the Arya-Samajists of Punjab tried to establish *gurukuls* (unitary teaching universities of the type prevailing in ancient India), and the *gurukul* of Haridwar—a place in the Himalayas—is a powerful centre of education. The students there are kept for twelve years in isolation from the world outside, and great importance is attached to the study of Sanscrit and Vedas (sacred books of the Hindus). The experiment has not, however, proved very successful. A compromise is attempted at the Hindu university of Benares and the Moslem university of Aligarh. At the *gurukul* English education is discarded as being unsuited to the natural bent of Indian mind. At Benares and Aligarh the importance of English education is fully understood, and it is given a prominent place in the curriculum; but provision is made for introducing the pupils to the glories of ancient India and of Islam. Both these are



flourishing institutions and are destined to play an important part in the making of the Indian nation.

There is a small section of the officials who think a blunder was made by Lord William Bentinck's Government, and if possible they would turn back the wheel of time and keep India out of contact with the disquieting influence of English education. There is similarly a small section of the Indian public who think English education, especially as it is imparted in the existing schools and colleges in India, has denationalized the Indian mind and created a sort of slave mentality. They would therefore take the educational administration from out of the hands of the alien Government, establish national colleges and schools, and produce a generation of patriotic Indians full of love for their country and their religion. These considerations gain special prominence whenever the country is in the throes of violent agitation over a political question, and on three different occasions a wave of national education did pass over the country :

- (a) In the year 1907 in connexion with the agitation over the partition of Bengal.

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- (b) In the year 1917, when a unanimous demand for Home Rule was presented to the Government of India and British Parliament.
- (c) In the year 1920, when Mr M. K. Gandhi led the Non-co-operation movement so well known to the readers of newspapers.

The national education in India is a political rather than an educational question, and its effects on educational policy have been so far only indirect. In spite of the magnitude it attained in the years 1920-21 educationists did not value it beyond a temporary disturbance. But the wave is sure to appear again and perhaps with greater force, and it may not then be as easy to send it back.

The educational advance of India is so much mixed up with the political advance of the country that it is impossible to refer to one without a simultaneous reference to the other. Most of the prominent Indian educationists are political workers. The late Messrs Tilak and Gokhale in Bombay were professors at the Fergusson College, Poona, before they entered the political arena. Sir Surendranath Banerjea conducted the Ripon

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College, in Calcutta. The Right Hon. Mr Shastri was the headmaster of a high school in Madras Presidency. The well-known Punjab politician, Mr Lala Lajpatrai, was the soul of the D.A.V. College, Lahore. A number of politicians are also known as prominent educationists. Pandit Madan Mohan Malviya, a leading politician of U.P., is the founder of the Benares Hindu university. Mr M. K. Gandhi has a *Neubof* at Ahmedabad, and Mrs Besant, who is now more Indian than British, is alternately an educationist and a politician. One may be pardoned, therefore, if in the above narrative there has been an occasional digression from a strictly educational point of view. The educational policy of the Indian Government is at present in a melting-pot, and instead of supplying dry figures to state the progress achieved by the Indian Government I have preferred to describe the educational tendencies of the people who have now obtained a partial control of the policy since the inauguration of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms in the year 1920.

But all educationists are not politicians, and a relatively small but an influential group of educational workers is happily able to take a

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detached view of educational problems and guide uninformed public opinion along right channels. It was this group that successfully warded off the attacks of the Non-co-operators two years ago and obtained the confidence of the students and their parents. It will be this group that will in future direct the educational policy of the country, behind the screens. According to them the present unsatisfactory condition of education in India is due to the rot in secondary schools, most of which are worked along wrong lines. Mr Rushbrook Williams, the official historian of the Government of India, writes in *India in 1922*: "Unfortunately the quantitative statistical index is a very poor guide to the quality of secondary education in India. This branch is undeniably of poor standard and badly regulated. Now, since by far the largest proportion of the population of any country can scarcely, even under the most favourable circumstances, hope to pursue its formal education beyond the full secondary stage, it is of first importance that the structure of secondary education should be sound and well balanced."

In my opinion the greatest defect in our educational policy is in the fact that our adminis-

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trators look to the West not only for inspiration, but even for detailed guidance, and measures are imported from England and thrust on Indian schools without the necessary modifications. The schools in India are all modelled on the lines of the old Board schools in England, and in the officialized atmosphere necessitated on this account there is little scope left for developing individuality. The future diplomat, the future millowner, the future mechanic, the future shoemaker, the future hawker, the future pleader, the future doctor are all expected to learn the same six or seven subjects in the same school under the same master ; this is like putting an elephant and a horse to the same yoke—and after passing through the mill of examinations we find the diplomat turns a shoemaker, and the shoemaker becomes a hawker, and the hawker sits down to write prescriptions. No improvement in Indian education will be possible until this levelling steam-roller of the educational department is for a while thrown aside, and schools are started on the lines of the public and grammar schools in England to suit the needs of different classes and enjoying perfect liberty in internal administration.

Under the present system each boy has to pass

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his matriculation and obtain a university degree if he wants to be somebody in the province. If he drops off in the middle, in most cases he drops off for ever. There is no line open to him, in the absence of a university degree, excepting trade and speculation at the Stock Exchange, in which he may try his talents and rise to the highest position. This has led to the overcrowding of our colleges, and the degree has much depreciated in value. How to select entrants for the university is one of the most difficult problems India has to face. To achieve this, attempts are made to stiffen the standard or to increase the tuition fees in colleges; but the right solution lies in making it unnecessary for all to get into the university. The matriculated student is considered at present as good for nothing but for entering into a university or to sweat as a petty clerk in some office. Educationists are directing their efforts to remedy this as far as possible and make the matriculation test suited to other walks of life as well.

Will the readers of the present volume be surprised if they are told that the medium of instruction in Indian schools is not the vernacular of the pupils? Indian students are expected to master their subjects through a foreign medium

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## INDIA

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(English). The Prussian Government was universally hated for insisting on German being the medium of instruction in the schools of Alsace and Lorraine. In India, however, it is not the British bureaucracy which is to blame for this unnatural educational experiment. Some of the older educationists, especially in cosmopolitan towns like Bombay and Calcutta, are so much hypnotized by the beneficent influence of English education that they believe education is not worth having unless it includes the study of English literature and facility in English writing and English speaking; and they think this would not be possible if the medium of instruction were the vernacular of the pupil. These men do not represent the public opinion, but being nominated by Government they control the universities, and the universities in India have a considerable control over secondary schools. With the democratization of the universities it is expected the Indian schools will be less subject to this intellectual tyranny.

It will thus be seen that while the number of educational institutions and the number of scholars attending these institutions are annually increasing, India is still far off from 'modern

### *EDUCATIONAL ADVANCEMENT ABROAD*

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education.' The country has produced a Tagore, a Ramanujan, a Bose, a Rây, a Raman, and there are probably a few more names as great as these ; but they are like the palm-trees in a vast desert, and it would be deceptive to form an impression of the advancement of education in India from their reflected glory. There is, however, no room for pessimism of any kind. The country is at present witnessing a great upheaval, and changes have occurred which even the boldest dreamer would not have foreseen ten years ago. With the advent of the new awakening a new life has inspirited the masses, and it is not possible they will hereafter allow an easy time to their Ministers of Education. The unrest and discontent most vividly displayed in the Non-co-operation movement are not the symptoms of disease, but the external manifestations of growing keenness to secure for the country all her ancient greatness.

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